

KADIKOY
Special Committee
Revolutionary Talks
Study Guide

p.s. Since our committee is a special one, delegates are expected to read the study guide carefully and do extra research. In the first session, delegates will discuss upon the reforms of Europe and their consequences. European Union's establishment and the main goals are expected to be tackled.

The Reformation of the 16th century, sometimes known as “Protestant Reformation” in order to distinguish it from a Catholic “Reformation,” was a pan-European movement that called for reform of the Roman Catholic Church as well as the entirety of Christian society. For many of the reformers, however, more was at issue than mere reform; they called for a fundamental re-conceptualization of theology. The Reformation failed in influencing the Catholic Church. Martin Luther, the early leader of the movement, was excommunicated by the Catholic Church, but defiantly pursued his understanding of the Christian faith. As a result of the Reformation new Protestant churches with distinct theological profiles emerged. Several features have characterized scholarship on the Reformation. For one, the historiography of the Reformation has traditionally tended to followed confessional lines, with Protestant scholars painting a negative picture of the state of the Catholic Church on the eve of the Reformation, and an exuberant picture of the achievements of the reformers. Catholic scholars saw things the other way around. More recently a more judicious treatment, less confessionally oriented, of the religious turbulence of the 16th century has emerged. Also, historians of the Reformation have employed different conceptual frames of reference, particularly regarding the question of the primary factor (religion, politics, personal ambition, economics) of the turbulence. This bibliography considers the broad outlines of the Protestant Reformation of the 16th century. Other entries consider the Reformation in England, France, and the German lands; the Catholic Reformation; the Radical Sects; and key Reformation individuals.

Enlightenment, a European intellectual movement of the 17th and 18th centuries in which ideas concerning God, reason, nature, and humanity were synthesized into a worldview that gained wide assent in the West and that instigated revolutionary developments in [art](#), [philosophy](#), and politics. Central to Enlightenment thought were the use and celebration of [reason](#), the power by which humans understand the universe and improve their own condition. The goals of rational humanity were considered to be knowledge, freedom, and happiness.

CAUSES

1. Methods and ways of thinking developed during the scientific revolution of the 15th through 17th centuries
2. Renaissance humanism, which rediscovered Classical literature and culture
3. The Reformation and its undermining of the Roman Catholic Church's authority

OUTCOMES

4. The understanding of the universe as a mechanism governed by discoverable laws
5. The belief that human history is a record of progress
6. The emergence of Romanticism in the late 18th century
7. The first modern secularized theories of psychology and ethics
8. The idea of society as a social contract

9. The use and celebration of reason

The French Revolution had general causes common to all the revolutions of the West at the end of the 18th century and particular causes that explain why it was by far the most violent and the most universally significant of these revolutions. The first of the general causes was the social structure of the West. The **feudal** regime had been weakened step-by-step and had already disappeared in parts of **Europe**. The increasingly numerous and prosperous elite of wealthy commoners—merchants, manufacturers, and professionals, often called the **bourgeoisie**—aspired to political power in those countries where it did not already possess it. The **peasants**, many of whom owned land, had attained an improved standard of living and **education** and wanted to get rid of the last vestiges of feudalism so as to acquire the full rights of landowners and to be free to increase their holdings. Furthermore, from about 1730, higher **standards of living** had reduced the **mortality** rate among adults considerably. This, together with other factors, had led to an increase in the population of Europe unprecedented for several centuries: it doubled between 1715 and 1800. For France, which with 26 million inhabitants in 1789 was the most populated country of Europe, the problem was most acute.

The Estates-General met at **Versailles** on May 5, 1789. They were immediately divided over a fundamental issue: should they vote by head, giving the advantage to the Third Estate, or by estate, in which case the two privileged orders of the realm might outvote the third? On June 17 the bitter struggle over this legal issue finally drove the deputies of the Third Estate to declare themselves the **National Assembly**; they threatened to proceed, if necessary, without the other two orders. They were supported by many of the parish priests, who outnumbered the aristocratic upper clergy among the church's deputies. When royal officials locked the deputies out of their regular meeting hall on June 20, they occupied the king's indoor tennis court (*Jeu de Paume*) and swore an **oath** not to disperse until they had given France a new constitution. The king grudgingly gave in and urged the nobles and the remaining clergy to join the assembly, which took the official title of **National Constituent Assembly** on July 9; at the same time, however, he began gathering troops to dissolve it.



Couder, Auguste: Opening of the Estates-General Opening of the Estates-General, May 5, 1789, oil on canvas by Auguste Couder, 1839; in the Museum of the History of France, Palace of Versailles.

