# WHO IS NOBLE INCLUDED IN THE ALMANACH DE GOTHA?

History of Europe's Nobility Reference Book

**SALVATORE FERDINANDO ANTONIO CAPUTO**

# THE AUTHOR

The author was born in a noble family in 1942 when Italy was a kingdom ruled by the House of Savoy, kings of Italy since the *Risorgimento[1]* and previously rules of Savoy. But after 4 years, monarchy was abolished by popular referendum in June 2, 1946. Italy became a republic.

At the age of 15, he was brought up in Canada where after he spends his life traveling to Brazil, Guatemala and Philippines as a prominent director of multinational Corporations. Since he became conscious of politics, there has not been a president who he felt was a satisfactory symbol of the countries visited, and who he could admire as a focus for non-partisan patriotism. This is essentially why he came to support monarchy.....although his enthusiasm for royalty dates from childhood.

**Don Salvatore Ferdinando Antonio Caputo** is a monarchist that believes that a hereditary Monarchy, with a Sovereign, non-corrupt one with religious values and culture and tradition, conducted with immense kindness and whose role was thrust upon him by accident of birth rather than by being a politician, is the most perfect form of government in a nation.

Contrary to a Republic's President (like France, USA etc.) the Sovereign will insure the continuity in a time schedule. He/she is always aware about important files and he/she acts to push these files up to their conclusion. That is not the case for a president. When his period will be ended, he will return to the everyday's life and another President will come with his idea and who knows how.

Mr. Caputo supports the present heads of exiled or non-reigning Houses as de jure sovereigns, this recognition being co-existent with the realization that the institution is more important than a particular claimant. A monarch through the vestiges of that misunderstood Divine right and because of his symbolic paternal role faces a higher responsibility than a state government.

The justification of the hereditary succession is not only in the upbringing of the future king, not only in the continuity of a line  but in the fact that an hereditary ruler does not owe his position to any particular social or interest group, but rather to divine will alone. The formula "by the Grace of God" is a constant reminder to the sovereign that an accident of birth was responsible for his position and must prove his fitness by ceaseless efforts in the cause of justice.

The monarch is always there, a permanent symbol of the state and man's relationship to it. The modern monarch is often above the fray of partisan politics, an advocate for his nation's principles, if not its specific governmental policies. Today, a monarch may reign but not rule. The interest of monarchy is to serve, to serve the country, the people and not be served.

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[1] The *Resurgence*, the movement for the liberation and political unification of Italy, (beginning about 1750 and lasting until 1870), and previously rules of Savoy.

It is a misconception to imagine that the monarchy exists in the interests of the monarch. It doesn't. It exists in the interests of the people. It is sometimes said that Country can never be a really modern state while it still has a monarchy. This of course ignores countries like United Kingdom, Japan, Spain, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, The Netherlands and many others all of which are modern constitutional monarchies in modern countries where majority of the people of those nations have absolutely no intention of removing their monarchy because of the benefits they recognize they derive from it.

On the subject of disputed successions in former monarchies and concerning non-reigning royals he undertakes "tolerant" attitude of neutrality though not impartiality, in certain cases, he has a candidate he considers the legitimate one.

He advocates of the establishment, preservation and restoration of a monarchy and stays neutral on the issue of juridical recognition of reigning and Sovereign Houses, which is of exclusive competence of their respective State Systems and desires exclusively to support their traditional humanitarian commitment at the service of international collaboration.

Don Salvatore is the Founder and President of "The International Commission and Association on Nobility (TICAN)"



**THE INTERNATIONAL COMMISSION AND ASSOCIATION ON NOBILITY**
**COMMISIONE E ASSOCIAZIONE INTERNAZIONALE SULLA NOBILTA**
**COMISION E ASOCIACION INTERNACIONAL SOBRE LA NOBLEZA**
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# OVERVIEW

This volume examines the possibility of using genealogies of noble families in the Almanach de Gotha as a source for social sciences, to analyze the social reality of noble families, during the transition from a class structured to a civil based society. Genealogies of noble families have been published since the 19th century, but they were stopped during the Second World War.

Since the end of the 18th century, nobility was experiencing a loss of importance due to an overall social change. Industrialization had created new economic conditions and new fields of activity which were not accepted by the majority of the nobility. The principles of estates, namely the primary rules concerning noble births including a high degree of self-recruitment from the particular generations of sons, was increasingly pushed back. However, the decline of nobility in the 19th and 20th century indicates a constant importance of nobility as a social class in some areas of society. Although statistical tables are rarely found, one can assume that nobility is still overrepresented in diplomatic services and in the armed forces, as measured by its overall importance. Also, in some economical sectors, especially in banks and insurance companies, nobility could hold onto a disproportional amount of leading positions;

Nobility is statistically an elusive population, because there are no direct surveys relating to membership of noble classes. Even in censuses, the membership of nobility is not projected separately, making a collection and statistical analysis of this part of the population very difficult to attain. A solution to this lack of data collection could be on offer from the research in the form of genealogical records undertaken by noble families for many generations. For these families, this research has always been a natural part of the care of family history and personal memories.

In 1765 the first volume of the *"Gotha'sche Hofkalender"* was published, providing genealogies of noble families to the public at large. During the 19th century, the princely families that were listed in the *"Hofkalender"* (court guide) were divided into three groups: current sovereigns and their houses, other prosperous houses in Germany, France and Italy, as well as mediatised houses. Furthermore the genealogies of the gentry were published in the following four series in the 19th century: pocket books of the comital houses (from 1825), those of the baronial houses (from 1848), those of the ancient nobility (from 1900) and the genealogical pocket books of the younger nobility (from 1907). Here, the comital and baronial families had their genealogies published every second year whereas the untitled noble families aimed for a publication of their genealogies every fourth year (Fritsch 1968: 4-96, 111-121; Simmel 1908: 742).

The "Gotha'sche" genealogical pocket books were published until 1942 when the publication had to be stopped due to a lack of paper. In the period between the two World Wars, some parts of the German nobility supported and followed the ideology of National Socialism. As a

result of the anti-Semitic radicalization of parts of the nobility, an anti-Jewish register was established in 1920/21: *"Das Eiserne Buch Deutschen Adels Deutscher Art"* ("The iron book of German nobility of German type"), abbreviated to "Edda". The first volume of the "Edda" was published in 1925. This work was mainly promoted by Baron Albrecht von Houwald (1866-1958), who had previously been an employee in the Prussian College of Arms. Houwald aimed at establishing a register that would only accept "pure-blooded" nobles, i.e. only those nobles who had no Jewish or colored ancestors before 1750. Between 1925 and 1942 four volumes of the "Edda" were published. Since the publication of the "Edda", those persons whose genealogical table was published in it were also marked with an "E" in the aforementioned "Gotha" (Malinowski 2003: 336-357; Fritsch 1968: 25).

Potential marriage partners for royals. If you were a member of one of the royal houses of Europe, you would buy the Almanac de Gotha to make sure the information about your family had been correctly maintained. Being recorded in this almanac meant you existed for the outside world and belonged to a company of the elect. You could also investigate the origins of a potential marriage partner. If it appeared that your intended was from a lower class, then a morganatic (left-handed) marriage was in the offing. If the woman was of low degree, she and her children would be barred from certain privileges and particularly from her husband's inheritance.

The Almanach itself suffered interference from the House of Napoleon. The Almanac's "infallibility" was also severely compromised because some royal and noble families simply did not participate, and the book did not pay much attention to noble and royal Houses of the Byzantine Holy Roman Empire. Many princely or ducal families were listed only in its third, non-dynastic section or were excluded altogether, evoking criticism in the 20th century. Its very title shows the focus: Almanach de Gotha...The Almanac of the Gotha, i.e., the mostly German/Prussian Houses.

The two editions, French and German, are almost identical. The plan followed in the first two parts dates from 1815, that of the third from 1824. In 1768 engravings were added to the text. There was a great variety of them at first, but since the end of the last century only portraits are given.

The Almanach de Gotha did not aspire to group all the ducal and princely families of Europe. In addition to many families tricked out with imaginary titles, and thus excluded, there were some authentic families, the Princes Bagration, who did not appear for the simple reason that they had refused or omitted to send in an entry.

When Soviet troops entered Gotha in 1945, they systematically destroyed all archives of the *Almanach de Gotha.* In 1951 a different publisher, C.A. Starke, began publication of a multi-volume German-language publication entitled the *Genealogisches Handbuch des Adels* (GHdA). The publication is divided into subsets; the *Fürstliche Häuser* subset is largely equivalent to the *Almanach de Gotha*. However, no single volume of the *Fürstliche*

*Häuser* includes all the families included in the *Almanach de Gotha*. It is necessary to use multiple volumes to trace the majority of European royal families.

**After World War II, publishing of 'The Gotha' had to cease. The genuine 'Gotha' has not been re-published or re-issued since 1944**.

Fortunately, sufficient copies remained that at least saved its records, but from 1945, the Almanach was not published and those tracing the ancestry of German nobility have used a substitute. European aristocrats trying to reclaim property stolen by communist regimes can consult a new Almanach published in London which might help them in their claims, but that result is unlikely.

In 1989 the family of Justus Perthes re-established its right to the use of the name *Almanach de Gotha*. The family then sold these rights to a new company, Almanach de Gotha Limited, formed in London. **Justus Perthes considers this a new work and not a continuation of the series last published by his family in 1944 with the 181st edition**.

The new publishers launched with the 182nd edition on 16 March 1998, following a break of fifty-four years, at Claridge's Hotel. It was written in English instead of French as the Editor felt that English was now the language of diplomacy. Charlotte Pike served as Editor of the 1998 edition only and John Kennedy as managing director and publisher. The new publishers also revived the Committee of Patrons under the presidency of King Juan Carlos I of Spain and chairmanship of former King Michael I of Romania.

The London publisher produced a further four editions of Volume I (1999, 2000, 2003 and 2004) based on the 1998 edition of Volume I which include Europe's and South America's reigning, formerly reigning, and mediatized princely houses, and a single edition of Volume II in 2001 edited by John Kennedy and Ghislain Crassard which include other non-sovereign princely and ducal houses of Europe. A review in *The Economist*[2] criticized the low editorial standards and attacked Volume II for a lack of genealogical accuracy.

**(Front picture: Friedrich III. von Sachsen-Gotha-Altenburg)**

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[2] **The Economist** is English-language weekly news and international affairs publication owned by The Economist Newspaper Ltd. and edited in offices in London. Continuous publication began under founder James Wilson in September 1843.

# Content

# WHO IS NOBLE INCLUDED IN THE ALMANACH DE GOTHA?



## Introduction

Gotha is a city of central Germany west of Erfurt. First mentioned in the tenth century, it is an industrial and cultural center.

The town has existed at least since the 8th century, when it was mentioned in a document signed by Charlemagne[3] as *Villa Gotaha* ("Good Waters"). Its importance derives from having been chosen in 1640 as the capital of the Duchy of Saxe-Gotha. In the 18th century, the extended séjour of the French philosopher Voltaire turned the court into one of the centers of the Enlightenment in Germany. From 1826 to 1918, Gotha was one of the two capitals of the Duchy of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha.

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[3] **Charlemagne** 2 April 742 – 28 January 814), also known as **Charles the Great**, was the King of the Franks from 768, the King of Italy from 774 and the first Roman Emperor in Western Europe since the collapse of the Western Roman Empire three centuries earlier.
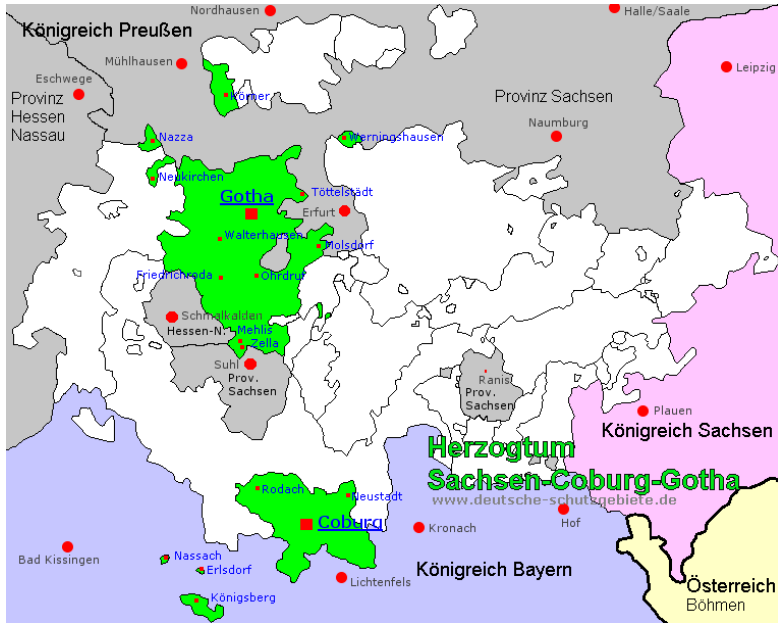
"The *Gotha*" took its name from a small town in Thuringia, just west of Erfurt. As the fissive House of Saxony divided over and over again into numerous principalities, the town became one of the twin residences of the Dukes of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, the dynasty that gave Queen Victoria her husband, and London the Albert Hall and the Albert Memorial. In Prince Albert's day Gotha was famous for its sausages, its insurance companies, and its publishing houses. Gotha also has been a centre of publishing. The firm Justus Perthes (now called Hermann Haack) began the publication in 1763 of the *Almanach de Gotha*, an authoritative directory of the world's major ruling dynasties and Europe's high nobility.

The Almanach de Gotha made its debut in Saxe-Coburg in 1763, the Court which during the 1760's under Duke Friedrich III and later under Duke Ernest II attracted the likes of Voltaire and which in the mid 1800's produced Prince Albert as consort for Queen Victoria. The Gotha's own familiar crown was stamped on the cover of what was to become the ultimate power register of the ruling classes. Unmoved by government decrees or bribes, those not included in its pages found themselves thwarted, Pretenders claims left in ruins, by the publisher who would not compromise itself for either inclusion - or exclusion.

## Background

In the early modern period the nobilities of Europe faced many challenges to their status as dominant elites. In particular, the ambitions of rulers, who sought to centralize power in the princely institution, undermined their position. Similarly, an increased social mobility and the emergence of new 'nobilities,' often a consequence of the social engineering attempted by princes, posed a significant threat to established elites. This is simply to identify the most pressing of the nobility's woes. We will examine the fortunes of the nobility across Europe from the seventeenth to the eighteenth centuries. We will assess the nature and significance of the external threats to the position of the nobility and investigate the strategies adopted in response. This in turn will permit an exploration of the manner in which the economic, social, political and cultural bases of noble power were transformed in this period; changes which ultimately led to a modification of the concept of nobility.

More than any other social class or grouping, including the ecclesiastical one, the nobility of Europe at the end of the Middle Ages needs and deserves to be studied from a standpoint that

is not merely socio-economic, but political and cultural, too. In this chapter Europe is deemed synonymous with Latin Christendom. None the less, this does not imply the assumption that contemporaries believed nobility to exist only within Latin Christendom. As proof of this, armorials compiled in France and elsewhere included, for example, the arms of the Grand Khan, the sultan of Babylon, the Grand Turk, and the king of Granada (these next to the arms of the Christian king of Armenia), while an author like **Gilles le Bouvier[4],** in his *Livre de la description des pays* (*c.* 1450), could refer in particular to the Turkish nobility. To a certain extent, then, the inhabitants of fifteenth-century Christendom regarded nobility as a universal social order.

## Almanach de Gotha

The Almanach de Gotha book would enter the language in its own right with the words 'all the Gotha was there'. Historically the Gotha has listed the Ruling Imperial, Royal and Princely Families of Europe, finally coming to an end with the Soviet occupation of the former Saxon Duchy of Saxe-Coburg und Gotha in the Year 1944 after nearly 181 years of European Royal Genealogical Reference.

The Almanach provided detailed facts and statistics on nations of the world, including their reigning and formerly reigning houses, those of Europe being more complete than those of other continents. It also named the highest incumbent officers of state, members of the diplomatic corps, and Europe's upper nobility with their families. Although at its most extensive the Almanach de Gotha numbered more than 1200 pages, fewer than half of which were dedicated to monarchical or aristocratic data, it acquired a reputation for the breadth and precision of its information on royalty and nobility compared to other Almanach's.

The Gotha's condescending attitude towards Eastern European nobility and royalty, and towards Iberian, Spanish, British, Italian, and Scandinavian highest nobility, led to the proliferation of German mediatized princesses in the royal houses of Europe, as their value in the marriage market had been artificially enhanced by Gothic rankings. Another consequence was the yet ongoing Romanov succession dispute, as Maria Vladimirovna of Russia, a claimant to the headship of the Russian Imperial Family is the daughter of the Romanov father and the Bagrationi princess, a morganaut according to the Gotha standards; the entire male dynastic descent went extinct when applying Gothic standards.

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4 In place of the rolls, collections of painted books of arms have been preserved in Germany. A notable roll is the *Armorial de Berry*, dating from about 1445, the work of a French herald, **Gilles le Bouvier**, who traveled widely and recorded arms borne in France, England, Scotland, Germany, Italy, and other European countries.

First published in 1763 by C.W. Ettinger in Gotha at the ducal court of **Frederick III, Duke of Saxe-Gotha-Altenburg[5],** it came to be regarded as an authority in the classification of monarchies and their courts, reigning and former dynasties, princely and ducal families, and the genealogical, biographical and titular details of Europe's highest level of aristocracy.

This publication has acquired a position apart, in the political world. The first idea of this Almanach is due to **Wilhelm von Rotberg[6]** (died in 1795, minister of state). He had printed under the title: "Almanach, necessary for 1763," a volume on the model of the *etrénnes,* (Christmas presents), then published in Paris. Beginning with the following year, the Almanach grew under the hands of its new editor, Emmanuel Christoph Klüpfel, who had lived at Paris from 1747 to 1750, and who died in 1776, vice-president of the superior consistory of Gotha. Klüpfel was the first to insert the names of European sovereigns, much more numerous then than in our day. He also included, though at first only in extracts, the genealogical tables which have been so often consulted.

The Almanach of Gotha therefore dates from the year 1764. The centennial anniversary of its first publication was, however, celebrated in 1863. The German edition, *Gothaischer Hof Kalendar,* did not appear until 1765. In this year the names of all the living members of princely families were given for the first time. Instructive or simply amusing notices on the most varied subjects were inserted in it. Toward the end of the last century events took such a serious turn that the amusing part of the Almanach was dropped and the place that it occupied given to historical and statistical information. The Gotha' was published by Andreas Reyher's publishing firm, and later by other publishers (Johann Paul Mevius sel. Witwe , Johann Christian Dieterich, C. W. Ettinger).

