

Safari Academy **ሳፋሪ አካዳሚ**

Your Kids Our Kids!" **"ልጆችዎ ልጆቻችን ናቸው!"**

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Grade 11 History Handout

2019/20 AY

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Dear students first read your text book on the topics mentioned below and move on reading my note. After having a clear understanding, I advise you to make an attempt to respond the following brainstorming questions.

Brainstorming Questions

1. What were the basic and immediate causes of the French revolution?
2. How do you understand the Enlightenment? Write also the causes of the Enlightenment.
3. How did the Enlightenment philosophe see religion and science?
5. What do we mean by active and passive citizens during the French revolution?
6. Discuss on the three estates of France during the old regime.
7. Write something on the contributions of the American war of independence.
8. What was the main mistake that Napoleon did which hastened his downfall?

1. China in the 16th and 17th centuries

It was during the Han dynasty (221BC-206AD) that China reunited as a single empire ruled by emperor. The leaders were educated along Confucians philosophy. The officials were conservatives and they were change resistant. They consider the past as superior than the present. Chinese civilizations for them were superior to any civilizations of the world.

Chinese culture reached its climax during the Ming dynasty in the 14th century. In the 15th century the Ming sent voyages of exploration to the outside world. It was, however, in the 17th century that the Ming dynasty declined because of internal peasant revolt and external attack by Manchu state.

After Ming, the Manchu people from Manchuria established the Ching dynasty. The Manchu people were not ethnically Chinese and had their own language. It was in 1644 that the Chinese controlled Beijing. The Ching ruled china based on Chinese way of administration and accepted the Confucian philosophy. The Ching was accepted by the landlord and educated classes of China. The relations between the Ching rulers and European countries were limited. It was only the Russian merchants that were allowed to trade with China. Moreover, the Jesuit missionaries tried to create relationships with the Ching, but they were expelled in the 18th century. During Ching time, Britain defeated China in 1839-42 war and imposed unequal treaty on China.

2. Japan in the 16th and 18th centuries

Civilization in Japan was highly influenced by China but they Japanized them. The Emperor was a kind of puppet, because the real power was in the hands of the commanders of the army (Shogun). The Daimyos (the great feudal lords) ruled their land called Han. The feudal warriors are called Samurai. In about 1490, Japan entered a long period of civil war among Daimyos but in the early 17th century, the Tokugawa Daimyo family defeated other Daimyos. The leader of Tokugawa Daimyo called Ieyasu was the first Tokugawa Daimyo who took power in 1603. Ieyasu united Japan.

Europeans for the first time reached Japan in the 16th century. By 1615 half a million people were converted to Catholicism, but they were expelled from Japan. By 1639, the Tokugawa government declared a seclusion or isolation policy. During the Isolation time, Korea and China

were able to trade with Japan. From European countries, it was only the Dutch merchants that were allowed to trade with China.

3. The French Revolution

The Revolution was began in 1789 and ended in 1799. The Revolution overthrew the monarchy, established a republic, catalyzed violent periods of political turmoil, and finally culminated in a dictatorship under Napoleon who brought many of its principles to areas he conquered in Western Europe and beyond. Inspired by liberal and radical ideas, the Revolution made a profound impression on the course of modern history, triggering the global decline of absolute monarchies while replacing them with republics and liberal democracies. Through the Revolutionary Wars, it unleashed a wave of global conflicts that extended from the Caribbean to the Middle East. Historians widely regard the Revolution as one of the most important events in human history.

3.1. Causes of the French Revolution

Historians have pointed to many events and factors within the Ancient Regime that led to the Revolution. Rising social and economic inequality, new political ideas emerging from the Enlightenment, economic mismanagement, and environmental factors leading to agricultural failure, unmanageable national debt, and political mismanagement on the part of King Louis XVI have all been cited as laying the groundwork for the Revolution.