These two months of prevarication at a time when the problem of maintaining food supplies had reached its climax infuriated the towns and the provinces. Rumours of an “aristocratic conspiracy” by the king and the privileged to overthrow the Third Estate led to the [Great Fear](#) of July 1789, when the peasants were nearly panic-stricken. The gathering of troops around Paris and the dismissal of Necker provoked insurrection in the capital. On July 14, 1789, the Parisian crowd seized the [Bastille](#), a symbol of royal tyranny. Again the king had to yield; visiting Paris, he showed his recognition of the sovereignty of the people by wearing the [tricolour](#) cockade.



The storming of the Bastille on July 14, 1789, undated coloured engraving.

In the provinces, the Great Fear of July led the peasants to rise against their lords. The nobles and the bourgeois now took fright. The National Constituent Assembly could see only one way to check the peasants; on the night of August 4, 1789, it decreed the abolition of the feudal regime and of the tithe. Then on August 26 it introduced the [Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen](#), proclaiming liberty, equality, the inviolability of property, and the right to resist oppression.

The decrees of August 4 and the Declaration were such innovations that the king refused to sanction them. The Parisians rose again and on October 5 marched to Versailles. The next day they brought the royal family back to Paris. The National Constituent Assembly followed the court, and in Paris it continued to work on the new constitution.

The French population participated actively in the new political culture created by the Revolution. Dozens of uncensored newspapers kept citizens abreast of events, and political clubs allowed them to voice their opinions. Public ceremonies such as the planting of “trees of liberty” in small villages and the Festival of Federation, held in Paris in 1790 on the first anniversary of the storming of the Bastille, were symbolic affirmations of the new order.

The New Regime

The National Constituent Assembly completed the abolition of feudalism, suppressed the old “orders,” established civil equality among men (at least in metropolitan France, since [slavery](#) was retained in the colonies), and made more than half the adult male population eligible to vote, although only a small minority met the requirement for becoming a deputy. The decision to nationalize the lands of the [Roman Catholic Church](#) in France to pay off the public debt led to a widespread redistribution of property. The bourgeoisie and the peasant landowners were undoubtedly the chief beneficiaries, but some farm workers also were able to buy land. The land transfer was made through the sale of [assignats](#), [bonds](#) that were issued by the National Constituent Assembly and guaranteed by the value of the church lands. The bonds were to be retired once the transfer had been completed, but within a year, assignats in varying denominations were being printed as a form of Revolutionary [currency](#), with predictable [inflationary](#) effects. Having deprived the church of its resources, the assembly then resolved to reorganize the church, enacting the [Civil Constitution of the Clergy](#), which was rejected by Pope [Pius VI](#) and by many of the French clergy. This produced a schism that aggravated the violence of the accompanying controversies.

The complicated administrative system of the ancien régime was swept away by the National Constituent Assembly, which substituted a rational system based on the division of France into départements, districts, [cantons](#), and [communes](#) administered by elected assemblies. The principles underlying the administration of justice were also radically changed, and the system was adapted to the new administrative divisions. Significantly, the judges were to be elected.



The National Constituent Assembly tried to create a monarchical regime in which the legislative and executive powers were shared between the king and an assembly. This regime might have worked if the king had really wanted to govern with the new authorities, but Louis XVI was weak and vacillating and was the prisoner of his aristocratic advisers. On June 20–21, 1791, he tried to flee the country, but he was stopped at Varennes and brought back to Paris.

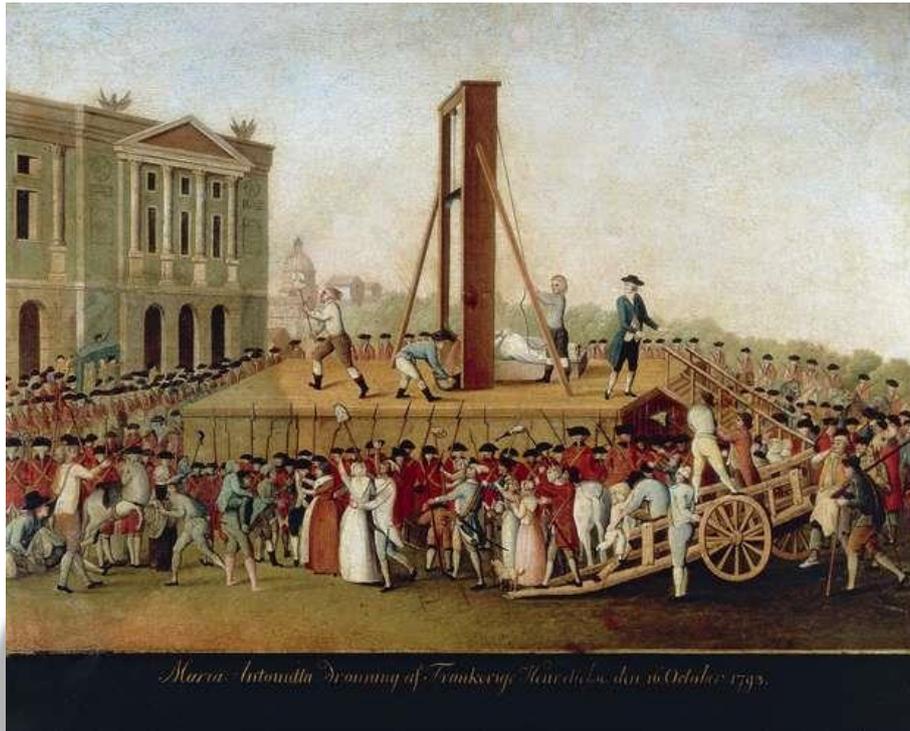
Counterrevolution, Regicide, And The Reign Of Terror