This aristocratic viewpoint was shared by Justus Perthes, a Gotha publisher. Once his genealogical publications constituted the most important Nobiliary in Europe, for they ranged from the simple Taschenbuch der Freiherrlichen Hauser, lists of the barons, to the famous Almanach de Gotha whose prestige outlived its disappearance.

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[5] **Frederick III, Duke of Saxe-Gotha-Altenburg** (Gotha, 14 April 1699 – Gotha, 10 March 1772), he was the eldest son of Frederick II, Duke of Saxe-Gotha-Altenburg and Magdalene Augusta of Anhalt-Zerbst.

[6] **Wilhelm von Rotberg,** n * 9th February 1718, † 1795, Hzgl. Saxon-gothaischer Real power. Secret Council, Minister and President of Chamber, founder of the Gotha Hofkalenders, Vorgänder and based on today "Gothar" or "Gotha", the handbook of the German nobility.

From 1785 was published annually by ***Justus Perthes Verlag*** [7]
Publishing House in Gotha, under different names ("Gothaischer
Hof Kalender zum Nutzen und Vergnügen eingerichtet,
"Gothaischer Genealogischer Kalender", "Gothaischer
genealogischer Hof-Kalender", "Gothaischer genealogischer Hof-
Kalender"). Born in a little German court where precedence was an
obsession and French culture a light veneer, it gradually saw its size
increase from the twenty pages of the first number to over a
thousand during its last years. Gotha's prestige continued to grow
until it eclipsed the other genealogical reference books and became a kind of Bible of earthly
vanity. While the texts of the Holy Scriptures proclaim the greatness, the majesty and the
omnipotence of God, those of the Gotha only existed to exalt the origin, fame and splendor of
earthly princes. To do this it established in this new paradise a strict order which assigned to
everyone, from the most illustrious monarch to the most modest prince, the place to which he
was entitled. It was the application of the famous words of Christ: "In my Father's house there
are many mansions."
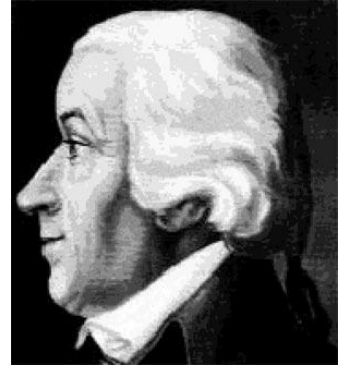
The publication continued until 1944 when the Soviets destroyed the *Almanach de
Gotha's* archives. The invasion of the Russians during the Second World War brought an
abrupt end to the publication of this famous almanac. The Soviets occupied the print shop in
Gotha and set fire to the huge genealogical archive.

The almanac's publication by Justus Perthes began at the ducal court of Saxe-Coburg and
Gotha in Germany and, its reigning dynasty was listed first therein well into the 19th century,
usually followed by kindred sovereigns of the House of Wettin and then, in alphabetical order,
other families of princely rank, ruling and non-ruling. Although always published in French,
other almanacs in French and English were more widely sold internationally. The almanac's
structure changed and its scope expanded over the years. The second portion, called
the *Annuaire diplomatique et statistique* ("Diplomatic and Statistical Yearbook"),
provided demographic and governmental information by nation, similar to other almanacs.
Its first portion, called the *Annuaire Genealogique* ("Genealogical Yearbook"), came to consist
essentially of three sections: reigning and formerly reigning families, mediatized families[8] and
non-sovereign families at least one of whose members bore the title of prince or duke.

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[7] **Johann Georg Justus Perthes** (September 11, 1749, Rudolstadtin, Schwarzburg Rudolstadt – May 2,
1816, Gotha, Saxe-Gotha-Altenburg) was a German publisher and founder of the firm that bears his name
(*Justus Perthes*).

[8] **Mediatisation** is the loss of imperial immediacy. Broadly defined it is the subsumption of one monarchy into
another monarchy in such a way that the ruler of the annexed state keeps his sovereign title and, sometimes, a
measure of local power. For instance: when a sovereign county is annexed to a larger realm, its reigning count
might find himself subordinated to another sovereign ruler, but nevertheless remains a count of sovereign rank,

The first section always listed Europe's sovereign houses, whether they ruled as emperor, king, grand duke, duke, prince or some other title, e.g., prince elector, margrave, landgrave, count palatine or pope. Until 1810 these sovereign houses were listed alongside such families and entities as Barbiano-Belgiojoso, Clary, Colloredo, Furstenberg, the Emperor, Genoa, Gonzaga, Hatzfeld, Jablonowski, Kinsky, Ligne, the Order of Malta, Paar, Radziwill, Starhemberg, Thurn and Taxis, Turkey, Venice and the Order of Malta and the Teutonic Knights. In 1812, these entries began to be listed in groups. First, were German sovereigns who held the rank of grand duke or prince elector and above (the Duke of Saxe-Gotha was, however, listed here along with, but before, France).

Listed next were Germany's reigning ducal and princely dynasties under the heading "College of Princes", e.g., Hohenzollern, Isenburg, Leyen, Liechtenstein and the other Saxon duchies. They were followed by heads of non-German monarchies, i.e. Austria, Brazil, Great Britain, etc. Fourthly were listed non-reigning dukes and princes, whether mediatized or not, including Arenberg, Croy, Furstenbergalongside Batthyany, Jablonowski, Sulkowski, Porcia, and Benevento.

In 1780 the Almanach was translated into Italian in Venice, and it was soon seen in the United States of America where the quasi royalty of George Washington caused the atmosphere, the manners, and customs of the old monarchies to prevail. These monarchies, moreover, were soon to be shaken by the repercussions of the French Revolution, and many a monarch lost, if not his head, like the unfortunate Louis XVI, at least his crown. At the first breath of revolution the fine forest of genealogical trees, watched over piously by the editors of the Gotha, shook and tried to withstand the hurricane. But the Revolution uprooted several venerable trunks growing on the left bank of the Rhine. This caused the others to bow beneath its violence and opened a triumphal way for Napoleon's armies across a Germany that had been subdued.

Through this forest of ancient trees – many houses priding them on tracing their origins to the reign of Charlemagne - the emperor of the French walked in lordly fashion and made some dismal clearances. Not content with changing the landscape by confiscating territories in order to distribute them among his family or his allies, he aimed at changing the nature of the trees by grafting new species on to certain old trunks. With a single stroke of the pen he wiped out the eight hundred or so little States, fiefs or free cities which composed "the Germanics". He tried to unify principalities thus breaking away most rashly from the wise policy of the French kings.

On August 6th, 1806, from the steps of the Church of the Nine Choirs of Angels in Vienna, one of the emperor's commissioners announced the dissolution of the Holy Roman Empire. Most

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if not actually fully sovereign in fact. His subjects owe allegiance to the higher prince *through* him, and so his sovereignty is said to be *mediatised*, that is, rendered intermediate.

of the major or minor German rulers saw in this the sanctioning of the despoilment which had made them its victims. In order to safeguard their titles and territories, their only alternative was to implore Napoleon for mercy and lend themselves to his plans.

These you can read about in the chapters on the German courts. Pursuing his marriage policy, Napoleon made Princess Marie Elizabeth of Bavaria-Birkenfeld marry Marshal Berthier. He even forced a mere major in his Guard to marry the countess of Lamarck, the natural daughter of King Frederick William II of Prussia. Perhaps he thought that he should neglect no entry, even the side-doors, into royal houses. One of Murat's nieces was taken away from her dreary life in the country in order to link her fate with that of a prince of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen.

The faded remains of the queen of Etruria were even offered to Lucien Bonaparte - who had the good taste to refuse them. These matrimonial conquests, which Napoleon conducted, like his military campaigns, with drums beating, terrified all the little German courts. They were under the painful obligation of renewing the sacrifice of Iphigenia in order to save the dynasty. The fate of the princes or princesses on whom Napoleon had designs was decided from Paris without the interested parties even being consulted. A Sevres porcelain cup, decorated with the portrait of the future spouse, was sent to the man or woman whom the emperor wished to marry off for his own political purposes.

Everyone trembled at the prospect of receiving it; very few had the courage to refuse it. However, the crown prince of Wurttemberg, on whom Napoleon had cast his glance, was hastily seen to marry Princess Charlotte of Bavaria in order to outwit the schemes of the tyrant. Francoise Stephanie Tascher, niece of the Empress Josephine, married by force to the prince of Arenberg, obstinately refused to follow her husband to the nuptial chamber and always contrived to live with him in a state of exemplary hostility.

There is no point in argue on Napoleon's second marriage; this vanity saved Austria and the Hapsburg dynasty. The other reigning German princes, who had been less favored, had to await the fall of the French empire in order to reintegrate their domains and seal their fate. Until 1807 the Gotha had upheld the legitimate qualifications of the dispossessed princes by continuing to include them among the houses that were still royal: "Our publication," one of its editors, Doctor Biel, was to write later, "had fortunately traversed the agitations and political upheavals which marked the end of the eighteenth century and proceeded quietly on its way oblivious of what was happening elsewhere, when suddenly this indifference to politics was held against it as a crime."

Scorning the Imperial thunder which had brought fire and slaughter to one part of Europe, the Almanach de Gotha remained imperturbable and ignored, or pretended to ignore, the decline of certain dynasties and insisted on maintaining them virtually on their thrones. Following a denunciation by **Cardinal Caprara**[9] to the minister for foreign affairs, legal

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[9] **Giovanni Battista Caprara Montecuccoli** (1733 – 1810) was an Italian statesman and cardinal and archbishop of Milan from 1802 to 1810. Legate of Pius VII in France, he implemented the *Concordat* of 1801.

action was taken against the Almanach de Gotha. Imperial censorship caused every copy of the 1808 issue to be seized and destroyed. In fact the censorship office found the word "genealogy" to be an insult, since the Bonaparte could not produce one and this tendentious word was suppressed. Between 1808 and 1814, the succeeding editions, which were compiled under French supervision, gave only "births and marriages of princes and princesses".
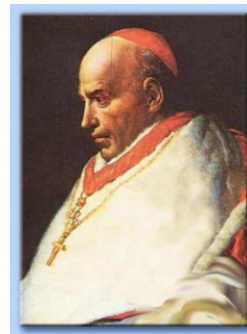
In 1841 a third group was added to those of the sovereign dynasties and the non-reigning princely and ducal families. It was composed exclusively of the mediatized families of comital rank recognized as belonging, since 1825, to the same historical category and sharing some of the same privileges as reigning dynasties by the various states of the German Confederation[10]; these families were German with a few exceptions (e.g. Bentinck, Rechteren-Limpurg). The 1815 treaty of the Congress of Vienna[11] had authorized—and Article 14 of the German Confederation's *Bundesakt* (charter) recognized—retention from the German Imperial regime of equality of birth for marital purposes of mediatized families (called *Standesherren*) to reigning dynasties. The almanac added a third section consisting exclusively of mediatized families of comital rank.

In 1877, the mediatized comital families were moved from section III to section II A, where they joined the princely mediatized families. For the first time in the century of its existence, the largely non-German, un-mediatized princely and ducal families of the *Almanach de Gotha* were removed from the same section as other non-reigning families bearing princely titles. While non-mediatized German and Austrian families (e.g. Lichnowsky, Wrede), were likewise relocated from the almanac's second to its third section, the second section's new preponderance of German families, princely and comital, which were henceforth recognized as possessing the exclusive privilege of inter-marriage with reigning dynasties was salient. Excluded were members of such historically notable families as the Rohans, Orsinis, Ursels, Norfolks, Czartoryskis, Galitzines, La Rochefoucaulds, Kinskys, Radziwills, Merodes, Dohnas and Albas.

Although theoretically mediatized families were distinguished from Europe's other nobility by the former status of their territories as *Reichsstand* and their exercise within the Holy Roman Empire of "semi-sovereignty" or imperial immediacy (*Reichsunmittelbarkeit*),

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Caprara was born at Bologna on 29 May 1733 to Count Francesco Raimondo Montecuccoli and Countess Maria Vittoria Caprara. He took his surname from the latter.

[10] The **German Confederation** (German: *Deutscher Bund*) was a loose association of 39 German states in Central Europe, created by the Congress of Vienna in 1815 to coordinate the economies of separate German-speaking countries and to replace the former Holy Roman Empire.

[11] The **Congress of Vienna** (*German: Wiener Kongress*) was a conference of ambassadors of European states chaired by Austrian statesman Klemens Wenzel von Metternich, and held in Vienna from September 1814 to June 1815.[1] The objective of the Congress was to settle the many issues arising from the French Revolutionary Wars, the Napoleonic Wars, and the dissolution of the Holy Roman Empire.

many *Standesherr* families, especially those bearing the comital title, had not been fully recognized as legally possessing immediate status within the Empire prior to its collapse in 1806. No other families whose highest title was count were admitted to any section of the almanac.

Moreover, other deposed European dynasties (e.g. Arenberg, Biron, Dadiani, Boncompagni Ludovisi, Giray, and Murat) did not benefit *vis-a-vis* the Almanach from a similar interpretation of their historical status. Many princely or ducal families were listed only in its third, non-dynastic section **or were excluded altogether**, evoking criticism in the 20th century from such genealogists as Cyril Toumanoff, Jean-Engelbert d'Arenberg and William Addams Reitwiesner, the latter commenting that the changes displayed "pan-German triumphalism" and even a "fairly nasty bit of Germanic chauvinism.".

### Napoleon I Bonaparte Almanch de Gotha

The purpose of the Almanach was to record the ruling houses of Europe and their cadet branches, the most important of those they had ennobled, and incumbent diplomatic corps and highest officers of state. The undertaking was massive, as there were many royal families in Germany and Italy alone, and their minor branches numbered in the thousands.

The inclusion of a noble family in the Almanach was seen as socially vital. Since communications were slow in the 18th and 19th centuries, a source was needed to check the existence of high noble persons. Following World War I and the fall of many royal houses, noble titles became easy to masquerade due to the inexistence of a regulating government in the business of granting titles; this made inclusion in the incorruptible *Almanach de Gotha* even more essential. If a noble title was not listed in the Almanach, it was presumed as self-created and invalid. **Inclusion of lower nobility was never even attempted, as that was seen as the task of each country's own nobility or corresponding institution.**

The Gotha hardly ever made a mistake and never lent itself to schemes or sweet talks which might have harmed its reputation for integrity. Its judgments tolerated no appeal. For those excluded by the Gotha, there was no recurrence: the first part listed royal families, those exiled from it as the result of an unfortunate marriage were destined to appear in the third part, or, worse, to figure in another of Justus Perthes' year-books, for example the book of counts, and there they would remain until they died, lamenting lost honours. In vain would their descendants claim for themselves illustrious origins in order to be addressed as Imperial or Royal Highness by nostalgic courtiers: the Gotha, source of justice, would always be there

to reduce their pretensions to nothing! On the other hand it officially recorded and sanctioned unusual alliances, downfalls, or the beginnings of ascents to dizzy heights as in the case of the Tecks and the Battenbergs.

If you were not mentioned in the Gotha, or mentioned only marginally, you could resign yourself or cause a disturbance. Napoleon, the self proclaimed Emperor, chose the latter. On 20 October 1807, three years after he had been crowned emperor, he wrote an angry letter to his minister of Foreign Affairs: *'Le dernier Almanach de Gotha est mal fait'*. In the early 19th century the almanac's retention of deposed dynasties evoked objections, although not necessarily the desired changes. Napoleon's reaction was typical of *parvenu*[12] authorities. The Bonaparte family was the most important in France, not the House of Bourbon. Why had so little attention been paid to the French nobility compared with the German? Napoleon ordered the minister to write a letter to his colleague in Saxe-Gotha in order to correct the next year's volume. The elected Emperor wrote to his foreign minister:

*Monsieur de Champagny, this year's "Almanach de Gotha" is badly done. I protest. There should be more of the French Nobility I have created and less of the German Princes who are no longer sovereign. Furthermore, the Imperial Family of Bonaparte should appear before all other royal dynasties, and let it be clear that we and not the Bourbons are the House of France. Summon the Minister of the Interior of Gotha at once so that I personally may order these changes.*

But the publisher, Karl Wilhelm Ettinger, had already printed the edition for 1808. So he quickly made a special edition for France in which the changes demanded by Napoleon were inserted. The publisher was to humor Napoleon by producing two editions: one for France, with the recently ennobled, and another which included dynasties deposed since abolition of the Holy Roman Empire. A merged version, whose first section including recently reigning dynasties but also families which lost sovereignty after the fall of Napoleon in 1815, remained in publication until 1944, and has been replicated in subsequent dynastic compilations (e.g., *Genealogisches Handbuch des Adels, Furstliche Hauser*, *Le Petit Gotha*, Ruvigny's "Titled Nobility of Europe"). The copperplates of his enemies Nelson and William Pitt were removed, as was the illustration of his brother-in-law Murat, who had fallen into disfavor.

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[12] A ***parvenu*** is a person who is a relative newcomer to a socioeconomic class.

## The Collapse of Napoleon



In the spring of 1812, Napoleon began his eastward march into Russia with his Grand Army of 422,000 troops. Rather than fighting the French directly, the Russians retreated and used scorched-earth, destroying anything that might be of use to the French. When Napoleon and his army entered Moscow in the fall, the Russians burned down the city leaving the French little protection from the harsh winter. On October 19, Napoleon ordered a doomed retreat in which thousands died from exposure to the cold, starvation, and the attacking Russian forces. By the time the Grand Army reached friendly territory, they had returned with less than 30,000 troops - one of the worst military disasters of all time. Paris was eventually captured in 1814 and Napoleon was forced into exile on the island of Elba off the west coast of Italy.

The Congress of Vienna convened in 1814, while Napoleon was in exile. Though the conference opened with a series of glittery dances and conferences, the delegates soon got down to work. Hundreds of statesmen and diplomats representing dozens of countries were present at the Austrian capital. On March 1, 1815, Napoleon returned to France to rule for a period known as the Hundred Days. The Bourbon king, Louis XVIII, was forced to flee for his life. The combined forces of Great Britain, Prussia, and the Netherlands defeated Napoleon Bonaparte at Waterloo in Belgium on June 18, 1815 at the hands of the Duke of Wellington, bringing an end to the Napoleonic era of European history. After the defeat at Waterloo, the Congress of Vienna convened once again.

With the collapse of Napoleon's gigantic empire which, he thought, he had consolidated by his "dynastic system," a breeze of frenzied delight shook the old trees so ill-treated by twenty years of wars and invasions. Metternich, the new mediator of Europe, attempted to restore the spirit of the Holy Roman Empire by instituting the Holy Alliance, and succeeded in settling the fate of the victims of France.

Certain territories were returned to their legitimate owners while others, more numerous, were allocated to the victors of the coalition. In fact, the majority of these dispossessed princes were indemnified only with fine words, or, at best, fine titles. Then the wondrous category came into being, the "Mediatised Lords of Germany". These included the families of princes or counts who, having possessed the quality of the State of the Holy Roman Empire, were considered as equals by birth of existing ruling houses and felt justified in allying themselves with them.