The economy in the Ancient Régime during the years preceding the Revolution suffered from instability. The sequence of events leading to the Revolution included the national government's fiscal troubles caused by an unjust, inefficient and deeply hated tax system, and by expenditure on numerous large wars. The attempt to challenge British naval and commercial power in the Seven Years' War was a costly disaster, with the loss of France's colonial possessions in continental North America and the destruction of the French Navy. French forces were rebuilt, and feeling bitter about having lost many of France's overseas colonies to the British Empire during the Seven Years' War, Louis XVI was eager to give the American rebels financial and military support. After the British surrender at the Battle of Saratoga, the French sent 10,000 troops and millions of dollars to the rebels. Despite succeeding in gaining independence for the Thirteen Colonies, France was severely indebted by the American Revolutionary War. France's

inefficient and antiquated financial system could not finance this debt. Faced with a financial crisis, the king called an Estates General in 1787 for the first time in over a century since 1614.

France was experiencing such a severe economic depression that there wasn't enough food to go around. Poor harvests lasting several years and an inadequate transportation system both contributed to making food more expensive. As with most monarchies, the upper class was always ensured a stable living, so while the rich remained very wealthy, the majority of the French population was starving. Many were so destitute that they couldn't even feed their families and resorted to theft or prostitution to stay alive. Meanwhile, the royal court at Versailles was isolated from and indifferent to the escalating crisis. While in theory King Louis XVI was an absolute monarch, in practice he was often indecisive and known to back down when faced with strong opposition. While he did reduce government expenditures, opponents in the parliaments successfully thwarted his attempts at enacting much needed reforms. The Enlightenment had produced many writers, pamphleteers and publishers who could inform or inflame public opinion. The opposition used this resource to mobilize public opinion against the monarchy, which in turn tried to repress the underground literature.

3.2. The Ancient Regime in France

In 1774 Louis XVI ascended to the throne in the middle of a financial crisis in which the state was faced with a budget deficit and was nearing bankruptcy. This was due in part to France's costly involvements in the Seven Years' War and later the American Revolutionary War. The King announced the calling of the Estates-General for May 1789, the first time the body had been summoned since 1614.

The French society during the old regime, were divided in to three social groups called Estates:

- The first Estate includes the Catholic clergy and the royal family. This Estate was privileged and they paid extremely law tax.
- The second Estate was the nobility. It was also a privileged group.
- The third Estate included the bourgeoisie, petty bourgeoisie, wage workers and peasantry.

It is unprivileged group. They paid high tax. Peasants were the most oppressed group from the other groups of the third Estate.

3.3. Estates-General of 1789

The Estates-General was organized into three estates: the clergy, the nobility, and the rest of France. It had last met in 1614. The First Estate represented the Catholic clergy; the Church owned about 10% of the land in France and collected its own taxes (the tithe) on peasants. The lands were controlled by bishops and abbots of monasteries. The Second Estate represented the nobility, who owned about 25% of the land and collected seigniorial dues and rents from their peasant tenants. The Third Estate represented 95% of the population. Half were well educated lawyers or local officials. Nearly a third was in trades or industry.

3.4. The 1789 National Assembly of France

In 1789, the Third Estate proceeds with verifying its own powers and invite the other two estates to take part, but not to wait for them. They proceeded to do so two days later. Then they voted a measure far more radical, declaring themselves the National Assembly, an assembly not of the Estates but of "the People". They invited the other orders to join them, but made it clear they intended to conduct the nation's affairs with or without them.

Weather did not allow an outdoor meeting, and fearing an attack ordered by Louis XVI, they met in a tennis court just outside Versailles, where they proceeded to swear the Tennis Court Oath (20 June 1789) under which they agreed not to separate until they had given France a constitution. A majority of the representatives of the clergy soon joined them, as did 47 members of the nobility. Messages of support for the Assembly poured in from Paris and other French cities.

3.5. Constitutional monarchy

The Storming of the Bastille in July 1789 is widely regarded as the most iconic event of the Revolution. Many Parisians presumed Louis' actions to be aimed against the Assembly and began open rebellion when they heard the news the next day. They were also afraid that arriving soldiers, mostly foreign mercenaries, had been summoned to shut down the National Constituent Assembly. The Assembly, meeting at Versailles, went into nonstop session to prevent another eviction from their meeting place. Paris was soon consumed by riots, chaos, and widespread looting. The mobs soon had the support of some of the French Guard, who were armed and trained soldiers.