The events in France gave new hope to the revolutionaries who had been defeated a few years previously in the [United Provinces](#), [Belgium](#), and [Switzerland](#). Likewise, all those who wanted changes in [England](#), [Ireland](#), the [German](#) states, the [Austrian](#) lands, or [Italy](#) looked upon the Revolution with sympathy.

A number of French counterrevolutionaries—nobles, ecclesiastics, and some bourgeois—abandoned the struggle in their own country and emigrated. As “émigrés,” many formed armed groups close to the northeastern frontier of France and sought help from the rulers of Europe. The rulers were at first indifferent to the Revolution but began to worry when the National Constituent Assembly proclaimed a revolutionary principle of international law—namely, that a people had the right of [self-determination](#). In accordance with this principle, the papal territory of [Avignon](#) was reunited with France on September 13, 1791. By early 1792 both radicals, eager to spread the principles of the Revolution, and the king, hopeful that war would either strengthen his authority or allow foreign armies to rescue him, supported an aggressive policy. France declared war against [Austria](#) on April 20, 1792.

In the first phase of the war (April–September 1792), France suffered defeats; [Prussia](#) joined the war in July, and an Austro-Prussian army crossed the frontier and advanced rapidly toward Paris. Believing that they had been betrayed by the monarchy—indeed, France’s Austrian-born queen, [Marie-Antoinette](#), had privately encouraged her brother, Holy Roman Emperor [Leopold II](#), to invade France as a counterrevolutionary measure—the Paris revolutionaries rose on August 10, 1792. They occupied [Tuileries Palace](#), where Louis XVI was living, and imprisoned the royal family in the Temple. At the beginning of September, the Parisian crowd broke into the prisons and massacred the nobles and clergy held there. Meanwhile, volunteers were pouring into the army as the Revolution had awakened French [nationalism](#). In a final effort the French forces checked the Prussians on September 20, 1792, at Valmy. On the same day, a new assembly, the [National Convention](#), met. The next day it proclaimed the abolition of the [monarchy](#) and the establishment of the [republic](#).

In the second phase of the war (September 1792–April 1793), the revolutionaries got the better of the enemy. [Belgium](#), the [Rhineland](#), [Savoy](#), and the county of [Nice](#) were occupied by French armies. Meanwhile, the National Convention was divided between the [Girondins](#), who wanted to organize a bourgeois republic in France and to spread the Revolution over the whole of Europe, and the [Montagnards](#) (“Mountain Men”), who, with [Maximilien Robespierre](#), wanted to give the lower classes a greater share in political and economic power. Despite efforts made by the Girondins, [Louis XVI](#) was judged by the Convention, condemned to death for treason, and executed on January 21, 1793; Marie-Antoinette was [guillotined](#) nine months later.



Marie-Antoinette Execution of Marie-Antoinette, 1793; in the Carnavalet Museum, Paris. De Agostini

In the spring of 1793, the war entered a third phase, marked by new French defeats. Austria, Prussia, and Great Britain formed a coalition (later called the First Coalition), to which most of the rulers of Europe adhered. France lost Belgium and the Rhineland, and invading forces threatened Paris. These reverses, as those of 1792 had done, strengthened the extremists. The Girondin leaders were driven from the National Convention, and the Montagnards, who had the support of the Paris sansculottes (workers, craftsmen, and shopkeepers), seized power and kept it until 9 Thermidor, year II, of the new French republican calendar (July 27, 1794). The Montagnards were bourgeois liberals like the Girondins but under pressure from the sansculottes, and, in order to meet the requirements of defense, they adopted a radical economic and social policy. They introduced the Maximum (government control of prices), taxed the rich, brought national assistance to the poor and to the disabled, declared that education should be free and compulsory, and ordered the confiscation and sale of the property of émigrés. These exceptional measures provoked violent reactions: the Wars of the Vendée, the “federalist” risings in Normandy and in Provence, the revolts of Lyon and Bordeaux, and the insurrection of the Chouans in Brittany. Opposition, however, was broken by the Reign of Terror (19 Fructidor, year I–9 Thermidor, year II [September 5, 1793–July

27, 1794]), which entailed the arrest of at least 300,000 suspects, 17,000 of whom were sentenced to death and executed while more died in prisons or were killed without any form of trial. At the same time, the revolutionary government raised an army of more than one million men.