At its session of August 18th 1825, the German Diet recognized that the heads of princely families could have the quality of Durlaucht, "Most Serene Highness." On February I3th, 1829, the heads of the former families of counts which had been mediatised received the qualification of Erlaucht, "Most Illustrious Highness." The title of "Most Serene Highness" was granted only, in accordance with the terms of the Diet's decision, to the heads of the princely houses. But the custom spread of giving the same title to the younger members of these families, and several courts sanctioned this use through a series of nominal decrees, the details of which it would be tedious to enumerate. If the mediatised houses were deemed worthy of allying themselves to ruling families, the same did not apply to other families of princes, dukes or counts who, in spite of their fame or their antiquity, could not aspire to such an honor. The daughter of the prince of Croy or of the count Erbach might become empress of Austria or queen of Bavaria, but the daughter of a family as distinguished and ancient as that of the prince of Bauffremont, or the daughter of an English duke as eminent as the duke of Marlborough, was not eligible. This case was argued at length during the discussions of a possible marriage of the future Emperor William I of Germany to a Princess Radziwill.

There was the even stranger case of the younger branch of the Esterhazys[13], which had been mediatised, **while the older branch did not even appear in the Almanach de Gotha** and was content with being included in the Taschenbuch der GrSflichen Heuser, and so could not ally with reigning families. The Bonaparte also provided an example. Lucien's branch was relegated to the third part of the Gotha and not empowered to succeed.

This explains why the "unequal unions" between the members of reigning families and, for better reasons, those of the sovereigns themselves, were not considered valid from a dynastic point of view. The Gotha referred to them as "morganatic marriages". This word is said to derive from the German expression Morgen gaben, in other words, "the morning gift," given after a night of pleasure to the delightful creature who procured it for you. It was in fact a farewell gift; and the expression has degenerated remarkably, since in the end it applied no longer to a rupture but to the marriage which sanctioned this momentary madness. There is another etymology for the adjective "morganatic". The writer and historian La Varende saw in it an echo of the ancient customs of the Vikings which allowed a man to have three wives at the same time as soon as he was capable of satisfying all three of them.

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[13] The **House of Esterházy** (also spelled *Eszterházy*) is a Hungarian noble family beginning in the Middle Ages. Since the 17th century they were among the great landowner magnates of the Kingdom of Hungary, during the time it was part of the Habsburg Empire and later Austria-Hungary.

These marriages were the terror of nineteenth-century courts, for they made them appear rather bourgeois. On learning that his cousin, Grand Duke Nicholas, was to marry a woman named Burenina, the daughter of a tradesman, Tsar Alexander III, alluding to the square courtyard where the shop stood, cried: "I have been related to many courts, but this is the first time I have been related to the court of Gostinov!"

Queen Victoria was the first to encourage morganatic marriages. She led the way in the British royal family. There was a difference: the children of these "unequal" marriages were not excluded from the succession to the throne. In a letter to her son, the future Edward VII, she described, fairly accurately, the change which had taken place in Europe:

*"Times have much changed; great foreign alliances are looked on as causes of trouble and anxiety, and are no good. What could be more painful than the position in which our family were placed during the wars with Denmark, and between Prussia and Austria? Every family feeling was rent asunder, and we were powerless. The Prussian marriage, supposing even Louise wished it and liked the Prince (whereas she has not even seen him since she was a child), would be one which would cause nothing but trouble and annoyance and unhappiness, and which I never would consent to. Nothing is more unpopular here or more uncomfortable for me and everyone, than the long residence of our married daughters from abroad in my house, with the quantities of foreigners they bring with them, the foreign view they entertain on all subjects; and in beloved Papa's lifetime this was totally different, and besides Prussia had not swallowed everything up. You may not be aware, as I am, with what dislike the marriages of Princesses of the Royal family with small German Princes (German beggars as they most insultingly were called) were looked on, and how in former days many of our Statesmen like Mr. Fox, Lord Melbourne and Lord Holland abused these marriages, and said how wrong it was that alliances with noblemen of high rank and fortune, which had always existed formerly and which are perfectly legal, were no longer allowed by the Sovereign. Now that the Royal family is so large (you have already five, and what will these be when your brothers marry?) in these days, when you ask Parliament to give money to all the Princesses to be spent abroad, when they could perfectly well marry here and the children succeed just as much as if they were the children of a Prince or a Princess, we could not maintain this exclusive principle".*

And the queen added, justifiably, that such unions would introduce new blood into the royal family, whereas foreign princes were already almost all cousins. Queen Victoria proved her liberalism in the matter moreover when she gave the title of "Princess Edward of Saxe-Weimar" to Lady Augusta Gordon Lennox, the prince's morganatic wife, whereas at the court of Vienna or Berlin such a thing would not have been possible. Two of the queen's daughters were to put these principles into practice, one by marrying Prince Henry of Battenberg, son of a morganatic marriage of Prince Alexander of Hesse, the other by becoming the wife of the marquis of Lorne who made her utterly miserable.

Until relatively recently, that is, after the collapse of the Second Empire, the Gotha remained almost exclusively royal and Germanic. It was only in 1874 that French or English ducal families began to appear in it, as well as a Russian or Italian princely family. In 1878 the new editor of the Almanach de Gotha, wishing to make it the book of the European upper aristocracy, published a list giving the state of the ducal families in the United Kingdom and

undertook a far-reaching reform, the aim of which was to distinguish between the ruling or "mediatised" houses, born of marriages between partners of equal birth, and those of which the heads had contracted unequal unions. This unfortunate discrimination provoked a general outcry from the interested parties and, after it had been applied for two years, it was abandoned. As from 1890, the Almanach de Gotha proper assumed its definitive form; that is to say it was divided into three parts:

I. A genealogical handbook.

II. A diplomatic and statistical handbook which enumerated all the high-ranking officers of the principal countries in the world as well as the diplomatic and consular representatives. It provided also the entire information one could want about finance, the army, the navy, the population, the clergy, etc., in these countries.

III. An appendix listing all the sovereigns in the world in order of age, another in order of the date of their accession, and a calendar giving the dates of royal birthdays and anniversaries, in order to simplify the task of zealous courtiers.

The diplomatic and statistical handbook was remarkably well done and Prince von Bulow gives a striking example of it in his Memoirs. At the time of the armistice negotiations during 1871, Count Guido Henckel-Donnersmarck, the ostentatious lover of the marchioness of Paiva, was called to Versailles to give his opinion on the amount of war indemnity to be demanded from France.

In opposition to Bleichroder, who said that France could pay at the most a thousand million francs of war indemnity, Henckel maintained, more accurately, that this rich country could easily find five thousand million and he justified this opinion in a memorandum which he drew up overnight, only using the statistics given in the Almanach de Gotha. A fine revenge against France and the irritation caused by the censorship of the Napoleonic Empire.

The most interesting part was, naturally, the genealogical handbook and in Cannes there used to live an elderly lady who, when she received her new edition of the Gotha each year, hastily tore off its red cover, stamped with an imperial crown, in order to have a leather binding, with her own arms, put on the genealogical section, the only one that she condescended to read.

This genealogical section was also divided into three parts:

I. The first part was taken up by the genealogy of the ruling houses of Europe and those which had been dispossessed after the Congress of Vienna.

II. The second part listed the mediatised princes and counts of Germany.
III. A third and last part which included the other princely houses of Germany and Austria-Hungary, the ducal houses of France, Belgium, and the United Kingdom, as well as certain princely houses of Spain, Italy and France.

The Almanach de Gotha therefore did not aspire to group all the ducal and princely families of Europe. In addition to many families tricked out with imaginary titles, and thus excluded,

there were some authentic families, the Princes Bagration, who did not appear for the simple reason that they had refused or omitted to send in an entry.

At the end of the nineteenth and the beginning of the twentieth century there was in the third part of the enological handbook a display of astonishing titles, some of them rescued from long oblivion, others freshly emerged from the chancelleries of the Vatican or of the king of Spain. It proved that a mention in the Almanach de Gotha was the best consecration for the career of a man of the world. It was also a fine trump card for achieving an "American marriage," and the English dukes of the gay nineties made the young American heiresses pay very dearly for their titles.

Not wanting to contest the authenticity of certain parchments on which the ink of the royal signatures had barely had time to dry, at least people allowed themselves to smile. Gabriel-Louis Pringue tells in his book *Trente ans de diners en ville* that the Duke Loubat, who had recently received his ducal crown from the pope, was told one day by the marquis of Modena, irritated by hearing him moan about the draughts which gave him colds in the head: "Since you're so frightened of them, why didn't you ask the pope for a closed crown?"

Many rich foreigners, from countries where the sovereigns refused to give titles (this was the case in Romania and Bulgaria), had to solicit them from the king of Italy or the king of Spain, who were fairly prodigal with this favor. Since they could not take the titles home, they displayed them ostentatiously in the watering places where they spent their delectable and delicate lives.

In spite of the fact that each year this third section expanded considerably, the Almanach de Gotha remained the symbol of the old European monarchies for which it had been created. It was simultaneously their Golden Book and Black Book. It was also a vast family album, showing the predominance of certain races and certain dynasties that, although reigning over modest little countries, played a fairly considerable role in Europe by serving as stud-farms, or harems, for the great imperial and royal houses.

It was in this way that the Saxe-Co burgs, who already possessed five thrones at the beginning of the nineteenth century (the grand duchy of Saxony, the duchy of Saxe-Meiningen and Hildburghausen, the duchy of Saxe-Altenburg, the duchy of Saxe-Gotha and finally the kingdom of Saxony) acquired four other thrones: that of Belgium through Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, that of Portugal through the marriage of Prince Ferdinand to Maria II da Gloria, that of Bulgaria through another Prince Ferdinand, a grandson of Louis-Philippe, and finally the most important of all, that of Great Britain through the marriage of Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg and Queen Victoria. The duchess of Dino relates in her memoirs that during the preliminary negotiations she asked who was going to marry the young queen, and a diplomat replied to her: "One of the royal stallions, of course! A prince of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha."

Outside the imperial or royal palaces the Gotha throughout the nineteenth century enjoyed a continuously increasing vogue, bringing into aristocratic or merely bourgeois homes some of the atmosphere of the courts. It satisfied - by deceiving it - that sublime passion for monarchy felt by those living far away from it. In the seventeenth century, La Bruyere had already written that court life did not make people happy, but prevented them from feeling so

elsewhere.... So the Gotha carried out its function just as well at court as in the cities, or in the provincial chateaux. In vast country estates, in little garrison towns, whose grey monotony was sometimes illuminated by the meteoric passage of royalty on a tour of inspection, gentlemen and modest civil servants dreamily pored over the pages of the Almanach de Gotha.

All the lingering romanticism of the nineteenth century, which hungered for almanacs and naive pictures, survived in this mania. The prestige of princes was still immense" even if their power had waned. The Lumieres[14] of the eighteenth-century philosophers had transformed all these potentates into enlightened and consequently more popular despots. The time had gone when the peasants of Wurttemberg would throw themselves into ditches or hide behind a hedge whenever they saw the carriage of their gracious duke whose will and pleasure were often so nasty. The princes were genteel and were models of amiability.

Nothing was impossible. Royal families who had lost their throne many years ago like the Orleans family or the Bourbons of Naples gave good advice to those who had been recently dispossessed, and the Almanach de Gotha continued to list the marriages, births and deaths which indicated the increasingly precarious existence of those fallen demigods[15].

In 1887, the Almanach began to include non-European dynasties in its first section with the inclusion of one of the ruling families of India.

The Almanach recorded all births. Until 1918, any aristocrat wishing to marry, and for their progeny to carry their title had to marry a woman of similar rank. The Almanach's records were of vital importance to these people. The marriages of many members of the British Royal family would have been considered unequal by the standards of the aristocracy of Europe, including those of Queen Victoria, George V, George VI, and the Prince of Wales. On the Continent, such marriages would have been morganatic, meaning that the lesser-ranked partner, usually the wife, and any progeny of the union cannot inherit the higher-ranked partner's titles. She is usually given a lesser title in compensation. The Duke of Edinburgh's family the Mountbattens or Battenbergs is descended from the morganatic alliance of Prince Alexander of Hesse. However, fortunately for the House of Windsor considerations of equality do not enter into the inheritance of titles and morganatic marriages do not exists under English law.

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[14] **The Lumieres** (Enlightenment) is a cultural and philosophical movement that emerged in the second half of the seventeenth century under the influence of philosophers like Spinoza, Locke, Bayle, Newton and Voltaire, before expanding throughout Europe, including France, eighteenth century. By extension, this period gave the name of Lumieres (Enlightenment).

15 A demigod (or demi-god), meaning half-god, is originally a Greek mythological figure whose one parent was a god and whose other parent was human;[1] as such, demigods are human-god hybrids. In some mythologies it also describes humans who became gods, minor deities, or simply extremely powerful people whose powers approach those of the gods even though they are not gods themselves.

**The Second World War**

The Second World War completed the dismemberment and dispersed all the Balkan sovereigns, whose thrones had not even lasted a century. The throne of Spain had already fallen without a sound as her sovereign had resigned herself to her fate in 1931. Fifteen years later, Italy, saving the expense of a revolution, followed Spain's example. The only surviving monarchies today are those of Scandinavia, in addition to Luxembourg, Belgium, Holland, as well as, of course, Britain, the last bulwark of the monarchy in Europe.

Isolated between two republics, the principality of Liechtenstein is the last remaining vestige of an era which has completely gone, while the principality of Monaco, clinging precariously to the French coast, perpetuates the tradition of the miniature courts of the eighteenth century which so resembled a musical comedy where a prima donna could become a princess. Greece, situated at the gateway to a communist East, has allowed herself the luxury of a foreign dynasty which perpetuates the memory of the old royal races of antiquity.

The majority of the former ruling houses therefore live in exile, in republics bordering on their former kingdoms. Their members are now no more than mere citizens, whose prestige survives only with difficulty the loss of their power. There are pretenders such as the count of Paris or the Archduke Otto, who firmly maintain the need for monarchy and do not despair of re-ascending the thrones of their ancestors. Many princes have declined into a life of mediocrity and are satisfied with their fate.

**Almanach Formation**

Although the Almanach's construction changed over years, it consisted essentially of three sections. The first section always listed the sovereign houses of Europe. Sections two and three experienced some changes after the Franco-Prussian War. The genealogist William Addams Reitwiesner comments that those changes display "pan-German triumphalism" and even a "fairly nasty bit of Germanic chauvinism."

For over a century, the second section consisted of non-sovereign princely houses from all over Europe. Rohans, Leiningens, Ruspolis, Windisch Graetzes, Norfolks, Lobkowiczes, Thurn-Taxises and Czartoryskis appeared in happy coexistence. At that time, the third section was for immediate counts of the Holy Roman Empire (HRE), a specific, and by many measures the lowest, caste of the included high nobility.

However, in the 1876 edition, sections two and three were amalgamated, which elevated those former HRE comital families to the level of princely houses. In the intervening years, those counts had become mediatized, but quite regularly, their heads had received compensation in titles: primogeniture princely title. In the 1877 edition, section two was divided into parts A and B, almost along "ethnic" lines: all mediatized Germans, be they comital or princely, were assigned to A; and all princely non-German families and non-mediatized HRE families were put into B. This created an illusion that mediatized Germans were higher than princely non-Germans. The illusion was strengthened in 1890, when the Almanach renamed II A to section II, and II B to section III.

The original section two, and its successor, the third section, included only selected families of European high nobility, or "princely houses". The Almanach did not succeed in full coverage; families from geographical corners that were not perceived by editors to be of interest to monarchical courts of Western Europe, the Almanach's major audience, were not well-represented or were listed only in later editions.

This division was considered of great social significance in the Holy Roman Empire and its successor states; nobles from the second section were considered legally equal to German royals appearing in the first section (at least with those royals whose houses actually were ducal or less before the Napoleonic period; of the truly older kingdoms, Prussia declined to recognize a countess Harrach, mediatized, from section two, to marry its king in better than morganatic[16] terms). For example, if a countess from the second section married a royal or sovereign from the first section (who mostly were of houses until 19th century just ducal or margravial, immediate comital and so forth), their alliance was considered equal and their children were regarded as dynastic, thus inheriting succession rights. On the other hand, if a countess or princess or duchesse-in-her-own-right from the third section married a German petty sovereign from the first section, their children were usually treated as non-dynastical and excluded from the succession line in most monarchies.

The arbitrary division was a major source of frustration for those families who landed in the third section. For example, the Birons of Courland and Murats[17] of Italy, both relatively *parvenue*[18] families, ineffectually claimed their right to be included in the second section. Moreover, most princely families of the Russian Empire were not included in the Gotha at all, while the Bagrationi of Georgia (presumed to be the oldest royal dynasty of Europe, and certainly reigning into the 19th century in some parts of Georgia) as well as other reigning Georgian princely families (Dadiani of Mingrelia) possibly deserved a place in the first section. The same may be said for the Girays of Crimea, who claimed descent from Genghis Khan.

Another source of frustration was Gotha's rather Salic stance in favor of agnatic descent. Many houses of other countries were formed on the basis of Cognatic succession. There existed many pretenders to lost monarchies and sovereign or semi-sovereign earlier provinces

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[16] A **morganatic marriage** is a type of marriage which can be contracted in certain countries, usually between persons of unequal social rank, which prevents the passage of the husband's titles and privileges to the wife and any children born of the marriage. It is also known as a left-handed marriage because in the wedding ceremony the groom held his bride's right hand with his left hand instead of his right.

[17] **Joachim Murat**, King of Naples and Marshal of France from 1808 to 1815.

[18] The *Oxford English Dictionary* defines a parvenu as: "A person from a humble background who has rapidly gained wealth or an influential social position; a nouveau riche; an upstart, a social climber. Also in extended use. Generally used with the implication that the person concerned is unsuited to the new social position, esp. through lacking the necessary manners or accomplishments."

in Western Europe, but these were regularly treated as ducal or princely families of agnatic descent in part three, if mentioned at all.

The Gotha's condescending attitude towards Eastern European nobility and royalty, and towards Iberian, Spanish, British, Italian, and Scandinavian highest nobility, led to the proliferation of German mediatized princesses in the royal houses of Europe, as their value in the marriage market had been artificially enhanced by Gothic rankings. Another consequence was the yet ongoing Romanov succession dispute, as Maria Vladimirovna of Russia, a claimant to the headship of the Russian Imperial Family, is the daughter of the Romanov father and the Bagrationi princess, a **morganaut**[19] according to the Gotha standards; the entire male dynastic descent went extinct when applying Gothic standards.