On 14 July 1789, the insurgents set their eyes on the large weapons and ammunition cache inside the Bastille fortress, which was also perceived to be a symbol of royal power. After several hours of combat, the prison fell that afternoon.

As civil authority rapidly deteriorated, with random acts of violence and theft breaking out across the country, members of the nobility, fearing for their safety, fled to neighboring countries; many of these emerges, as they were called, funded counter-revolutionary causes within France and urged foreign monarchs to offer military support to a counter-revolution.

By late July, the spirit of popular sovereignty had spread throughout France. In rural areas, many commoners began to form militias and arm themselves against a foreign invasion: some attacked the wealth of the nobility as part of a general agrarian insurrection known as (the Great Fear). In addition, wild rumors and paranoia caused widespread unrest and civil disturbances that contributed to the collapse of law and order.

3.6. Abolition of feudalism

On 4 and 11 August 1789 the National Constituent Assembly abolished privileges and feudalism in the August Decrees, sweeping away personal serfdom, exclusive hunting rights and other seigniorial rights of the Second Estate (nobility).

Also the tithe (a 10% tax for the Church, gathered by the First Estate (clergy)), which had been the main source of income for many clergymen, was abolished. During the course of a few hours nobles, clergy, towns, provinces, companies and cities lost their special privileges.

The old judicial system, based on the 13 regional parliaments, was suspended in November 1789, and officially abolished in September 1790. The main institutional pillars of the old regime had vanished.

3.7. Declaration of the Rights of Man

On 26 August 1789 the Assembly published the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen, which comprised a statement of principles rather than a constitution with legal effect. The Declaration was directly influenced by Thomas Jefferson working with General Lafayette, who introduced it. The National Constituent Assembly functioned not only as a legislature, but also as a body to draft a new constitution.

3.9. Royal flight to Varennes

Louis XVI was increasingly dismayed by the direction of the revolution. Fearing for his own safety and that of his family, he decided to flee Paris to the Austrian border, having been assured of the loyalty of the border garrisons. On the night of 20 June 1791 the royal family fled the Palace dressed as servants, while their servants dressed as nobles.

However, late the next day, the King was recognized and arrested at Varennes and returned to Paris. This event came to be known as the Varennes crises. The Assembly provisionally suspended the King. He and Queen Marie Antoinette remained held under guard. The King's flight had a profound impact on public opinion, turning popular sentiment further against the clergy and nobility, and built momentum for the institution of a constitutional monarchy.

3.10. Completing the constitution

As most of the Assembly still favored a constitutional monarchy rather than a republic, the various groups reached a compromise which left Louis XVI as little more than a figurehead. He was forced to swear an oath to the constitution, and a decree declared that retracting the oath, heading an army for the purpose of making war upon the nation, or permitting anyone to do so in his name would amount to abdication.

An immense crowd gathered to sign the petition. The National Assembly called for the

municipal authorities to "preserve public order". The National Guard under Lafayette's command confronted the crowd. The soldiers responded to a barrage of stones by firing into the crowd, killing between 13 and 50 people. The incident cost Lafayette and his National Guard much public support.

In the wake of the massacre the authorities closed many of the patriotic clubs, as well as radical newspapers. The enlightenment figures like Danton fled to England; Desmoulins and Marat went into hiding.

Meanwhile, in August 1791, a new threat arose from abroad. The King's brother-in-law Holy Roman Emperor Leopold II and King Frederick William II of Prussia declared their intention to bring the French king in the position "to consolidate the basis of a monarchical government" and that they were preparing their own troops for action, hinting at an invasion of France on the King's behalf. But the French people expressed no respect for the dictates of foreign monarchs, and the threat of force merely hastened their militarization.

3.11. Legislative Assembly (Oct. 1791 – Sept. 1792)

The Legislative A lion men, out of a population of 6 million men over the age of 25, who paid a certain minimum amount of taxes. Under the Constitution of 1791, France would function as a constitutional monarchy. The King had to share power with the elected Legislative Assembly, but he retained his royal veto and the ability to select ministers.

Late in 1791, a group of Assembly members who demanded war against Austria and Prussia was, after a remark by the politician Maximilien Robespierre, henceforth known as the 'Girondins', although not all of them really came from the southern province of Gironde. A group around Robespierre – later known as 'Montagnards' or 'Jacobins' – argued against this war; this dispute between the two groups would harden into a bitter enmity over the next year and a half.