Une Exécution capitale, place de la Révolution, painting by Pierre-Antoine Demachy. An execution by guillotine during the Reign of Terror, depicted in *Une Exécution capitale, place de la Révolution*, oil on paper mounted on canvas by Pierre-Antoine Demachy, c. 1793; in the Carnavalet Museum, Paris. ©



The last prisoners awaiting execution during the Reign of Terror in 1794, undated engraving.

Thanks to this army, the war entered its fourth phase (beginning in the spring of 1794). A brilliant victory over the Austrians at [Fleurus](#) on 8 Messidor, year II (June 26, 1794), enabled the French to reoccupy Belgium. Victory made the Terror and the economic and social restrictions seem pointless. Robespierre, “the Incorruptible,” who had sponsored the restrictions, was overthrown in the National Convention on 9 [Thermidor](#), year II (July 27, 1794), and executed the following day. Soon after his fall the Maximum was abolished, the social laws were no longer applied, and efforts toward economic equality were abandoned. Reaction set in; the National Convention began to debate a new constitution; and, meanwhile, in the west and in the southeast, a royalist “[White Terror](#)” broke out. Royalists even tried to seize power in Paris but were crushed by the young Gen. [Napoleon Bonaparte](#) on 13 Vendémiaire, year IV (October 5, 1795). A few days later the National Convention dispersed.

The Directory And Revolutionary Expansion

The constitution of the year III, which the National Convention had approved, placed executive power in a **Directory** of five members and legislative power in two chambers, the **Council of Ancients** and the **Council of the Five Hundred** (together called the **Corps Législatif**). This regime, a bourgeois republic, might have achieved stability had not war perpetuated the struggle between revolutionaries and counterrevolutionaries throughout Europe. The war, moreover, embittered existing antagonisms between the Directory and the legislative councils in France and often gave rise to new ones. These disputes were settled by **coups d'état**, chiefly those of 18 Fructidor, year V (September 4, 1797), which removed the royalists from the Directory and from the councils, and of 18 Brumaire, year VIII (November 9, 1799), in which Bonaparte abolished the Directory and became the leader of France as its “first **consul**.”

After the victory of Fleurus, the progress of the French armies in Europe had continued. The Rhineland and **Holland** were occupied, and in 1795 Holland, **Tuscany**, Prussia, and **Spain** negotiated for peace. When the French army under Bonaparte entered **Italy** (1796), **Sardinia** came quickly to terms. Austria was the last to give in (**Treaty of Campo Formio**, 1797). Most of the countries occupied by the French were organized as “sister republics,” with institutions modeled on those of Revolutionary France.

Peace on the continent of Europe, however, did not end revolutionary expansion. The majority of the directors had inherited the Girondin desire to spread the Revolution over Europe and listened to the appeals of **Jacobins** abroad. Thus French troops in 1798 and 1799 entered **Switzerland**, the **Papal States**, and **Naples** and set up the **Helvetic**, **Roman**, and **Parthenopean** republics. Great Britain, however, remained at war with France. Unable to effect a landing in England, the Directory, on Bonaparte's request, decided to threaten the British in **India** by occupying **Egypt**. An expeditionary corps under Bonaparte easily occupied **Malta** and Egypt, but the squadron that had convoyed it was destroyed by **Horatio Nelson's** fleet at the **Battle of the Nile** on 14 Thermidor, year VI (August 1, 1798). This disaster encouraged the formation of a **Second**

Coalition of powers alarmed by the progress of the Revolution. This coalition of Austria, **Russia**, **Turkey**, and Great Britain won great successes during the spring and summer of 1799 and drove back the French armies to the frontiers. Bonaparte thereupon returned to France to exploit his own great prestige and the disrepute into which the military reverses had brought the government. His **coup d'état of 18 Brumaire** overthrew the Directory and substituted the consulate. Although Bonaparte proclaimed the end of the Revolution, he himself was to spread it in new forms throughout Europe.

Source: Encyclopædia Britannica, 19. yy. Siyasal Tarihi- Fahir Armaoglu