**The End of the Almanach of Gotha**
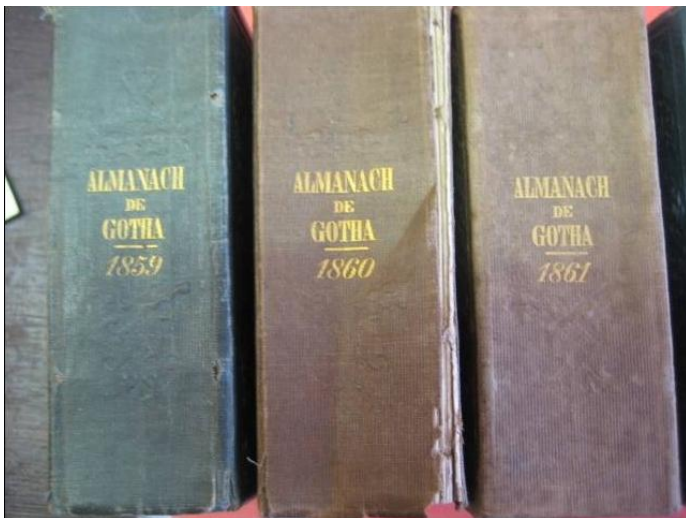


The American army occupied Thüringen in April 1945 to hand it over on July 1 to the Soviet command. Fortunately only the Almanac-archives have suffered from this occupation. The rest of the Perthes-collections were left as it was. After the German partition Joachim Perthes and his son Wolf-Jürgen Perthes started in 1953 the 'Geographische Verlagsanstalt Justus Perthes Darmstadt' in Western Germany. In 1980 the management was taken over by Stephan Perthes, seventh generation publisher. This publishing firm specialized in wall maps and modern geographic educational tools. The publishing company in Gotha, that was then part of Eastern Germany was expropriated by the state in 1953 and in 1955 renamed as 'VEB Hermann Haack Geographisch-Kartographische Anstalt Gotha'. For this reason Hermann Haack was recalled from retirement and till his death in 1966 led the company. The company was mainly known, for its translations of school and wall map series. After the unification of both the Germanys both publishing companies were unified again in 1992 under their old name 'Justus Perthes Verlag'.

At the end of World War Two when the Soviets occupied Gotha in 1945 they immediately stormed the factory where the presses were housed and within five days, in a public display of protest, destroyed, by burning, most of the genealogical and heraldic archives. Since the books

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[19] **Morganatic marriage**. Of or being a legal marriage between a person of royal or noble birth and a partner of lower rank, in which it is agreed that no titles or estates of the royal or noble partner are to be shared by the partner of inferior rank nor by any of the offspring of the marriage.

contained detailed references to the Romanov Dynasty[20], the attempt to obliterate history was made against these milestones. But the fate of the entire archive still remains a mystery, what was to the Soviets a classic symbol of a degenerate bourgeois society, was in any case a substantial archive. Some 100,000 maps and 80,000 books did survive and the remaining assets in Gotha were returned after reunification.

In 1992 Justus Perthes Verlag was bought by Ernst Klett Schulbuchverlag in Stuttgart. In 2003 the Perthes archives (185,000 maps, 120,000 geographical publications and approximately 800 meters business archives) were bought by the Free State of Thüringen and deposited in the Gotha-annex of the University of Erfurt. In 2010 the business premises and the accompanying land Justus-Perthes-Straße 1-9 en Gotthardstraße 6 were bought by the municipality of Gotha. This means the end to the 225-year history of this publishing house. But fortunately the Perthes archives, which survived all difficulties and wars intact, will be available to future scholars and interested parties.

The Saxon State Library began first under the auspices of Saxony's ruling nobility and then to administrators and scholars who carefully selected and purchased the collection. Since Saxony had become one of the most powerful territorial states in German by the mid-16th century, many books were collected by Elector Augustus, 1553- 1585, and included manuscripts from the middle ages and also those pertaining to local industry and the professional trades, many of which were uniformly bound by Dresden bookbinders in 1556.

The genuine 'Gotha' has not been re-published or re-issued since 1944 (source: Justus Perthes, Verlagsgeschichte). Those tracing the ancestry of German nobility have used the *Genealogisches Handbuch des Adels* (GHdA) as a substitute, and it is often considered its successor.

In 1951 a different publisher, C.A. Starke, began publication of a multi-volume German-language publication entitled the *Genealogisches Handbuch des Adels* (GHdA). The publication is divided into subsets; the *Fürstliche Häuser* subset is largely equivalent to the *Almanach de Gotha*. However, no single volume of the *Fürstliche Häuser* includes all the families included in the *Almanach de Gotha*. It is necessary to use multiple volumes to trace the majority of European royal families.

In some European families even today breeding is important. Quite recently there was huge disquiet amongst the Habsburgs, Imperial family of the former Austro Hungarian Empire when the 'would be' heir to the family throne married the daughter of a mere count, even though the Count in question was one of the richest men in the world. This

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[20] The **House of Romanov** was the second and last imperial dynasty to rule over Russia, reigning from 1613 until the 1917 overthrow of the monarchy during the February Revolution. The later history of the Imperial House is sometimes referred to informally as the House of Holstein-Gottorp-Romanov.

requirement of breeding is not limited to former royal and imperial houses; it is especially prevalent among the noble families of Germany, Austria, Italy and Spain. The Prince of Thurn und Taxis, a Bavarian aristocrat, married a student he met in a cafe, 33 years his junior, in the 1980s, but she was of equal rank. However, this lust for blue blood is now gradually receding, in Italy at least, where there has always been a slightly cavalier approach to the conventions. In England this has never been a problem as the British aristocracy have always married (if necessary) for money rather than breeding. In the 19th century many of England's duchesses were the daughters of American magnates: others were actresses selected largely on the basis of their physical charms.

**Other Almanacs**

There were many other almanacs published in Europe since the late 16th c. A number had developed into court almanacs or calendars. France's Almanach Royal, for example, began in 1700. It too contained listings of the members of the ruling families of Europe. But its main purpose was to provide information about France, a sort of directory of the French state; just as other court almanacs were to provide information about their own courts. Gotha's court was insignificant enough. The Almanach prospered presumably because it expanded into becoming a convenient and useful resource about all of Germany (and later Europe), not about Gotha.

As Edespalais (Philipp Georg Graf Gudenus, mediatized princely, since 1905 extinct family) ceaselessly reminds us, the reference yearbook of the Holy Roman Empire was not the Almanach de Gotha, but the (German-language) Staatshandbuch published in Frankfurt by the editor Varrentrapp. This was a large book (2 volumes by the late 18th c.) which like the 9th c. Gotha contained half genealogy, half administrative and statistical information about the states of the Holy Roman Empire. It ceased publication in 1806 and several attempts to revive it after 1815 produced a few more editions, the last in the 1830s.

From 1778 Justus Perthes worked as a bookseller in Gotha, where he founded the publishing firm 'Justus Perthes' in 1785, in which year he got a fifteen-year lease for the Almanach de Gotha. This almanac was published since 1763 by Carl Wilhelm Ettinger, Gotha, and was the French version of the Gothaischer Hofkalender. Only after the second 15-year lease contract he was allowed in 1816 to publish the almanac with the imprint of his own publishing house that ceased in 1944.

In later years another set of almanacs was published in the German language:

- *Gothaisches genealogisches Taschenbuch der gräflichen Häuser*(1825–1941)
- *Gothaisches genealogisches Taschenbuch der freiherrlichen Häuser* (1848–1942)
- *Gothaisches genealogisches Taschenbuch der uradeligen häuser der in Deutschland eingeborene Adel* (1900–1919)
- *Gothaisches genealogisches Taschenbuch der briefadeligen Häuser* (1907–1919).

The updating of the almanacs required a lot of documentation. This was the beginning of an almost fastidious documentation and exactness that was fertile ground for the later geographic establishment. In 1911 these documents were added to the library called 'Bücherei der Geographische Anstalt von Justus Perthes', that contained already many maps and geographical publications. After the Second World War the Soviet army most probably destroyed the almanac-archives to prevent claims of the House of Romanov[21] on the tsarist's throne.

Presumably, the old Almanach de Gotha became important among the general public because of its perceived accuracy and reliability. The reputation of Perthes as a publisher helped a lot, although if the story about Napoleon suppressing the 1808 edition is true, it may have been important enough to censor even before Perthes took it over.

Other courts compile lists of persons they regarded as important and noble. And would not an official court almanac of the court of France, United Kingdom, Austria, Prussia, Russia or Spain be far more important than that of Gotha?

They were far more important as sources of information on France, Austria, Prussia, etc. But where did you have a single source of information on all the courts at once? In a convenient pocket-book format, published continuously by a reputable firm? Besides, the Almanach de Gotha's importance should not be overrated. It was a reference publication, not a piece of legislation. 1863, the history was written by the Almanach itself. It must be said that by 1863 the almanac was The Gotha, other were just in local use, and were of no international reputation.

## Almanach Impérial
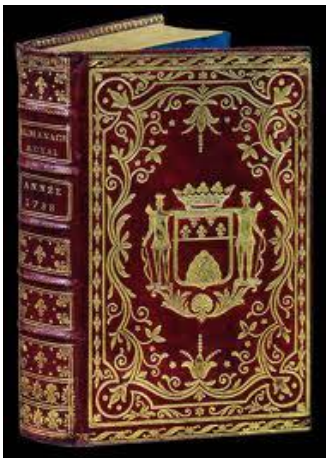
The Royal Almanac is a French administrative directory founded in 1683 by the bookseller Laurent d'Houry, which appeared under this title from 1700 to 1792, and under other titles until 1919.

He presented each year in the official order of precedence, the list of members of the royal family of France, the princes of blood, and the main body of the kingdom, great crown officers, senior clerics, abbots of large abbeys (with income of each abbey), marshals of France, colonels and general officers, ambassadors and consuls of France, presidents of the main courts, state councilors, bankers, etc..

Despite the fact that he could present indigestible because of the many lists that he was composed, he enjoyed a wide circulation with a readership consisting primarily of financial, political and all persons who had an interest in knowing the administrative organization of France.

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[21] The House of Romanov was the second and last imperial dynasty to rule over Russia, reigning from 1613 until the 1917 overthrow of the monarchy during the February Revolution. The later history of the Imperial House is sometimes referred to informally as the House of Holstein-Gottorp-Romanov.

Although his edition is due to the initiative of a private publisher, included in the lists of the Almanac was a royal official and abuse were therefore punished. Thus, a Poitevin, Pierre Joly, was interned in the Bastille at the end of the eighteenth century to have usurped the banking profession by being registered as such in the Almanach Royal.

His edition was in regular format in-8 o editor with binder leather adorned with a sprinkling of fleur de lys gold.



The beginning of 1810 saw the French Empire at its apogee. The battle of Wagram had put an end to the Fifth Coalition against France. One British army had been forced from Spain and another from Walcheren. Even the British victory at Talavera was an empty one, with the eventual British withdrawal to the frontiers of Portugal and the Spanish defeated at Ocaña. By the end of 1809 Napoleon had divorced Josephine and was soon to marry Marie Louise, a daughter of the Austrian Emperor. The parvenu Napoleon had joined the concert of Kings.

The volume of the *Almanach Impérial* presented here reflects the French Empire at its height. Here is the broad extent of the civil and military establishment of Napoleon's Empire. It is an important and unique source on the organization and personnel of the Empire.

Under the *ancien régime* the official almanac, which began publication in 1700 was known as the *Almanach Royal* (the name it was published under after the Restoration). During the Revolution it was transformed into the *Almanach National de France*. From 1804 to 1813 it was the *Almanach Impérial*. Interestingly, the publishing firm of Testu published issues of all three post-*ancien régime* titles.

Under the *ancien régime* almanacs, besides the "official *Almanach Royale*, were published in many diverse forms, astrological and those presenting the church and civil calendar were joined in the 17th century by almanacs featuring poetry, rebuses, and puns. Later burlesque and erotic almanacs appeared, as well as those featuring genealogical, military or administrative subjects, and those intended to aid farmers and gardeners. With the Revolution appeared the political almanacs serving as propaganda for different the faction. The most famous of which was the *Almanach de Père Gérard*, work of Collot d'Herbois. Collot d'Herbois's almanac was the winner of a contest held by the Jacobins for a work to explain the new Constitution to the peasantry in the countryside. On average 50 to 60 almanacs were published between 1789 and 1794, but only from 20 and 30 between 1795 and 1799.

So even the publication of almanacs had political implications. On October 20, 1807 Napoleon wrote to Champagny, the French Foreign Minister, complaining that *Almanach de Gotha* listed "the *comte de* Lille [the exiled future Bourbon King of France, Louis XVIII] and all of the princes of the Confederation as if there had not been made any change in the constitution of Germany." In the future, Napoleon ordered, the *Almanach de Gotha* must list "the House of France as in the *Almanach Impérial*."

A Royal House (noble house) was traditional used as family names by royalty. It generally represents the members of a family in various senior and junior or cadet branches, who are loosely related but not necessarily of the same immediate kin. Unlike most westerners, many of the world's royal families do not have family names, and those that have adopted them rarely use them. They are referred to instead by their titles, often related to an area ruled or once ruled by that family.

# Before the First World War the house of Saxony-Coburg-Gotha had relatives in almost all European monarchies.



Victoria and Albert's family in 1846 by Franz Xaver Winterhalter *left to right*: Prince Alfred and the Prince of Wales; the Queen and Prince Albert; Princesses Alice, Helena and Victoria

## Queen Victoria

### Children:

| Name | Birth | Death | Notes |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| The Princess Victoria, Princess Royal | 21 November 1840 | 5 August 1901 | married 1858, Frederick III, German Emperor; had issue |
| Edward VII | 9 November 1841 | 6 May 1910 | married 1863, Princess Alexandra of Denmark; had issue |
| The Princess Alice | 25 April 1843 | 14 December 1878 | married 1862, Ludwig IV, Grand Duke of Hesse and by Rhine; had issue |
| The Prince Alfred, Duke of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha and Duke of Edinburgh | 6 August 1844 | 30 July 1900 | married 1874, Grand Duchess Marie Alexandrovna of Russia; had issue |
| The Princess Helena | 23 or 25 May 1846 | 9 June 1923 | married 1866, Prince Christian of Schleswig-Holstein; had issue |
| The Princess Louise | 18 March 1848 | 3 December 1939 | married 1871, John Campbell, 9th Duke of Argyll; no issue |
| The Prince Arthur, Duke of Connaught and Strathearn | 1 May 1850 | 16 January 1942 | married 1879, Princess Louise Margaret of Prussia; had issue |
| The Prince Leopold, Duke of Albany | 7 April 1853 | 28 March 1884 | married 1882, Princess Helena of Waldeck and Pyrmont; had issue |
| The Princess Beatrice | 14 April 1857 | 26 October 1944 | married 1885, Prince Henry of Battenberg; had issue |

It is not at all unusual for European royal families to have bloodlines and names from foreign nations. After all, it was common for European dynasties over the centuries to use marriage as

a political tool for empire-building. The Austrian Habsburgs even boasted of their talent in this regard: "Let others wage war; you, happy Austria, marry. But few people are aware of how recent the British royal family name "Windsor" is, or that it replaced very German names.

Prince Albert's 42 grandchildren included four reigning monarchs: King George V of the United Kingdom; Wilhelm II, German Emperor; Ernest Louis, Grand Duke of Hesse; and Charles Edward, Duke of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha. Albert's many descendants include royalty and nobility throughout Europe.

**Houses of Saxony**

From the least important this family came to be the greatest and largest of the Houses of Saxony and gave birth to four lines of kings:

**Prince Leopold** (*Leopold Georg Christian Friedrich*; 16 December 1790 – 10 December 1865) in 1816 was married to Charlotte of Wales, only child of King George IV of Great Britain and heir to the British throne. But Princess Charlotte and her baby both died in 1817. Later, probably because of his importance through this marriage and because of his well-known popularity, the Belgian people, when they became an independent nation in 1831, offered him that throne; he accepted and became the first King of Belgium as Leopold 1, and the founder of the line of kings of Belgium.

Prince Leopold was from 21 July 1831 the first King of the Belgians, following Belgium's independence from the Netherlands. He was the founder of the Belgian line of the House of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. His children included Leopold II of Belgium and Empress Carlota of Mexico. He was not only a cousin, by marriage, to Queen Victoria of the United Kingdom but also her mother's brother.

He was born in Coburg and died in Laeken. By birth, he was a Prince of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld, later a Prince of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha and Duke of Saxony.

In 1818 Leopold's sister, **Princess Victoria** (Princess Marie Luise Victoria of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld, Princess of Leiningen, Duchess of Kent; 17 August 1786 – 16 March 1861), was married to Prince Edward of Great Britain. The only child of this marriage was Queen Victoria of the United Kingdom, who succeeded to the English throne in 1837. Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha became the husband of the Queen in 1840, the Prince Consort of Great Britain, and the founder of the new German dynasty in England.

Of the children of Prince Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha (28 March 1785 – 27 August 1851), the eldest of his three sons, **Dom**[22] **Fernando II** (29 October 1816 – 15 December 1885), became by his marriage to Maria II, Queen of Portugal, titular King of Thai country as Ferdinand II, and so founded the Saxe-Coburg dynasty of Portugal. Manuel II, ex-King of Portugal, through his grandmother, Princess Maria-Pia of Savoy, was related to the royal family in Italy, as she was a sister of King Humbert I of Italy and also of Amadeus of Aosta, who was King of Spain from 1870 to 1873. Through his wife, he was the son-in-law of William, the royal prince of Hohenzollern, and a nephew of Ferdinand, Crown Prince of Roumania.

In keeping with Portuguese law, only after the birth of his son in 1837 did he acquire the title of King. His reign came to end with the death of his wife in 1853, but he was regent for his son Dom Pedro V to 1855. He was born a German prince of the House of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha.

(Above picture: Fernando II around age 24 standing next to a bust of King Pedro IV[23], c. 1840)

The youngest son died childless and the second son, August, became the founder of the German branch of this family, August married a Princess of Orleans in 1843, and of this marriage there were four children. The youngest son was elected Hereditary Prince of Bulgaria in 1887 and became its Czar, **Czar Ferdinand I of Bulgaria** (26 February 1861 – 10 September 1948), born *Ferdinand Maximilian Karl Leopold Maria of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha-Koháry)* in 1908; he founded a new reigning dynasty of the Saxe-Coburg-Gothian family.

Ferdinand was born in Vienna, a prince of the Koháry branch of the ducal family of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. The son of Prince August of Saxe-Coburg and his wife Clémentine of Orléans, daughter of king Louis Philippe I of the French, Ferdinand was a grandnephew of Ernest I, Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha and of Leopold I, first king of the Belgians. His father Augustus was a brother of Ferdinand II of Portugal, and also a first cousin to Queen Victoria, her husband Albert, Prince Consort,

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[22] In Portugal and Brazil *Dom* is used as a title of respect, particularly for men of the royal and imperial dynasty or hierarchs of the Roman Catholic Church. The feminine form *Dona* is a common honorific reserved for women, such as the First Lady of Brazil.