In response to the threat of war of August 1791 from Austria and Prussia, leaders of the Assembly saw such a war as a means to strengthen support for their revolutionary government, and the French people as well as the Assembly thought that they would win a war against Austria and Prussia. On 20 April 1792, France declared war on Austria. Late April 1792, France invaded

and conquered the Austrian Netherlands (roughly present-day Belgium and Luxembourg).

3.12. Failure of the constitutional monarchy

The Legislative Assembly degenerated into chaos before October 1792. The Constituent Assembly had liberal, rational, and individualistic goals that seem to have been largely achieved by 1791. However, it failed to consolidate the gains of the Revolution, which continued with increasing momentum and escalating radicalism until 1794. There were six reasons for this escalation. First, the king did not accept the limitations on his powers, and mobilised support from foreign monarchs to reverse it. Second, the effort to overthrow t Roman Catholic Church, s , and replace it with an u s and the peasants. Third, t mounts of paper money (assignats), which caused more and more inflation; the rising prices hurt the urban poor who spent most of their income on food. Fourth, the rural peasants demanded liberation from the heavy system of taxes and dues owed to local landowners. Fifth, the working class of Paris and the other cities, resented the fact that the property owners and professionals had taken all the spoils of the Revolution. Finally, foreign powers threatened to overthrow the Revolution, which responded with extremism and systematic violence in its own defense.

3.13. First Republic

3.13.1. National Convention (Sept. 1792–1795)

Around September 1792, elections were held, now under universal male suffrage, for the new National Convention, which replaced the Legislative Assembly on 20 September 1792. From the start the Convention suffered from the bitter division between a group (political faction) around Robespierre, Danton and Marat, referred to as 'Montagnards' or the 'extreme left', and a group around Brissot, referred to as 'Girondins' as moderate republicans. But the majority of the representatives, referred to as 'la Plaine', were member of neither of those two antagonistic groups and managed to preserve some speed in the Convention's debates. The Plain was formed by independents but dominated by the radical Mountain. The Plaine occupied the middle only in

the sense that its votes determined which group of revolutionary leaders should enjoy the sanctions of relative legality. Immediately on 21 September the Convention abolished the monarchy, making France the French First Republic. A new French Republican Calendar was introduced on 24 October 1793 to replace the Christian Gregorian calendar, renaming the year 1792 as year 1 of the Republic.

3.14. Execution of Louis XVI

Louis XVI was accused for conspiring with the enemies of France. On 17 January 1793 Louis was condemned to death for "conspiracy against the public liberty and the general safety" by a close majority in Convention. Then Louis XVI was executed by guillotine on 21 January 1793. Conservatives across Europe were horrified and monarchies called for war against revolutionary France.

3.15. Reign of Terror

The Reign of Terror refers to a period of the French Revolution when, numerous public executions took place in response to revolutionary fervor, anti-clerical, anti-federalist and anti-aristocratic sentiment, and spurious accusations of treason by Maximilien Robespierre and the Committee of Public Safety. There is disagreement among historians over when exactly “the Terror” started, either in June 1793 or September 1793.

In July the Committee of Public Safety came under the control of Maximilien Robespierre, and the Jacobins unleashed the Reign of Terror (1793–94). According to archival records, at least 16,594 people died under the guillotine or otherwise after accusations of counter-revolutionary activities. As many as 40,000 accused prisoners may have been summarily executed without trial or died awaiting trial.

With the backing of the National Guard, the Jacobins managed to persuade the Convention to arrest ten members of the Commission of Twelve and 21 Girondin leaders, including Jacques Pierre Brissot. Following these arrests, the Jacobins gained control of the Committee of Public Safety on 10 June, installing the revolutionary dictatorship.

The Reign of Terror ultimately weakened the revolutionary government, while temporarily ending internal opposition. The Jacobins expanded the size of the army. The Republican army

repulsed the Austrians, Prussians, British, and Spanish. At the end of 1793, the army began to prevail and revolts were defeated with ease. The Ventôse Decrees in 1794 proposed the confiscation of the goods of exiles and opponents of the Revolution, and their redistribution to the needy. However, this policy was never fully implemented.