23 Dom Pedro I (English: Peter I; 12 October 1798 – 24 September 1834), nicknamed "the Liberator", was the founder and first ruler of the Empire of Brazil. As King Dom Pedro IV, he reigned briefly over Portugal, where he also became known as "the Liberator" as well as "the Soldier King". Born in Lisbon, Pedro I was the fourth child of King Dom João VI of Portugal and Queen Carlota Joaquina, and thus a member of the House of Braganza. When their country was invaded by French troops in 1807, he and his family fled to Portugal's largest and wealthiest colony, Brazil.

Empress Carlota of Mexico and her brother Leopold II of Belgium. These last two, Leopold and Carlota, were also first cousins of Ferdinand I's through his mother, a princess of Orléans. This made the Belgian siblings his first cousins, as well as his first cousins once removed (his father's first cousins). Indeed, the ducal family of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha had contrived to occupy, either by marriage or by direct election, several European thrones in the course of the 19th century. Following the family trend, Ferdinand was himself to found the royal dynasty of Bulgaria. Ferdinand had some ancestry from medieval rulers of Bulgaria, descents from both his mother's and father's side.

## The Victorian Era

The Victorian Era in England began in 1819 when Victoria was born, and ended with her death in 1901. It was a long period of peace, prosperity, refined sensibilities and national self-confidence for Britain. Some scholars date the beginning of the period in terms of sensibilities and political concerns to the passage of the Reform Act 1832[24].

Victoria was born at Kensington Palace, London, on 24 May 1819. She was the only daughter of Edward, Duke of Kent, and fourth son of George III. Her father died shortly after her birth and she became heir to the throne because the three uncles who were ahead of her in succession - George IV, Frederick Duke of York, and William IV - had no legitimate children who survived.

On 22 January 1820, her father, the Duke of Kent died of an inflammation of the lungs contracted while walking in wet weather. Six days later, on 29 January 1820, her grandfather, King George III, who had long been blind and imbecile, passed away, and her eldest uncle, the Prince Regent, became King at the age of fifty-eight. Thus the four lives that had intervened between the Princess and the highest place in the State were suddenly reduced to two — those of her uncles, the Duke of York, who was fifty-seven, and the Duke of Clarence, who was fifty-five, now heir-presumptive to the crown. Neither Duke had a lawful heir, or seemed likely to have one. The Duke of York died without issue on 05 January 1827. Her uncle George IV died on 26 June 1830, and was succeeded by his brother William, Duke of Clarence, who had no legitimate children alive. The girl thus became heir-presumptive.

The way of the Princess to the throne seemed very clear, but there was one man in England who was determined that she should never reach it. He was the Duke of Cumberland, Victoria's uncle. He was the next younger brother of the Duke of Kent, and had it not been for the birth of his niece, the throne of England would have been his own. At that time the sovereign of England was also ruler of Hanover, but Hanover had a law called the Salic law, which forbade any woman to be its monarch. The Duke was in earnest, however—so much in

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[24] The **Representation of the People Act 1832**, or **Reform Act 1832**, was an Act of Parliament (2 & 3 Will. IV) that introduced wide-ranging changes to the electoral system of England and Wales. According to its preamble, the act was designed to "take effectual Measures for correcting divers Abuses that have long prevailed in the Choice of Members to serve in the Commons House of Parliament".

earnest that he even ventured to allow his wishes to become known to King William IV. The Duke of Cumberland did not give up his wild scheme. He knew that he himself was by no means a favorite in England and that he had no friends whose devotion would place him upon the throne; but he fancied that he could arouse opposition to the Princess and so open a way for him to become sovereign.

She was crowned in 1837, and the other time period identified for Queen Victoria represents the duration of her reign. The death of William IV on June 20, 1837, terminated the personal union between Great Britain and Hanover. The Salic law rendered Victoria incompetent to succeed to the throne of Hanover, which British sovereigns had filled since George the Elector of Hanover became George I of England in 1714. Hanover had been elevated from an electorate to a kingdom by the congress of Vienna in 1814. Because of the Hanoverian Salic law prohibiting female succession if there was a male heir, Ernest Augustus, Duke of Cumberland (1771-1851) and brother of William IV, became king of Hanover upon William's death, while William's niece Victoria succeeded to the British throne.

The dissolution of the union between England and Hanover was acquiesced in readily by both countries. Ernest, the Duke of Cumberland, was now King Ernest of Hanover, but if the Queen died without children, he would come over to England and wear the English crown as well as that of Hanover. The severance of Hanover from England was, in the eyes of George III's surviving sons and daughters, one of the least agreeable results of their brother William's death, and of the succession of their youthful niece. A subordinate effect of the separation of Hanover from England was the extinction of the Royal Guelphic Hanoverian Order, a decoration which had long been at the personal disposal of the British Sovereign as a reward of meritorious military or civil services.

Victoria did not forgive the treasonable intrigues which her uncle, King Ernest Augustus of Hanover - the most universally hated of all the sons of George III - carried on with the Orange Tories to set up Salic law (barring transmission of the throne in female line) in England, and usurp her throne. She had unpleasant memories of his arrogance in persistently conferring the Guelphic Order on Englishmen, not only without asking her permission, but in defiance of her prohibition, as if in suggestive assertion of an unsurrendered hereditary right of English sovereignty.

Sir John Conroy, who had been right-hand man both to the Duke of Kent and to the Duchess of Kent, had fallen into the faults so common to long service. He was too sure of his ground, too ready to assume responsibility, and he had never troubled to look upon the Princess as a force with which he should reckon. Thus he was entirely disliked by Victoria, and she determined that in her new household she would be freed from a man who, whatever his merits, was personally obnoxious to herself.

The Queen sent for Sir John — so runs one account — and asked him to name the reward he expected for his services to her parents. His reply was that he desired the Red Ribband (ie, the Order of the Bath), an Irish Peerage, and a pension. The Queen answered that the first two lay with her Ministers, and she could not promise for them, but the pension he should have. In another account she made him a baronet in addition to bestowing the pension, but that all

connection with the Palace ceased, and that he was never distinguished by the slightest mark of personal favor.

**The name Saxe-Coburg-Gotha came to the British Royal Family in 1840**

The name Saxe-Coburg-Gotha came to the British Royal Family in 1840 with the marriage of Queen Victoria to **Prince Albert, son of Ernst, Duke of Saxe-Coburg & Gotha**. **Queen Victoria** herself remained a member of the House of Hanover. In 1837, the year of the Queen's accession, a bargain between the sovereign and Parliament was made by which the former renounced the hereditary revenues of the crown enjoyed by her royal predecessors in consideration of a civil list granted during the Queen's lifetime and occupancy of the throne. In 1837 this was an excellent bargain for the country.

The Prince Consort Albert died on December 14, 1861, at the early age of forty-two. In the twenty years from Victoria's marriage to her husband's death, when she was elaborating, by her own conduct, the traditions and duties of a Constitutional sovereign, the Prince Consort was her closest adviser. The Queen was profoundly affected by his loss. For ten years she remained in comparative solitude.

The British royal family used to be named Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, since Queen Victoria had married her cousin Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha. In 1917, towards the end of the First World War the royal family changed their name to Windsor for patriotic reasons. The daughters of Victoria and Albert married German royalty, the eldest Victoria, Kaiserin Friedrich for the 88 days her husband lived to reign, was the mother of Kaiser Wilhelm II.

The House of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha ascended to the throne upon the death of Queen Victoria in 1901. It reigned for sixteen years.
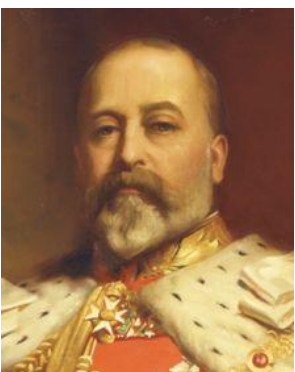
**Edward VII**, Queen Victoria's eldest son, was the first Saxe-Coburg-Gotha monarch. He ascended on 22 January 1901. In the beginning of his reign, he reintroduced rituals such as the State Opening of Parliament that his mother had eliminated. In 1904, a remarkable achievement, the Entente Cordiale, allying Britain and France occurred and ended the "Splendid Isolation" of Britain from Continental politics. Due to this, Edward is popularly known as the Peacemaker. His later reign was marked by the constitutional crisis over the People's Budget proposed by Prime Minister H.H. Asquith. The budget introduced by the Commons was vetoed by the Lords in November 1909, causing an election in January 1910. The new Parliament made plans to remove the Lords' veto power, and did with the

passage of the Parliament Act of 1911. However, Edward did not live to see this, dying on 6 May 1910 at Buckingham Palace. His funeral on 20 May was attended by nine European monarchs, almost all related to the man known as the "Uncle of Europe".

## The Funeral of King Edward VII



*Nine Monarchs of Europe at Windsor Castle for the funeral of King Edward VII - 1910*

Back row, l. to r.: Haakon VII of Norway, Ferdinand I of Bulgaria, Manuel II of Portugal, Wilhelm II of Germany, George I of Greece and Albert I of Belgium; front row: Alphonso XIII of Spain, George V of the United Kingdom, and Frederick VIII of Denmark.

The Funeral of King Edward VII of the United Kingdom occurred on Friday, 20 May 1910. It was one of the largest gatherings of European royalty ever to take place, and one of the last before World War I ended the era of European royalty.

The funeral was notable for the enormous number of important European and world royalty that participated in it. The funeral procession saw a horseback procession, followed by 11 carriages.

King Edward VII had died on 6 May, and the funeral was held two weeks later. Huge crowds gathered to watch the procession, which passed from Buckingham Palace to Westminster Hall, where a small ceremony was conducted by the Archbishop of Canterbury, Randall Davidson before a small group of official mourners - the late king's widow, Queen Alexandra, his son King George V, his daughter The Princess Victoria, his brother the Duke of Connaught, and his nephew the German Emperor. The remainder of the funeral party waited outside the Hall. Then the whole procession proceeded via Whitehall and the Mall, from Hyde Park Corner up to the Marble Arch, and thence to Paddington Station. From there, a train conveyed

the mourners to Windsor. The procession then continued on to Windsor Castle, and a full funeral ceremony was held in St George's Chapel.

## George V



Edward was succeeded by his son George, who becomes George V. George, inherited the political situation his father had left behind. Negotiations over the budget eventually broke down, and he was forced to call an election in December 1910. In 1911, the Parliament Act was passed removing the power of the Lords, with few exceptions, to veto bills. The next crisis concerned Irish Home Rule. Legislation was introduced to grant this, but the Conservatives and the Unionists were staunchly opposed. In July 1914, George held a meeting at Buckingham Palace between the political parties to negotiate over the issue. The negotiations were fruitless, but on 18 September the Home Rule Bill was granted assent. However, it was delayed due to World War I. This was a personal crisis for George, as many of his relatives were German and supported Kaiser Wilhelm II, the symbol of German aggression to the British people and George's first cousin. Thus, on 17 July 1917, George declared the name of the royal dynasty to be "Windsor" rather than "Saxe-Coburg-Gotha", and thus the sixteen-year reign of that dynasty came to an end. The name Saxe-Coburg-Gotha survived in other European monarchies, including the current Belgian Royal Family and the former monarchies of Portugal and Bulgaria.

## The Funeral of King George V



George V died on 20th January 1936 at Sandringham, Norfolk. His funeral took place on 28th January 1936 at St. George's Chapel, Windsor Castle following the Lying-in-State in London. George V was succeeded by Edward VIII who subsequently abdicated in December 1936 in order to marry Mrs. Wallace Simpson.

The First World War took a toll on George's health: he was seriously injured on 28 October 1915 when thrown by his horse at a troop review in France, and his heavy smoking exacerbated recurring breathing problems. He suffered from chronic obstructive pulmonary disease and pleurisy. In 1925, on the instruction of his doctors, he was reluctantly sent on a recuperative private cruise in the Mediterranean; it was his third trip abroad since the war, and his last. In November 1928, he fell seriously ill with septicaemia, and for the next two years his son Edward took over many of his duties. In 1929, the suggestion of a further rest abroad was rejected by the King "in rather strong language". Instead, he retired for three months to Craigweil House, Aldwick, in the seaside resort of Bognor, Sussex. As a result of his stay, the town acquired the suffix "*Regis*", which is Latin for "of the King". A myth later grew that his last words, upon being told that he would soon be well enough to revisit the town, were "Bugger Bognor!"

George never fully recovered. In his final year, he was occasionally administered oxygen. On the evening of 15 January 1936, the King took to his bedroom at Sandringham House complaining of a cold; he would never again leave the room alive. He became gradually weaker, drifting in and out of consciousness.

### The House of Windsor

The British House of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha began with Queen Victoria's marriage to the German Prince Albert of Sachsen-Coburg und Gotha in 1840. Prince Albert (1819-1861) was also responsible for the introduction of German Christmas customs (including the Christmas tree) in England. The British royal family still celebrates Christmas on December 24th rather than on Christmas Day, as is normal English custom.

The Windsor name now used by Queen Elizabeth II and other British royal's only dates back to 1917. Before that the British royal family bore the German name Saxe-Coburg-Gotha (**Sachsen-Coburg und Gotha** in German).

Since August 1914 Britain had been at war with Germany. Anything German had a bad connotation, including the German name Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. Not only that, Germany's Kaiser Wilhelm was a cousin of the British king. So on July 17, 1917, to prove his loyalty to England, Queen Victoria's grandson King George V officially declared that "all descendents in the male line of Queen Victoria, who is subjects of these realms, other than female descendents who marry or who have married, shall bear the name Windsor." Thus the king himself, who was a member of the House of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, changed his own name and that of his wife, Queen Mary, and their children to Windsor. The new English name Windsor was taken from one of the king's castles.

Queen Elizabeth II confirmed the royal Windsor name in a declaration following her accession in 1952. But in 1960 Queen Elizabeth II and her husband Prince Philip announced yet another name change. Prince Philip of Greece and Denmark, whose mother had been Alice of Battenberg, had already Anglicized his name to Philip Mountbatten when he married Elizabeth in 1947. (Interestingly, all four of Philip's sisters, all now deceased, married Germans.) In her 1960 declaration to the Privy Council, the Queen expressed her wish that her children by Philip (other than those in lines would henceforth bear the hyphenated name Mountbatten-Windsor. The royal family's name remained Windsor.

**Link to Saxe-Coburg Family Tree**

**House of Windsor 1917 -**

George V
1865 - 1936
👑 1910 -1936

Mary of Teck
1867 - 1953

George V
Coat of Arms

Wallis Simpson
1895 - 1986

Edward VIII
1894 - 1972
👑 1936 Abdicated

George VI
1895 -1952
👑 1936 -1952

Elizabeth
Bowes-Lyon
1900 - 2002

Mary
1897- 1965
m. Henry Lascelles

Henry
Duke of Gloucester
1900 -1974
m. Alice Montague

George
Duke of Kent
1902 - 1942
m. Marina

John
1905 - 1919

Elizabeth II
1926 -
👑 1952 -

Philip
Duke of Edinburgh
1921 -

Princess Margaret
1930 - 2002
m. Antony Armstrong Jones

Richard Duke of
Gloucester
1944 -

Edward Duke of
Kent
1935 -
m. Katharine

Prince Charles
Prince of Wales
b. 14 Nov 1948

Married 29
Jul 1981
Divorced 28
Aug 1996

Diana
Princess of Wales
b. 1 Jul 1961
d 31 Aug 1997

Married 9
Apr 2005

Camilla
Duchess of Cornwall
b. 17 July 1947

Princess Anne
b. 15 Aug 1950

Married 14
Nov 1973
Divorced 28
Apr 1992

Mark Phillips
b. 22 Sep 1948
Divorced

Married 12
Dec 1992

Timothy Laurence
b.1 Mar 1955

Prince Andrew
Duke of York
b. 19 Feb 1960

Married 23
Jul 1986
Divorced 30
May 1996

Sarah
Duchess of York
b. 15 Oct 1959
Divorced

Prince Edward
Earl of Wessex
b. 10 Mar 1964

Married 19
Jul 1999

Sophie
Countess of Wessex
b. 20 Jan 1965

Prince Michael of
Kent
1942 -
m. Marie

Princess Alexandra
of Kent
1936 -
m. Angus Ogilvy

**Detailed Windsor Family Tree**

Prince Henry (Harry)
b. 15 Sep 1984

Princess Beatrice
b. 8 Aug 1988

Princess Eugenie
b.23 Mar 1990

Lady Louise
b. 8 Nov 2003

Viscount Severn
b. 17 Dec 2007

Prince William
Duke of Cambridge
b. 21 Jun 1982

Married
29 Apr
2011

Catherine
Duchess of Cambridge
b. 9 Jan 1982

Peter Phillips
b. 15 Nov 1977

Married
17 May
2008

Autumn Phillips
b. 3 May 1978

Zara Phillips
b.15 May 1981

Married
30 Jul
2011

Mike Tindall
b.18 Oct 1978

Savannah
b. 29 Dec 2010

Isla
b. 31 Mar 2012

The present Queen has familial ties with most of the monarchs in Europe. (Reference: The British Monarchy). Relations between Queen Elizabeth II and other European Sovereigns:

**EUROPEAN MONARCHS: Relationships between Queen Elizabeth II and other European Sovereigns**

- Jan Willem, Prince of Orange, 1687-1711
  - Anne, Princess Royal of Great Britain, 1709-59 m. Willem IV, Prince of Orange, 1711-51
    - Willem V, Prince of Orange, 1748-1806
      - Willem I, King of The Netherlands, 1772-1848
        - Willem II, King of The Netherlands, 1792-1849
          - Willem III, King of The Netherlands, 1817-90
            - Wilhelmina, Queen of the Netherlands, 1880-1962
              - Juliana, Queen of the Netherlands, 1909-2004
                - Beatrix, Queen of the Netherlands, b. 1938
        - Frederik, 1797-1881
          - Louise, 1828-71 m. Carl XV, King of Sweden, 1826-72
            - Louise, 1851-1926 m. Frederik VIII, King of Denmark, 1843-1912
              - Christian X, King of Denmark, 1870-1947
                - Frederik IX, King of Denmark, 1899-1972
                  - Margrethe II, Queen of Denmark, b. 1940
              - Ingeborg, 1878-1958 m. Carl, Prince of Sweden, 1861-1951
                - Astrid, 1905-35 m. Leopold III, King of the Belgians, 1901-83
                  - Baudouin, King of the Belgians, 1930-93
                  - Albert II, King of the Belgians, b. 1934
                  - Joséphine-Charlotte, 1927-2005 m. Jean, Grand Duke of Luxembourg, b. 1921
              - Haakon VII, King of Norway, 1872-1957 m. Maud, 1869-1938
                - Märtha, 1901-54 m. Olav V, King of Norway, 1903-91
                  - Harald V, King of Norway, b. 1937
  - Caroline, 1743-1787 m. Karl, Prince of Nassau-Weilburg, 1735-88
    - Henriette, 1780-1857 m. Ludwig, Duke of Wurttemberg, 1756-1817
      - Alexander, 1804-85
        - Francis, Duke of Teck, 1837-1900 m. Mary Adelaide, 1833-97
          - George V, King of Great Britain, 1865-1939 m. Mary of Teck, 1867-1953
            - George VI, King of Great Britain, 1895-1952
              - Elizabeth II, Queen of Great Britain, b. 1926
  - Anna Charlotte, 1710-77 m. Friedrich, Hereditary Prince of Baden-Durlach, 1703-32
    - Karl Friedrich, Grand Duke of Baden, 1728-1811
      - Karl, Hereditary Prince of Baden, 1755-1801
        - Karl, Grand Duke of Baden, 1786-1818
          - Marie, 1817-1888 m. William Douglas-Hamilton, 11th Duke of Hamilton and Brandon, 1811-63
            - Mary, 1850-1922 m. Albert I, Prince of Monaco, 1848-1922
              - Louis II, Prince of Monaco, 1870-1949
                - Charlotte, 1898-1977 m. Pierre, Comte de Polignac, 1895-1964
                  - Rainier III, Prince of Monaco, 1923-2005
                    - Albert II, Prince of Monaco, b. 1958

- Victoria, Queen of Great Britain, 1819-1901
  - Alexandra, 1844-1925 m. Edward VII, King of Great Britain, 1841-1910
  - Beatrice, 1857-1944 m. Henry of Battenburg, 1858-96
    - Victoria Eugenia, 1887-1969 m. Alfonso XIII, King of Spain, 1886-1941
      - Juan, Count of Barcelona, b. 1913
        - Juan Carlos, King of Spain, b. 1938

# THE TRANSFORMATION OF THE EUROPEAN NOBILITY



(Polish magnates 1576-1586)

European nobility originated in the feudal/seigniorial system that arose in Europe during the Middle Ages. Originally, knights or nobles were mounted warriors who swore allegiance to their sovereign and promised to fight for him in exchange for an allocation of land (usually together with serfs living thereon). During the period known as the Military Revolution, nobles gradually lost their role in raising and commanding private armies, as many nations created cohesive national armies.

This was coupled with a loss of the socio-economic power of the nobility, owing to the economic changes of the Renaissance and the growing economic importance of the merchant classes, which increased still further during the Industrial Revolution. In countries where the nobility was the dominant class, the *bourgeoisie* gradually grew in power; a rich city merchant came to be more influential than a nobleman, and the latter sometimes sought inter marriage with families of the former to maintain their noble lifestyles.

However, in many countries at this time, the nobility retained substantial political importance and social influence: for instance, the United Kingdom's government was dominated by the nobility until the middle of the 19th century. Thereafter the powers of the nobility were progressively reduced by legislation. However, until 1999, all Hereditary Peers were entitled to sit and vote in the House of Lords. Since, a reduction has been undertaken, whereby 92 sit, with 90 being elected by other hereditary peers to represent the peerage.

The countries with the highest proportion of nobles were Castile[25] (probably 10%?), Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth[26] (15% population in the 18th century with 800.000), Spain (722.000 in 1768 which was 7-8% of the entire population) and other countries with lower percentages like Russia in 1760 with 5-600.000 nobles (2-3% of the entire population), and France before the 1789 Revolution where there were no more than 300.000 which was 1% of the entire population (even if some scholars believe this figure was too big). In 1718 Sweden accounted from 10 to 15.000 nobles which was 0.5% of the entire population. Globally speaking all the nobles in 18th century Europe were maybe 3-4 million on a total of 170-190 million inhabitants[27]

In Hungary, yet another frontier region, nobles made up 5% of the population. On the frontiers of Europe, western and eastern alike, ongoing warfare against ethnic outsiders – Turks and Tatars in eastern Europe, Moors (until 1492) in Spain – gave large numbers of new men access to higher status; and the booty of conquest provided the material bases for their advancement.

### Rank within the nobility

Nobility might be either inherited or conferred by a *fons honorum[28]*. In its broadest manifestation and strictest sense nobility is an acknowledged preeminence that is *hereditary*, i.e. the status descends exclusively to some or all of the legitimate, usually male-line descendants of a nobleman. In this respect, *nobility* has long been distinguished from a title of nobility, such as peerages in France and the United Kingdom, *grandezas[29]* in Portugal and Spain, and some noble titles in

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**25** The Crown of **C**astile was a medieval and modern state in the Iberian Peninsula that formed in 1230 as a result of the third and definitive union of the crowns and parliaments of the kingdoms of Castile and León upon the accession of the then King Ferdinand III of Castile to the vacant Leonese throne. It continued to exist as a separate entity after the personal union in 1469 of the crowns of Castile and Aragon with the marriage of the Catholic Monarchs up to the dynastic union in to the heirs of Habsburg Spain.

**26** The **Polish–Lithuanian Commonwealth** (or *Union*, after 1791 the **Commonwealth of Poland**) was a dualistic state of Poland and Lithuania ruled by a common monarch. It was one of the largest and one of the most populous countries of 16th- and 17th-century Europe, with some 1,000,000 square kilometers (390,000 sq mi) and a multi-ethnic population of 11 million at its peak in the early 17th century. It was established at the Union of Lublin in July 1569 and disappeared as an independent state after the Third Partition of Poland in 1795.

**27** Jean, Meyer (1973). *Noblesses et pouvoirs dans l'Europe d'Ancien Régime, Hachette Littérature*. Hachette. pp. N/A. ISBN N/A. - Jean-Pierre, Labatut (1981). *Les noblesses européennes de la fin du XVe siècle à la fin du XVIIIe siècle*. Presses universitaires de France. pp. N/A. ISBN N/A.

**28** The **fount of honour** (Latin: *fons honorum*) refers to a person, who, by virtue of his or her official position, has the exclusive right of conferring legitimate titles of nobility and orders of chivalry to other persons.

**29** **Grandee** (pron.: /grən'diː/) is the word used to render in English the Iberian high aristocratic title or rank of *Grande* (Spanish: ['grande], Portuguese: [ *grandezas*]; literally "Great, Grand"), used by the Spanish nobility, Portuguese nobility and Brazilian nobility. The rank was a rough equivalent of the Peerage of

Belgium, Italy, the Netherlands, Prussia and Scandinavia. In the Netherlands and Spain, noble titles are now equally heritable by females and males.

Aristocrat and aristocracy, in modern usage, refer informally and broadly to persons belonging to the nobility or upper class.

In France, some wealthy *bourgeois*[30], most particularly the members of the various *parlements*[31], were ennobled by the king, constituting the *noblesse de robe*[32]. The old nobility of landed or knightly origin, the *noblesse d'épée*[33], increasingly resented the influence and pretensions of this *parvenu* nobility. In the last years of the *ancien régime* the old nobility pushed for restrictions of certain offices and orders of chivalry to noblemen who could demonstrate that their lineage had sufficient "quartering[34]", i.e. noble ancestry (matrilineal[35] as well as patrilineal), to deserve to compete as equals with nobles of medieval descent for offices and favors at court, (although historians such as William Doyle[36] have disputed this so-called "Aristocratic Reaction"). Various court and military positions were reserved by tradition for nobles who could "prove" an ancestry of at least *seize quartiers* (sixteen quartering), indicating exclusively noble descent (as displayed, ideally, in

England or Peerage of France, and carried — increasingly as time went on — certain personal privileges, but the Grandees had no powers as a group.

[30] **Bourgeoisie** is a word from the French language, used in the fields of political economy, political philosophy, sociology, and history, which originally denoted the wealthy stratum of the middle class that originated during the latter part of the Middle Ages (AD 500–1500).

[31] **Parlements** were regional legislative and judicial bodies in *Ancien Régime* France

[32] Under the Old Regime, the **Nobles of the Robe** or **Nobles of the Gown** (French: *Noblesse de robe*) were French aristocrats who owed their rank to judicial or administrative posts — often bought outright for high sums. As a rule, these positions did not grant the holder with a title (count, duke, baron, etc.), but were honorary positions almost always attached to a specific office (judge, councilor, etc.). The office was often hereditary and by 1789, most Nobles of the Robe had inherited their position. They were the opposite of the "Nobles of the Sword" whose nobility was based on their families' traditional function as the military class, and whose titles were customarily attached to a fiefdom under the feudalist system. Together with the older nobility, Nobles of the Robe made up the Second Estate in pre-revolutionary France.

[33] The **Nobles of the Sword** (French: *noblesse d'épée*) refers to the class of traditional or old nobility in France during the Middle Agesand the Early Modern periods. This class was heir to a militaristic ideology of professional chivalry. It is largely synonymous with the expressions *noblesse de race* and *noblesse ancienne*, and is used in opposition to other classes of French nobility, namely:

[34] Quartering in heraldry is a method of joining several different coats of arms together in one shield by dividing the shield into equal parts and placing different coats of arms in each division.

[35] **Matrilineality** is a system in which descent is traced through the mother and maternal ancestors. Matrilineality is also a societal system in which one belongs to one's *matriline* or mother's lineage, which can involve the inheritance of property and/or titles.

[36] **William Doyle** (born 1942) is an English historian, specializing in 18th-century France, who is most notable for his one-volume *Oxford History of the French Revolution* (1989)

the family's coat of arms) extending back five generations (all sixteen great-great grandparents).

(Above picture: *Charles-Alexandre de Calonne* by Élisabeth-Louise Vigée-Le Brun (1784) - London, Royal Collection - The Vicomte de Calonne is shown in the costume of his rank, noblesse de robe).

## Ball at the court of Henry III of France, c. 1580.

**(Henry III** (Fontainebleau 19 September 1551 – Saint-Cloud 2 August 1589; born *Alexandre Édouard de France*, Polish: *Henryk Walezy*, Lithuanian: *Henrikas Valua*) was a Valois monarch who was elected as the monarch of the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth from 1573 to 1575 and who ruled as King of France from 1574 until his death).

This illustrates the traditional link in many countries between heraldry and nobility; in those countries where heraldry is used, nobles have almost always been armigerous[37], and have used heraldry to demonstrate their ancestry and family history. However, it is important to note that heraldry has never been restricted to the noble classes in most countries, and being armigerous does not necessarily demonstrate nobility. Scotland is, though, an exception.

In the modern age, inherited nobility with special rights has largely been abolished in the Western World as intrinsically discriminatory, and discredited as inferior in efficiency to individual meritocracy in the allocation of societal resources.

Many nations traditionally had untitled lower nobility (including, in continental Europe, hereditary knights) in addition to titled nobles. Examples are the *landed gentry*[38] of the British Isles, the *Junkers*[39] of Germany, the *noblesse de robe* of France, the *hidalgos*[40] of Spain and the *nobili* of Italy.

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[37] Definition of ARMIGEROUS**:** bearing heraldic arms. First Known Use of ARMIGEROUS circa 1731

[38] **Landed gentry** is a largely historical British social class, consisting of land owners who could live entirely off rental income. Often they worked only in an administrative capacity, in the management of their own lands.

[39] *Junker* is derived from Middle High German *Juncherre*, meaning "young lord" (derivation of *jung* and *Herr*), and originally was the title of members of the higher *edelfrei* (immediate) nobility without or before the accolade. It evolved to a general denotation of a young or lesser noble, often poor and politically insignificant, understood as "country squire" (cf. Martin Luther's disguise as "Junker Jörg" at the Wartburg; he would later mock King Henry VIII of England as "Juncker Heintz". As part of the nobility, many Junker families only had prepositions such as *von* or *zu* before their family names without further ranks. The abbreviation of Junker was Jkr., most often placed before the given name and titles, for example: Jkr. Heinrich von Hohenberg. The female equivalent Junkfrau (Jkfr.) was used only sporadically. In some cases, the honorific Jkr. was also used for *Freiherren* (Barons) and *Grafen* (Counts).

Some con artists sell fake titles of nobility, often with impressive-looking documents to back them up. These may be illegal, depending on local law. They are more often illegal in countries that actually have nobilities, such as European monarchies. In the United States, such commerce may constitute actionable fraud rather than criminal usurpation of an exclusive right to use of any given title by an established class.

## "Blue" blood

*Blue blood* is an English idiom recorded since 1834 for noble birth or descent; it is also known as a translation of the Spanish phrase *sangre azul*, which described the Spanish royal family and other high nobility who claimed to be of *Visigothic[41]* descent, in contrast to the Moors[42].

The idiom originates from ancient and medieval societies of Europe and distinguishes an upper class (whose superficial veins appeared blue through their untanned skin) from a working class of the time. The latter consisted mainly of agricultural peasants who spent most of their time working outdoors and thus had tanned skin, through which superficial veins appear less prominently.

Robert Lacey explains the genesis of the blue blood concept:

(**Robert Lacey**, born 3 January 1944, is a British historian and biographer. He is the author of a number of bestselling biographies, including those of Henry Ford and Queen Elizabeth II, as well as works of popular history)

It was the Spaniards who gave the world the notion that an aristocrat's blood is not red but blue. The Spanish nobility started taking shape around the ninth century in classic military fashion, occupying land as warriors on horseback. They were to continue the process for more than five hundred

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[40] A *hidalgo* is a member of the Spanish and Portuguese nobility. In popular usage it has come to mean the non-titled nobility. *Hidalgos* were exempt from paying taxes, but did not necessarily own real property. The feminine is *hidalga* in Spanish and *fidalga* in Portuguese and Galician.

41 The Visigoths (Latin: Visigothi, Wisigothi, Vesi, Visi, Wesi, or Wisi) and Ostrogoths were branches of the nomadic tribes of Germanic peoples referred to collectively as the Goths. These tribes flourished and spread during the late Roman Empire in Late Antiquity, or the Migration Period. The Visigoths emerged from earlier Gothic groups who had invaded the Roman Empire beginning in 376 and had defeated the Romans at the Battle of Adrianople in 378. The Visigoths invaded Italy under Alaric I and sacked Rome in 410. Their long history of migration led the Visigoths to compare themselves to the Biblical Hebrew people who purportedly wandered for forty years in the Sinai Desert. After the Visigoths sacked Rome, they began settling down, first in southern Gaul and eventually in Spain and Portugal, where they founded the Kingdom of the Visigoths.

[42] The **Moors** were the medieval Muslim inhabitants of Morocco, western Algeria, Western Sahara, Mauritania, the Iberian Peninsula, Septimania, Sicily and Malta. The Moors called their Iberian territory Al-Andalus, an area comprising Gibraltar, much of what is now Spain and Portugal, and part of France. There was also a Moorish presence in present-day southern Italy after they occupied Mazara in 827 until their last settlement of Lucera was destroyed in 1300. The religious difference of the Moorish Muslims led to a centuries-long conflict with the Christian kingdoms of Europe called the Reconquista. The Fall of Granada in 1492 saw the end of the Muslim presence in Iberia.

years, clawing back sections of the peninsula from its Moorish occupiers, and a nobleman demonstrated his pedigree by holding up his sword arm to display the filigree of blue-blooded veins beneath his pale skin—proof that his birth had not been contaminated by the dark-skinned enemy.

# NAPOLEON I BONAPARTE



Coronation of Napoleon[43]

The Voice of Russia presents another program in the series dedicated to the bicentenary of Russia's victory over France in the 1812 Patriotic War. Today we will expand on the coronation of Napoleon Bonaparte as the French Emperor.

After three great dynasties - the Merovingian who ruled the country from the 5th to the 8th centuries, the Carolingians who reigned from the 8th to the 10th centuries, and the Capetian Rulers with their Valois and Bourbon lines who held the scepter from the late 10th century to 1792 - France was waiting for the fourth dynasty to accede to the throne, the Bonaparte

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[43] The Coronation of Napoleon (French: Le Sacre de Napoléon) is a painting completed in 1807 by Jacques-Louis David, the official painter of Napoleon. The painting has imposing dimensions, as it is almost ten meters wide by approximately six meters tall. The crowning and the coronation took place at Notre-Dame de Paris, a way for Napoleon to make it clear that he was a son of the Revolution.

Dynasty. The republic had to once again turn into a monarchy. But, unlike all preceding dynasties, members of the new one were to bear the title of emperors that was first acquired by Charlemagne in the year 800. Now, a thousand years later, Napoleon openly declared his intention to become the Emperor of the West, succeeding not the former French kings but Charles the Great directly.

But Charlemagne's empire itself was just an attempt to revive the more powerful Roman Empire. Napoleon thus wanted to cast himself as the heir of this empire and a consolidator of countries of the Western civilization. Later, he managed to assume control, either direct or implicit, of a considerably more extensive suite of lands than that owned by Charles the Great. Suffice it to say that before his invasion of Russia in 1812, Napoleon's immense domain in Europe alone was bigger in size, incomparably wealthier and more densely populated than the Roman Empire. Having first found out Napoleon's plan to resurrect the great empire built by Charlemagne, most of Europe perceived this as vehement pride and an insolent challenge from a conqueror who got caught up in a web of his own ties. On April 18th, 1804, the French Senate ruled to grant the "Hereditary Emperor of the French" title to First Consul Napoleon Bonaparte. Europe was indignant over this move. Fore instance, German composer Ludwig van Beethoven, who had been admiring the politician and even inscribed his Eroica Symphony (Symphony No. 3) to him, took the dedication back having learned about citizen Bonaparte's turning into an emperor.

When the decorated crowd of generals, dignitaries and pompously dressed noble ladies first welcomed their Emperor in the halls of the Tuileries Palace, only a few initiated people knew that the new ruler did not consider the ceremony of his enthronement to be fully accomplished. Napoleon wished for the Pope himself to attend his coronation, just as it happened with Charles the Great a thousand years ago. There was only one, albeit rather substantial, difference: Charlemagne went to Rome to be crowned emperor by the Pope, whereas Napoleon wanted the latter to travel to Paris himself.

 **Pope Pius VII** [44]learned about the French emperor's wish with fear and aggravation, but could not even contemplate refusing, given the constant impending threat to Rome from Napoleon's forces deployed in Northern and Central Italy. Another curious thing was Emperor Bonaparte's behavior before and during the coronation. On the one hand, he needed the pontiff because millions of people around the world, and most of the French in particular, believed in him religiously. But on the other hand, Pius VII was a sort of sorcerer for him, a warlock consciously exploiting human foolishness, operating

[44] Barnabas Louis Chiaramonti, son of Count Scipio Chiaramonti, was born August 14, 1740. His attitude toward the Italian Republic (established by Napoleon in dependence orr France) was not quite consistent, but in general he gave his support to the new regime. At the death of Pius VI the conclave met at Venice on December 1, 1799. After months of delay he was unanimously elected to succeed Pius VI, whose papal name he adopted.

various spells and manipulating people both within and outside the church.