3.16. Girondins expelled

On 2 June 1793, the Convention's session in the Palace degenerated into chaos and pandemonium. Crowds of people swarmed in and around the palace. Incessant screaming from the public galleries suggested that all of Paris was against the Girondins. Petitions circulated, indicting and condemning 22 Girondins. After much more tumultuous debate, dozens of Girondins had resigned and left the Convention.

3.19. Guillotining politicians

The execution of Robespierre on 28 July 1794 marked the end of the Reign of Terror. A decree was adopted to arrest Robespierre, Saint-Just and Couthon. 28 July, they and 19 other leading Jacobins were beheaded. 29 July, again 70 members of the Parisian Commune were guillotined.

Napoleonic Era, 1799-1815

In 1796 in the fight against the Austrians he was given the mandate to command the French army and defeated them. He also won the British by land in Syria and Egypt, but he was unable to defeat the British fleet under Sir Admiral Nelson on the sea. Napoleon overthrows the Directory in 1799 and took power in France. He founded a regime called "consulate" and became the first consul. Under him France's influence was extended over Italy, Holland, Switzerland and Germany. In 1804, he restored the old system of monarchical administration and became the emperor of France. Around 1810, Napoleon invaded most of Europe except Britain, Turkey and Russia. At Trafalgar, the French fleet faced disastrous defeat by the British in 1805. In 1812, Napoleon made a big mistake by invading Russia. Beginning from this time onwards, Napoleon began to lose a number of battles. In 1813, the coalition forces of Russia, Britain, Sweden,

Prussia and Austria defeated Napoleon near Leipzig. In 1814, Napoleon was sent to the island of Elba and the Europeans restored the monarchy. However, in 1815 Napoleon escaped from Elba, but he was defeated at the battle of Waterloo. Then he was sent to the Island of Helena and died there in 1821.

What were the contributions of Napoleon?

- Napoleon was able to bring stability in France.
- The quarrel between the Catholic Church and the revolution ended and the Catholic Church became the established church of France.
- He introduced new systems of provincial administration by appointing governors or Prefects.
- Civil, criminal and commercial laws called 'Code of Napoleon' were established.
- The whole system of public schools, military academics and universities were established.

4. Enlightenment

The Age of Enlightenment was an intellectual and philosophical movement that dominated the world of ideas in Europe during the 17th to 19th centuries.

The Enlightenment emerged out of a European intellectual and scholarly movement known as Renaissance humanism. Some consider the publication of Isaac Newton's Principia Mathematica in 1687 as the first major enlightenment work. French historians traditionally date the Enlightenment from 1715 to 1789, from the death of Louis XIV of France until the outbreak of the French Revolution that ended the Ancient Regime. Most end it with the beginning of the 19th century. Philosophers and scientists of the period widely circulated their ideas through meetings at scientific academies, Masonic lodges, literary salons, coffee houses and in printed books, journals, and pamphlets. The ideas of the Enlightenment undermined the authority of the

monarchy and the Church and paved the way for the political revolutions of the 18th and 19th centuries. A variety of 19th-century movements, including liberalism and neoclassicism, trace their intellectual heritage to the Enlightenment.

The Age of Enlightenment was preceded by and closely associated with the scientific revolution. Earlier philosophers whose work influenced the Enlightenment included Bacon and Descartes. The major figures of the Enlightenment included Beccaria, Baruch Spinoza, Diderot, Kant, Hume, Rousseau and Adam Smith. Some European rulers, including Catherine II of Russia, Joseph II of Austria and Frederick II of Prussia, tried to apply Enlightenment thought on religious and political tolerance, which became known as enlightened absolutism.

Many of the leading political and intellectual figures behind the American Revolution associated themselves closely with the Enlightenment: Benjamin Franklin visited Europe repeatedly and contributed actively to the scientific and political debates there and brought the newest ideas back to Philadelphia; Thomas Jefferson closely followed European ideas and later incorporated some of the ideals of the Enlightenment into the Declaration of Independence; and James Madison incorporated these ideals into the United States Constitution during its framing in 1787.