On December 2nd, 1804, Napoleon was anointed and crowned emperor at the Cathedral of Notre-Dame de Paris. Myriads of people were staring entranced at the interminable string of golden court carriages with the generalship, the clergy, the Pope and his cardinals moving from the palace to the cathedral. However, the coronation itself had a sudden but not altogether unexpected change of course, notwithstanding all careful plans for the ceremony. At the most crucial moment, Napoleon grabbed the coronation crown from the Pope and placed it on his own head. After that, his wife Josephine kneeled submissively and received a smaller crown from the hands of her husband, not the pontiff. This gesture had a deep symbolic meaning: Napoleon did not want the pope's blessing to be given priority importance during the ceremony. Least of all did he want to receive the crown from the head of a church organization which he disliked and disrespected but found it reasonable to reckon with.

**Europe during Napoleon**



*Frenchmen, you will no doubt recognize in my conduct the zeal of a soldier of liberty and of a devoted citizen of the Republic. Liberal, beneficent, and traditional ideas have returned to their rightful place through the dispersal of the odious and despicable factions which sought to overawe the Councils.*

Napoleon Bonaparte, "Proclamation to the French Nation" (November 10, 1799)

There is no denying the fact that the French Revolution created NAPOLEON BONAPARTE (1769-1821). It was this man who, in 1799, combined a passion for power with his genius for leadership. Although much of what Napoleon accomplished over fifteen years seemed to undermine the principles of 1789, the end result was that many of the achievements of the Revolution were made French realities. Indeed, these realities were also made manifest across Europe.

Napoleon was born August 15, 1769, on the island of Corsica, the son of a petty or low noble. He trained at a military school and so the wars of the French Revolution gave him the opportunity to test his skills. In 1793, when he was only 24 years old, Napoleon's artillery pushed the British out of Toulon. In 1795, he saved the Convention from a Royalist insurrection. In 1796, he was given command of the French Army of Italy. It was during his ITALIAN CAMPAIGNS[45] against the Austrians that Napoleon's talent for military strategy

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[45] In 1796, Napoleon, then a young officer of 27 years of age, was given command of the French army in Italy. In the Italian campaign, he demonstrated his genius for propaganda and psychological warfare.

was first demonstrated. He tasted glory -- he could never do without it. He knew he was headed for greatness. He was aware, that he was a "world-historical figure," a "great man," "a hero in history." He later confided that:

*In Italy I realized I was a superior being and conceived the ambition of performing great things, which hitherto had filled my thoughts only as a fantastic dream.*

In November 1797, Napoleon was ordered to plan an invasion of England. Aware that France had a weak navy compared to that of England, Napoleon decided to strike the British by attacking British commerce in Egypt and India (which supplied cotton for British mills). He left France with 35,000 men and took Cairo. Napoleon's meager fleet, however, was destroyed at the Battle of the Nile by Nelson's navy. Meanwhile, Napoleon sent glowing reports back to France.



While all this was going on, things were not that peaceful back in France. Political unrest, financial disaster, and war with Europe compelled Napoleon to return. France needed a savior and Napoleon recognized himself as that savior. In October 1799, and without informing his troops in Egypt, Napoleon landed in France. A conspiracy was already underway against the lame five-man Directory. Some politicians realized the need to seize power and establish a strong executive. Perhaps a tyrant was needed.

On November 10, 1799 -- the *18th BRUMAIRE* of the Year VIII[46] -- the Directory was overthrown by a *coup d'etat* and Napoleon became a military dictator. The French Revolution had entered yet another stage of its history. The French people welcomed Napoleon -- the bourgeoisie, in particular, expected Napoleon to protect the wealth and influence they had gained as a result of 1789.

A new constitution was drawn up which specified that three Consuls would share power as a sort of triumvirate. Napoleon, of course, was one of these Consuls. His ambition, however, forced him to aspire to much more. In 1802, Napoleon was made first Consul for life with the right to choose his successor. On December 2, 1804, Napoleon crowned himself Emperor of the French. So, by 1804, the fate of both France and Europe depended upon this one man.

Like most men of stature and power, Napoleon's was a complex personality. We naturally think of Alexander, Augustus, Charlemagne, Peter the Great, Hitler and Stalin. His intellectual ability was clearly impressive. He had grandiose ideas. He had a philosophic mind. He could work 18 to 20 hours at a stretch without so much as a break in concentration. He was, as one

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[46] The **coup of 18 Brumaire** (often simply **18 Brumaire** or **Brumaire**) was the *coup d'état* by which General Napoleon Bonaparte overthrew the French Directory, replacing it with the French Consulate. This occurred on 9 November 1799, which was 18 Brumaire, Year VIII under the French Republican Calendar.

French historian put it, "a typical man of the 18th century, a rationalist, a philosophe who placed his trust in reason, in knowledge and in methodical effort." But Napoleon was no disembodied brain -- his personality was not pure intellect. He also had a love of action and a boundless ambition. "I live only for posterity," he said, "death is nothing . . . but to live defeated and without glory is to die every day." He was an artist, a poet of action, for whom France, Europe and a mankind were but instruments. He had charisma; he could move men to obedience, to loyalty and to heroic acts. He was also quite arrogant -- he manipulated people at will. "A man like me," he once said, "troubles himself little about the lives of a million men."

Living in a revolutionary age, Napoleon observed firsthand the precariousness of power. He knew what happened to Louis XVI. He knew that the Girondins had been executed and that Robespierre had fallen victim to the Reign of Terror. Napoleon assumed that he would not make the same mistakes. He knew that he must become both a statesman and a tyrant. He had to consolidate the Revolution and bind together the different social classes of the French nation.

His domestic policy then, is crucial to our overall understanding of Napoleonic France. Here, he was clearly influenced by the Revolution. He was also affected by the ideas of the philosophies. He considered himself "enlightened." There are five areas of domestic policy worth our attention: government, religion, law, education and the economy.

**Government**
Napoleon provided France with a strong centralized government -- a government he would himself dominate, as an emperor, a Caesar. Previous French monarchs could not overcome political barriers (the remnants of feudalism, an obstinate nobility, local traditions and legal problems). But, when the Revolution basically swept away these remnants, administrative unity could become a reality. This left an opening for a man like Napoleon. So Napoleon created an army of officials -- civil servants and bureaucrats -- an army which reached into every village, town and city. The entire nation was linked together under rational administration. The result was that Napoleon concentrated power and this provided him with taxes and soldiers.

Napoleon also had to shape public opinion -- this was accomplished by crude forms of propaganda, but more importantly by the use of secret agents, arbitrary arrests, and executions. Like all dictators -- we think of Mussolini, Hitler and Stalin -- Napoleon relied on public opinion to prevent hostile criticism. In other words, dissent was nearly impossible. Printers and booksellers swore oaths of allegiance and all newspapers fell under state control. So, by repressing liberty, subverting republicanism and restoring absolutism, Napoleon reversed some of the liberal gains of the Revolution. He favored equality before the law and careers open to talent but he believed that political liberty threatened the efficiency of the state with anarchy. He would govern in the interests of the people as an enlightened but absolute ruler.

## Religion

In terms of religion, Napoleon bordered between deism and atheism. I suppose you could say that Catholicism as a religion of salvation had little meaning to him. But, like [Machiavelli](#), Rousseau, and Marx, Napoleon believed that religion was little more than the cement which held society together. Again, we are reminded of Marx when he remarked that "religion is the opiate of the people." According to Napoleon, religion promoted national unity and prevented class war -- it kept the people meek and mild instead of strong and independent. He made every effort to close the divide between the State and the Church, a divide created by the Revolution. The Temples of Reason (i.e., the churches) and the Cult of the Supreme Being, erected in the early 1790s, were too abstract for Napoleon.

Astute, calculating and intelligent, Napoleon knew exactly what he was doing. It was for these reasons that he negotiated an agreement with the Pope. The Concordat of 1801 recognized Catholicism as the favored religion of France -- not the state religion. The clergy would be selected and paid by the State, but consecrated by the Church. So, in terms of religion, Napoleon basically guaranteed one of the rights mentioned in the *Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen* -- religious freedom. However, the Church did not regain land confiscated during the Revolution, nor did they have the right to collect the tithe and the French clergy, though consecrated at Rome, remained under state control. Napoleon had achieved another of his aims -- Jews, Protestants and Catholics could freely practice their religion. But the Church was under state control.

## Law

We mentioned that one of the causes of the Revolution was that 18th century France was plagued with numerous and sometimes conflicting codes of law. These codes obstructed national unity and administrative efficiency. Although the National Assembly had made the attempt to rectify the situation, they always had other things on their mind. Napoleon pressed for the completion of the project. So, he instituted the *CODE NAPOLEON*[47] which incorporated the great principles of 1789: equality before the law, careers open to talent, freedom of religion, protection of private property, abolition of serfdom, and the secularization of the state. The *Code*, however, also had its less-liberal side. Workers were denied collective bargaining, trade unions were outlawed, and a system of labor passports was instituted. Women were declared to be inferior to men by law, and children had no rights at all. Of women, Napoleon once remarked,

*the husband must possess the absolute power and right to say to his wife: Madame, you shall not go out, you shall not go to the theater, you shall not visit such and such a person: for the children you bear, they shall be mine.*

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[47] The **Napoleonic Code**—or ***Code Napoléon*** (originally, the ***Code civil des français***)—is the <u>French</u> civil code, established under Napoléon I in 1804. The code forbade privileges based on birth, allowed freedom of religion, and specified that government jobs should go to the most qualified-

## Education

Like some of the philosophers and the majority of active revolutionaries, Napoleon favored a state system of public education. The curriculum would be secular and schools would be managed under the direction of the state and not the Church. For Napoleon, education would serve a dual role. State funded education would provide him with capable officials necessary to administer his laws and trained officers to man his army. The young would also be indoctrinated to obedience and authority. Napoleon established the University of France - a giant board of education that placed education under state control. To this day, little has changed - education is strictly centralized with curriculum and academic standards set for the entire nation. Women, of course, were excluded. "Marriage is their whole destination," Napoleon once wrote. Women did not need education, all they needed was religion.

## Economics

Napoleon's economic policies were designed to strengthen France and increase his popularity. To stimulate the economy and serve the interests of the bourgeoisie, Napoleon aided industry through tariffs and loans. He built or repaired roads, bridges and canals. He established the Bank of France. He kept careers open to men of talent and provided bread at low prices. He stimulated the employment of artisans and did not restore ancient feudal rights.

Napoleon was not a democrat nor was he a republican. He was, he liked to think, an enlightened despot, the sort of man Voltaire might have found appealing. He preserved numerous social gains of the Revolution while suppressing political liberty. He admired efficiency and strength and hated feudalism, religious intolerance, and civil inequality. Enlightened despotism meant political stability. He knew his Roman history well --after 500 years of republicanism, Rome became an empire under Augustus Caesar.

Napoleon's domestic policies gained the popular support he demanded. But it was his military victories that mesmerized the French people. Napoleon realized the grand dream of Louis XIV - the mastery of Europe. Between 1805 and 1807, Napoleon defeated Austria, Prussia and Russia becoming the virtual ruler of the Continent. He embraced his own "art of war" that stressed rapid offensive attack over defensive positions. Surprise and speed were essential ingredients. So too were efforts to confuse his opponents: he supplied newspapers with incorrect information, he launched secondary offenses and he sent dense screens of cavalry ahead of his marching columns. He wanted to both surprise and demoralize the enemy. His troops were amazing. They marched fifty miles in 36 hours during one campaign in Italy in 1796. They accomplished 275 miles in 23 days during the Austrian campaign in 1805.

While he made every effort to humiliate and demoralize his enemy, Napoleon also understood the necessity of maintaining the morale of his own troops. So, he shared the dangers of war with his own men. He did not wait on a hill -- rather, he led the charge. An army based on honor, vanity and personal loyalty is difficult to overcome. Alexander, Augustus Caesar and Charlemagne were all aware of this. By 1810, Napoleon dominated nearly all of Europe.

Belgium, vast territories of Germany, Holland, Italy, Westphalia and Spain had all been annexed. Napoleon's "Grand Empire" also included Austria, Prussia, Russia, Sweden and Denmark.

While Napoleon and his armies were busy securing their military domination of Europe, Napoleon also set about to extend his reforms within France to other lands. His officials instituted the *Code Napoleon,* organized a corps of civil servants, opened careers to talent, and equalized taxes. Serfdom was abolished as were manorial dues and the courts of nobility. Freedom of religion was permitted, guilds were abolished, uniform systems of weights and measures were established, roads and canals were built, and secular education was promoted.

In fact, most people of the conquered nations considered Napoleon to be their "great liberator." But there is another side to the story. Those lands which Napoleon conquered became satellite states which were exploited for the benefit, not of the Grand Empire, but for France. So, Napoleon had a difficult task on his hands -- how to control such a vast territory of land. However, the real threat came not from the Continent, but from England, France's perpetual enemy. Between 1803 and 1805, Napoleon tried to invade the English but it was not to be. Instead, he instituted the CONTINENTAL SYSTEM[48] which barred all countries under French control to trade with England. However, thanks to smuggling, piracy, and trade with the New World, England was able to thwart Napoleon's plan. Meanwhile, Napoleon had problems with Spain; Germany fought her own wars of liberation; and Napoleon's Russian campaign of 1812 came to be the beginning of the end.

The Napoleonic wars came to an end in March 1814. Napoleon was removed as Emperor to the island of Elba and a Bourbon monarch returned to the French throne. Napoleon made one last ditch effort in 1815 -- his last 100 days, and then he was exiled to St. Helena, a small island hundreds of miles off the west coast of Africa. Napoleon died in 1821.

Napoleon was a real man as well as a legend. It was Napoleon himself who helped to create this legend. He wrote his memoirs while exiled on St. Helena between 1815 and 1821. He tells us his aim was to defend the Revolution and consolidate its gains. He emerges as a champion of equality, a supporter of popular sovereignty, a destroyer of privilege and a lover of peace. According to Napoleon, his vision was to create a United States of Europe. He wanted to free Europe from tyranny, oppression and despotism. As we know full well, this never happened. However, he did help to consolidate many gains of the Revolution. But, such a view ignores the downside of Napoleon --his repression of liberty, the general subversion of republicanism, and the oppression of conquered peoples.

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[48] After his victory at Jena, Napoleon felt that the time had come to put into execution his project of excluding England from the continent. England had given him an excuse for the Berlin Decree given below by declaring the coast from the river Elbe to Brest in a state of blockade (May, 1806).

# THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA UNDER THE LEADERSHIP OF CLEMENS PRINCE von METTERNICH



(The Parisian court painter Jean Baptiste Isabey (1767-1855) traveled to Vienna as part of the French delegation. There, he executed portraits of each of the 23 participants; these studies eventually formed the basis of his famous group portrait. (The etching reproduced above was done after Isabey's original painting of 1815.) Metternich, who dominated the Congress, can be seen (standing) toward the left side of the image; he gestures toward the British Secretary of State, Viscount Robert Castlereagh, who is seated in a rather relaxed fashion in the center. Across from him sits Prussian Chancellor Karl August von Hardenberg (lower left corner). Standing behind Hardenburg is England's Duke of Wellington. On the right side of the portrait, the French diplomat Charles Maurice de Talleyrand-Périgord rests his right arm on the table. The composition emphasizes the fact that Talleyrand enjoyed an equal place at the negotiation table – this, despite the fact that he was representing a defeated France. Wilhlem von Humboldt stands second from the right. Count Rasoumoffsky, the representative of Czar Alexander I of Russia, appears near the middle of the portrait; he stands before the lower left corner of the large portrait on the wall. The etching dates from 1819 and is presumably the work of Jean Godefroy.)

From autumn of 1814 until June of 1815, representatives of the European powers participated in the Congress of Vienna under the presidency of Austrian chancellor Clemens Prince von Metternich. The primary task of the Congress was to settle upon a new dynastic and territorial organization of Europe in the wake of Napoleon's defeat.

One month before the defeat of Napoleon in April, 1814, his four major adversaries (Great Britain, Austria, Russia, and Prussia) had agreed in the Treaty of Chaumont (March 10, 1814) to remain allied until final victory and then to hold a general European congress to secure the

peace. In signing the First Peace of Paris on May 30, 1814, with the restored Bourbon monarchy of France, the four great powers reaffirmed their intention to hold such a congress at Vienna. From beginning to end, the Congress of Vienna remained almost exclusively a congress of the great powers, the smaller states being summoned to participate only in the discussion of minor matters which pertained to them individually. **A plenary session of all the powers was never held.**

The Congress made decisive changes to the political map of Europe: borders were redrawn, states reorganized, and territories ceded or annexed. France's one-time hegemonic power was replaced by a new politics of European equilibrium. The old dynasties were largely restored on the basis of the principle of legitimacy, and the period of so-called Restoration thus began. Prussia's acquisition of territory along the Rhine was probably the most consequential change introduced by the Congress, for with this new land Prussia gained a "bulwark" against France.

Also significant was the founding of the German Confederation, which originally united 35 sovereign states and four free cities (Lübeck, Bremen, Hamburg, and Frankfurt) under the leadership of Austria. The constitutional basis of the Confederation was the German Federal Act (which was later supplemented by the Final Act[49] of the Viennese Ministerial Conferences of 1820); the Confederation's highest authority was the Confederal Assembly, which met in Frankfurt am Main and included envoys from all the individual states. When compared with the Holy Roman Empire of the German Nation, the Confederation certainly represented a move toward modernization, above all in terms of structure. Nonetheless, it opposed the burgeoning national and liberal-constitutional movement. Additionally, the implementation of Article 13 of the Federal Act, which promised each state a constitution, was pursued only hesitatingly in most states. As a result, tensions surrounding the "German question" would become increasingly heated in the following decades.

European heads of government were looking to establish long-lasting peace and stability on the continent after the defeat of Napoleon. They had a goal of the new European order—one of collective security and stability for the entire continent. A series of meetings in Vienna, known as the Congress of Vienna, were called to set up policies to achieve this goal. Originally, the Congress of Vienna was scheduled to last for four weeks. Instead, it went on for eight months.

**Results of the Congress of Vienna**

- ✓ Russia was given most of the Duchy of Warsaw (Poland) and was allowed to keep Finland (which it had annexed from Sweden in 1809 and held until 1917).

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[49] The rules laid out in the German Federal Act were to be quickly supplemented by a Basic Law and "organic Confederal institutions." Just as the Carlsbad Conference of 1819 approved additional measures in support of the Federal Act, the governments of the German states agreed to further regulations of Confederal affairs in the Vienna Final Act of May 15, 1820. The 65 articles were unanimously approved by the Frankfurt Confederal Assembly on June 8, 1820.