The most influential publication of the Enlightenment was the Encyclopédie (Encyclopedia). Published between 1751 and 1772 in thirty-five volumes, it was compiled by Diderot, d'Alembert (until 1759) and a team of 150 scientists and philosophers. It helped spread the ideas of the Enlightenment across Europe and beyond. Other landmark publications were Voltaire's Dictionnaire philosophique (Philosophical Dictionary; 1764) and Letters on the English (1733); Rousseau's Discourse on Inequality (1754) and The Social Contract (1762); Adam Smith's The Theory of Moral Sentiments (1759) and The Wealth of Nations (1776); and Montesquieu's The Spirit of the Laws (1748). The ideas of the Enlightenment played a major role in inspiring the French Revolution, which began in 1789. After the Revolution, the Enlightenment was followed by the intellectual movement known as Romanticism.

Science played an important role in Enlightenment discourse and thought. Many Enlightenment writers and thinkers had backgrounds in the sciences and associated scientific advancement with the overthrow of religion and traditional authority in favor of the development of free speech and thought. Scientific progress during the Enlightenment included the discovery of carbon dioxide

(fixed air) by the chemist Joseph Black, the argument for deep time by the geologist James Hutton and the invention of the condensing steam engine by James Watt. The experiments of Lavoisier were used to create the first modern chemical plants in Paris and the experiments of the Montgolfier Brothers enabled them to launch the first human-crewed flight in a hot-air balloon on 21 November 1783 from the Château de la Muette, near the Bois de Boulogne.

Enlightenment science greatly valued empiricism and rational thought and was embedded with the Enlightenment ideal of advancement and progress. The study of science, under the heading of natural philosophy, was divided into physics and a conglomerate grouping of chemistry and natural history, which included anatomy, biology, geology, mineralogy and zoology. As with most Enlightenment views, the benefits of science were not seen universally: Rousseau criticized the sciences for distancing man from nature and not operating to make people happier. Science during the Enlightenment was dominated by scientific societies and academies, which had largely replaced universities as centers of scientific research and development. Societies and academies were also the backbones of the maturation of the scientific profession. Another important development was the popularization of science among an increasingly literate population. Philosophes introduced the public to many scientific theories, most notably through the Encyclopédie and the popularization of Newtonianism by Voltaire and Emilie du Chatelet. Some historians have marked the 18th century as a drab period in the history of science. However, the century saw significant advancements in the practice of medicine, mathematics and physics; the development of biological taxonomy; a new understanding of magnetism and electricity; and the maturation of chemistry as a discipline, which established the foundations of modern chemistry.

Scientific academies and societies grew out of the Scientific Revolution as the creators of scientific knowledge in contrast to the scholasticism of the university. During the Enlightenment, some societies created or retained links to universities, but contemporary sources distinguished universities from scientific societies by claiming that the university's utility was in the transmission of knowledge while societies functioned to create knowledge. As the role of universities in institutionalized science began to diminish, learned societies became the cornerstone of organized science. The state chartered official scientific societies to provide technical expertise. Most societies were granted permission to oversee their publications, control

the election of new members and the administration of the society. After 1700, a tremendous number of official academies and societies were founded in Europe, and by 1789 there were over seventy official scientific societies. About this growth, Bernard de Fontenelle coined the term "the Age of Academies" to describe the 18th century.

The influence of science also began appearing more commonly in poetry and literature during the Enlightenment. Some poetry became infused with scientific metaphor and imagery, while other poems were written directly about scientific topics. Sir Richard Blackmore committed the Newtonian system to verse in Creation, a Philosophical Poem in Seven Books (1712). After Newton died in 1727, poems were composed in his honor for decades. James Thomson (1700–1748) penned his "Poem to the Memory of Newton", which mourned the loss of Newton, but also praised his science and legacy.

5. The American War of Independence

The American Revolutionary War (1775–1783), was fought primarily between the Kingdom of Great Britain and her Thirteen Colonies in America, resulting in the overthrow of British rule in the colonies and the establishment of the United States of America. The population of the 13 British colonies in America increased because of immigration from Europe and early marriage. By 1775, the population was 2 and half million, most of whom were European origin. There were also indigenous Americans and half million people of African origin who were slaves.

Slaves came from Africa to America through the trans-Atlantic slave trade. On the eve of the revolution, slavery existed in almost all the 13 colonies. After the war of independence, slavery ended in the north, but not in the south.

The 13 colonies were under the authority of the British government and the British parliament. The parliament had the right to impose laws and to regulate trade and the colonial economy. However, the 13 colonies had much autonomy; each colony had a governor appointed by the British government.

It was after 1763 that serious problems started between Britain and the 13 colonies, largely because Britain started strict control over her colonists. The beyond the Appalachian mountain was closed to the colonists by king George III of Britain; trade between colonies and other countries was restricted; new American settlement was forbidden; more British troops were sent to America, for whom the mandate of giving housing and food supply was for colonies, new taxation was introduced and the declaration of Stamp Act. All these measures highly angered the colonies. Stamp Act was an action taken by the British government to collect revenue by stamping on documents such as newspapers, wills, contracts and playing cards.

In 1773, the British cargoes of tea were dumped to in to the Boston Harbor by the citizens of Boston. This event came to be known as "the Boston Tea Party".

Patriot protests against taxation without representation followed the Stamp Act and escalated into boycotts, which culminated in 1773 with the colonists destroyed a shipment of tea in Boston Harbor. Britain responded by closing the harbor and passing a series of punitive measures against Massachusetts Bay Colony. In 1774, the first continental congress was met at Philadelphia. At this congress delegates of the 13 colonies were represented. The congress called the Americans to refuse to buy British goods. In the middle of such conflict, Thomas Paine wrote a pamphlet entitled "common sense, the right of man and the age of reason." This pamphlet was distributed throughout America. In 1776, Thomas Jefferson adopted the declaration of independence. The declaration put forward rights of self-determination, equality and rights among people and it also included democratic principle.

At Lexington and Concord in 1775, fighting broke out. British attempts to disarm the Massachusetts militia in Concord led to open combat and a British defeat on April 19, 1775. Militia forces then besieged Boston, forcing a British evacuation in March 1776, and Congress unanimously appointed George Washington to command the Continental Army. Concurrently, the Americans failed decisively in an attempt to invade Quebec and raise insurrection against the British. On July 2, 1776, the Second Continental Congress voted for independence, issuing its declaration on July 4. Sir William Howe launched a British counter-offensive, capturing New York City and leaving American morale at low ebb. However, victories at Trenton and Princeton restored American confidence. In 1777, the British launched an invasion from Quebec under John Burgoyne, intending to isolate the New England Colonies. Instead of assisting this effort,

Howe took his army on a separate campaign against Philadelphia, and Burgoyne was decisively defeated at Saratoga in October 1777.

Burgoyne's defeat had dramatic consequences. France formally allied with the Americans and entered the war in 1778, and Spain joined the war the following year as an ally of France; by the end of September 1779, Spanish troops had cleared all British forts and settlers located in the entire region along the Mississippi. The British mounted a "Southern strategy" led by Charles Cornwallis which hinged upon a Loyalist uprising, but too few came forward. Cornwallis suffered reversals at King's Mountain and Cowpens. He retreated to Yorktown, Virginia, intending an evacuation, but a decisive French naval victory deprived him of an escape. A Franco-American army led by Washington and Comte de Rochambeau then besieged Cornwallis's army, and he surrendered in October 1781.

In early 1782, Parliament voted to end all offensive operations in America (although Britain continued to war against France and Spain in Europe, the Caribbean, and India). On September 3, 1783, the belligerent parties signed the Treaty of Paris in which Great Britain agreed to recognize the sovereignty of the United States and formally end the war.

By the treaty of Paris Britain accepted the independence of the USA, ceded all the land east of Mississippi and south of Canada, and Florida ceded to Spain.

Three factors were responsible for the success of the patriots: geographic advantage, strong leadership of George Washington and French and Spanish aid.

The USA constitution was drafted in 1787 and came into operation in 1789. The constitution gave decision making power to the Senate and House of Representatives of the parliament. The constitution made USA federal state and guaranteed civil rights to citizens. George Washington was elected as the first president.

The results of the War of Independence were: it created a new nation state (USA), it became an immediate cause for French revolution and influenced the struggle for liberation in Spain and Portuguese colonies.