- ✓ Prussia was given two fifths of Saxony, parts of the Duchy of Warsaw (the Grand Duchy of Posen), Danzig, and the Rhineland/Westphalia.
- ✓ A German Confederation of 38 states was created from the previous 300, under the presidency of the Austrian Emperor. Only portions of the territory of Austria and Prussia were included in the Confederation.
- ✓ The Netherlands and the Southern Netherlands (approx. modern-day Belgium) were united in a constitutional monarchy, with the House of Orange-Nassau providing the king.
- ✓ To compensate for the Orange-Nassau's loss of the Nassau lands to Prussia, the United Kingdom of the Netherlands and the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg were to form a personal union under the House of Orange-Nassau, with Luxembourg (but not the Netherlands) inside the German Confederation.
- ✓ The Dano-Norwegian union was dissolved and Norway transferred to Sweden (in personal union).
- ✓ Sweden ceded Swedish Pomerania to Prussia.
- ✓ The neutrality of Switzerland was guaranteed.
- ✓ Hanover gave up the Duchy of Lauenburg to Denmark, but was enlarged by the addition of former territories of the Bishop of Münster and by the formerly Prussian East Frisia, and made a kingdom.
- ✓ Most of the territorial gains of Bavaria, Württemberg, Baden, Hesse-Darmstadt, and Nassau under the mediatizations of 1801-1806 were recognized. Bavaria also gained control of the Rhenish Palatinate and parts of the Napoleonic Duchy of Würzburg and Grand Duchy of Frankfurt. Hesse-Darmstadt, in exchange for giving up the Duchy of Westphalia to Prussia, was granted the city of Mainz.
- ✓ Austria regained control of the Tirol and Salzburg; of the former Illyrian Provinces, and received Lombardy-Venetia in Italy and Ragusa in Dalmatia. Former Austrian territory in Southwest Germany remained under the control of Württemberg and Baden, and the Austrian Netherlands were also not recovered.
- ✓ Habsburg princes were returned to control of the Grand Duchy of Tuscany and the Duchy of Modena.
- ✓ The Papal States were under the rule of the pope and restored to their former extent, with the exception of Avignon and the Comtat Venaissin, which remained part of France.
- ✓ The United Kingdom was confirmed in control of Cape Colony, South Africa; Tobago; Ceylon; and various other colonies in Africa and Asia. Other colonies, most notably the Dutch East Indies and Martinique, were restored to their previous owners.
- ✓ The King of Sardinia was restored in Piedmont, Nice, and Savoy, and was given control of Genoa (putting an end to the brief proclamation of a restored Republic).
- ✓ The Duchies of Parma, Piacenza and Guastalla were given to Marie Louise, Napoleon's wife.
- ✓ The Duchy of Lucca was created for the House of Bourbon-Parma, which would have reversionary rights to Parma after the death of Marie Louise.
- ✓ The Bourbon Ferdinand IV, King of Sicily was restored to control of the Kingdom of Naples, but only after Joachim Murat, the king installed by Bonaparte, rose up and supported Napoleon in the Hundred Days, triggering the Neapolitan War.
- ✓ The slave trade was condemned.
- ✓ Freedom of navigation was guaranteed for many rivers, including the Rhine.

**The diplomacy of Metternich – The congress of Vienna.**

The "Congress of Vienna" was not properly a Congress: it never met in plenary session, and most of the discussions occurred in informal, face-to-face, sessions among the Great Powers with limited participation by delegates from the lesser states. Most of the decisions made in Vienna during the winter of 1814–1815 were made in secret among representatives of the five "great powers"—Russia, Prussia, Austria, Great Britain, and France. By far the most influential of these representatives was the foreign minister of Austria, Prince Klemens von Metternich.

**Metternich** (Clemens Wenzel Nepomuk Lothar von Metternich-Winneburg) was born into an aristocratic family on May 15th, 1773, in Coblenz, Germany. The father of the family, Count Francis George, was involved in diplomatic circles and, at the time of his son Clemens' birth, was in the service of the Habsburgs of Austria. Metternich distrusted the democratic ideals of the French Revolution. Like most other European aristocrats, he felt that Napoleon's behavior had been a natural outcome of experiments with democracy. Metternich wanted to keep things as they were and remarked, "The first and greatest concern for the immense majority of every nation is the stability of laws—never their change." Metternich had three goals at the Congress of Vienna. First, he wanted to prevent future French aggression by surrounding France with strong countries. Second, he wanted to restore a balance of power, so that no country would be a threat to others. Third, he wanted to restore Europe's royal families to the thrones they had held before Napoleon's conquests.

As the proceedings of the Congress of Vienna continued amidst much lavish social festival diplomatists and statesmen redrew the map of Europe after Napoleon's downfall. A French Bourbon monarchy had been restored and was represented at Vienna by Talleyrand who gradually won acceptance from other diplomats that restoration France should be regarded as a major power with a legitimate say in the efforts to define a peace.

Although the several powers gathered at Vienna had formerly been allies in war they strenuously disagreed amongst themselves over the post war settlement of Europe. Metternich had many talents which helped him to exercise a great influence on proceedings. His charm, determination, subtlety and finesse played a key role in frustrating Russia's plans for the annexation of the whole of Poland and Prussia's attempt to absorb Saxony. He succeeded in creating a German Confederation under Austrian leadership and was broadly satisfied with the degree to which Austria was influential in the Italian peninsula. The fact that Napoleon escaped from Elba and again became leader of sizeable armies that stayed in the field for some "one hundred days" may have helped to concentrate the diplomats' minds on the need to reach agreement.

Metternich equally resented liberalism, nationalism, and revolution regarding them all as forms of "presumption". Metternich subscribed to a world view that dated from the

"European Enlightenment". That is he accepted that there were certain fundamental laws relating to society which were open to being discovered. By governing in line with such laws rulers could have a greater hope that their societies would function in a stable and tranquil equilibrium. Metternich believed that the observation of the precepts of Religious and Social Morality to be a primary necessity to governing in line with natural laws.

In Metternich's view the printing presses had made it a lot easier to spread harmful ideas as well as beneficial ones. Such things as the invention of Gunpowder and the monetary inflation that had been experienced in Europe as the gold and silver of the Americas were imported had greatly unsettled the previous social equilibrium and prepared men's minds for the acceptance of new, and often false, ideas. Such false ideas were then "presumptuous" in that they often tended to motivate people to support socio-political movements that would seek to establish seemingly attractive adoptions of society that were not in line with the observance of fundamental laws.

Metternich's ideal was a monarchy that shared power with the traditional privileged classes of society. In efforts to preserve the sort of Europe he valued from future revolutionary irruptions Metternich attempted to make the postwar Quadruple Alliance (Great Britain, Russia, Prussia, and Austria) into an instrument for preventing revolution in Europe. He encouraged a Congress System where representatives of the powers were to meet periodically with the view considering if it was necessary to suppress revolutionary movements. He was in favor of close supervision of the universities and an ambitious system of censorship intended to discourage radicalism of any kind. These policies left Metternich open to being depicted as an architect of Reaction and of a suppressor of Liberty. It seems that the Austrian Emperor, Francis I, was of a notably reactionary outlook and this may well have helped to restrain any modest tendency towards flexibility that Metternich might have himself favored.

Several Congresses were held: Aix-la-Chapelle, 1818; Karlsbad (a conference of ministers), 1819; Vienna, 1820; Troppau, 1820; Laibach, 1821; and Verona, 1822.

In the event the Congress System did not long survive as there were emergent "questions" such as the Greek Revolt (from 1821) against Ottoman Turkish rule where the European powers could not find it in themselves to all agree that the longstanding Ottoman overlordship should be supported. Metternich opted to support a continuation of historically established Ottoman Turkish rule. The Russians (themselves mainly Orthodox Christians) for their part were inclined to support the Orthodox Christian Greeks partly in line with their own expansionary aims and partly in the belief that Ottoman Turkey was in decay and thus it fell to others to follow policies that would tend to provide a longer term stability to the region. Public opinion in western Europe and north America often tended to be Hellenophile attributing to the Greeks of 1823 a close affinity with the Greeks of the classical age and in this seeing a sufficient reason to support the Greek insurgency against an oppressive Ottoman Turkey rule.

Metternich's system was more generally tested by a spate of liberalising revolutions widely across western Europe in 1830-1 where the rulers of many European States found it necessary, for a time at least, to concede Constitutions to those they ruled. A relatively reactionary French monarchy was replaced by a relatively liberal one and Belgium began to be established as a separate state from the Kingdom of the Netherlands into which it had been incorporated in 1815 in order to provide a stronger state more capable of withstanding French turbulences.

Whilst the system that Metternich had sought to establish to withstand diverse populist aspirations was becoming increasingly impractical given the increasing strength of those aspirations and the increasing economic and political influence of the broader populations within societies he nonetheless continued in office until 1848 when another, and more serious, bout of populist insurgence led to his being advised that he had lost the confidence of the Austrian Imperial caste.

Metternich resigned on 13th March 1848 and this was accepted on 18th March. Metternich and his family relocated to England for some eighteen months before returning to continent Europe (Brussels). A popular assembly based in Vienna seized the Metternich estates for its own purposes.

It was not until well into 1849 that Europe, and the Habsburg lands were returned to their former systems of government. In the case of Austria this had required Russian assistance in quelling the independent mindedness of the Magyars of Hungary. Following on from this recovery by the Habsburg authority the Metternich estates were restored to him.

Metternich did not return to Vienna to live until September 1851 and it was in that city that he died on June 11th, 1859.

**Mediator of the Congress of Vienna**
Mainly, the four major powers of Europe, Austria, Russia, Prussia, and Great Britain, made most of the big decisions. Austria was represented by Prince von Metternich, the Austrian minister of state who was also acting president of the Congress. The Russians sent Alexander I, the emperor of Russia. The main delegate from Prussia was Prince Karl August von Hardenberg, and Great Britain was represented by Lord Castlereagh, and later Arthur Wellesley, the first duke of Wellington. This group of major powers decided that France, Spain, and the smaller powers would have no say in important decisions; however, the French diplomat, Charles Maurice de Talleyrand, was successful in allowing France to have an equal voice in the negotiations. Talleyrand became the deciding vote in many of the decisions.

To the present both Talleyrand and Metternich surprises because they not only influenced their own times, but their political legacy continues to affect the world today.

Without the reactionary actions of Talleyrand and Metternich, democracy and representative government might have prevailed in Europe decades before autocratic kings, kicking and screaming, were forced to become constitutional monarchs, or forced to abdicate.

Many royals refused and lost their thrones as a result. Louis XVI also fought efforts to force a constitution on his regime. The king's right-wing politics, egged on by his even more reactionary wife, Marie Antoinette, cost him and her more than his throne when he opposed a constitution.

Talleyrand and Metternich were the political Masters of Their Royal Universes in Europe from the early to mid-19thcentury. Like the once famous family of German bankers to popes and princes, the Fuggers, Talleyrand and Metternich make cameo appearances throughout history texts about better known figures like the princes they served. In the Fugger's case, a few creditors who eventually bankrupted the family in the 17thcentury included Charles V, the Holy Roman Emperor, and his son, King Philip II of Spain.

Metternich's reactionary rule of Austria for the Austrian Emperor Francis I, the prince demoted by Napoleon from Holy Roman Emperor, created a reaction against Metternich's antidemocratic policies that led to Europe's current form of parliamentary or representative forms of government.

Of the two princes, Talleyrand was less ethical and more of a careerist who betrayed four masters as they began to lose power. His serial betrayals included the Catholic Church, where he held the position of Bishop of Autun, and the French Revolution, which he left the Church to participate in.

Then, he abandoned the ideals of the Revolution of *liberté, egalité et fraternité* to serve a new master, Napoleon. Twice, after Napoleon lost his "first" Waterloo at the Battle of Leipzig in 1813, and finally at Waterloo, Talleyrand went over to the royalist side of the returning *ancien* (former in French, not "anicent") *regime* of Louis XVI, now led by Louis' brother, the 18thLouis.

When Napoleon returned from Elba and marched on Paris during his 100- day return to France, Talleyrand abandoned his new master and rejoined the previous master he had betrayed, Napoleon.

After Waterloo and Napoleon's exile to St. Helena, Talleyrand welcomed back Louis XVIII, then Louis' successor and brother, the ultra-reactionary Charles X, and finally their liberal cousin, Louis-Philippe, the so-called "Citizen King" who agreed to be a constitutional monarch. But the wily artisocrat had lost his credibility as a faithful servant of various regimes and eventually retired following political unrest against his autocratic rule.

At his chateau in the French countryside, Talleyrand devoted himself to manufacturing brie, the so-called "king of cheeses." An enemy quipped, "It was the only king he was ever faithful to."

Metternich's ultra-conservatism kept Europe's aspirations for nationhood in check until the Revolution of 1848, when most of the continent rebelled against so-called "benevolent despots" like the Austrian emperor and the Russian emperor, Alexander I.

Even a constitutional monarch like Queen Victoria, holding on to fearful memories of the slaughter of royals during the French Revolution, fled to Osborune House, her summer home on the Isle of Wight, in case her subjects became infected with the revolutionary fever that burned on the continent.

The queen was never in danger, except possibly in her own mind, since she was considered a figurehead and above politics or blamed for political mistakes of her ministers and their conservative policies.

Talleyrand inadvertently promoted the national aspirations of Italy and Germany. Both regions until the latter half of the 19th century were a hodgepodge of petty independent principalities and a few large kingdoms like Prussia or Parma. Austria had colonized most of Northern and Southern Italy before Napoleon "liberated" the Italians and replaced them with his brother and an in-law.

Extensive papal territory that bisected the Italian peninsula also kept Italy ununified for centuries. Dispossessing the pope of land and wealth was considered sacrilege by devout Catholics and *Realpolitik* by everyone from Henry VIII, who confiscated the wealth of Catholic monasteries and convents, and Napoleon, the jailor of two popes.

When Napoleon's Grand Armée temporarily united the various Italian states at the point of a bayonet, Italian reunification, called *il Risorgimento* (Resurgence), remained an ideal that became reality during the second half of the 19th century as Italian nationalists finally confiscated Pope Pius IX's temporal power and property and left him with the post-stage stamp sized Vatican City.

Talleyrand's influence on political systems today was less dramatic than Metternich's, but influential nevertheless. The French statesman merely delayed the transition from the rule of France by Bourbon kings in the 18th century to the domination of the *haute bourgeoisie* in the 19th.

Historians Napoleon's monumental presence on the world stage was brief and evanescent. His 12 years in power are considered an interregnum between France's monarchist and constitutional government.

After the Glorious (French) Revolution of 1848, which spread to the rest of Europe, any lingering hopes of turning back the clock to the age of malevolent despots or autocrats ended.

The genie of representative government and constitutional monarchy had been released from the bottle and couldn't be put back.

If Talleyrand had remained faithful to Napoleon, the emperor might have remained in power, and the map of Europe would be unrecognizable today. Just one example of Napoleon and Talleyrand's potential legacy: The general turned emperor defeated Prussia and preempted its evolution into the dominant state of what is today Germany for half a century or more.

After Napoleon's fall, Prussia regained its position among the European powers, which allowed it to become the German Empire in 1871 after winning the Franco-Prussian War.

If Napoleon had prevailed, Italy would have been reunified under French domination in the early, not the late 19th century.

**Prince Klemens von Metternich** was an Austrian statesman, and the Austrian minister of foreign affairs form 1809 to 1848. Metternich was also a champion of conservatism. Metternich, the mediator at the Congress of Vienna, was an insightful man. He knew that for the meeting to be a success, he would have to modify his conservative ideals for a new Europe. It was a great success to Metternich that the conference was held in Vienna. Wanting to secure the Austrian predominance, Klemens tried to form German and Italian confederations, both under Austrian rule. Along with Castlereagh, Metternich opposed the elimination of France. Metternich also agreed that Russia must be kept form obtaining too much control. Another plan that Metternich wanted to achieve at the Congress of Vienna, was long-lasting order in Europe. But Klemens' biggest hope for the Congress of Vienna was to restore conservative governments in the new Europe. Metternich was able to achieve most of these goals, but neither a German confederation nor an Italian confederation ever came about. Prince Klemens craftily manipulated whole countries, for he was a master at controlling people. In the end, Klemens obtain most of the things he wanted through strong will and determination.

**Czar Alexander I**, the emperor of Russia from 1801-1825, was best known for his alternately befriending, then fighting Napoleon I. In the early 1810's (1813-1815) Alexander helped form the Big Four, which finally defeated the French emperor. As a part of the Congress of Vienna, the czar played a big part in the agreement to balance power and to get along with one another. In this meeting, Alexander was determined to obtain the only spoil that he wanted, Poland. The allies

(Britain, Russia, Prussia), afraid of the Asiatic Russians obtaining too much control, only gave Russia a portion of Poland. Disgusted and disillusioned by the cynicism of Metternich, Talleyrand, and Castlereagh towards the idea of all people getting along, the czar formed the Holy Alliance in 1815. With this group, Alexander I tried to create a world based on the ideas of justice and charity.

Because of these radical and liberal ideas, Czar Alexander I was thought to be foolish and almost childish in his goals. Alexander was an idealist, and towards his later year, the czar became even more involved in mystical and spiritual events. Alexander was also a very religious man. He had such liberal ideas as giving Poland a liberal constitution (this allowed Poland to be partially restored) and funding universities and secondary schools in his country. Alexander was unpredictable, and did many things on whims. For this reason, it is thought that he might not have died in Taganrog, but moved to Siberia to become a hermit.

**Prince Karl August von Hardenberg** was a Prussian statesman and the Prussian delegate in attendance at the Congress of Vienna. Hardenberg was able to bring about the rapprochement between Russia and Britain over the division of Saxony and Poland. He waved Prussian rights to Saxony in return for the Rhineland. Hardenberg later associated himself with Alexander I and his Holy Alliance. A resourceful man, Karl saw that some things must be given up for the good of the continent.

**Viscount Robert Castlereagh** was the British foreign secretary from 1812 to 1822. Castlereagh was a major player in the Congress of Vienna. He was involved with the redrawing of the post-Napoleonic map and was a major influence in the Concert of Europe. As a leader in bringing together the powers they overthrew Napoleon and in forming the Congress of Vienna, Castlereagh was a large influence in promoting diplomacy by conference. The viscount's main objective at the Congress of Vienna was to keep Russia from gaining too much control and to strengthen a weak Germany and Italy. Castlereagh also took the lead in denying Russia's territorial demands on Poland. Throughout later years of his life, Castlereagh continued to oppose Russian expansion.

The viscount was a thoughtful, introspective man who realized the dangers of an ultra-powerful Russia. He was known for brilliant diplomatic techniques and persuasive tactics. In 1821, Castlereagh became ill. He began to show signs of abnormal suspicion, which in 1822 was full blown paranoia. The viscount's reputation became soiled by vicious rumors. Unable to stand this disgrace, Castlereagh committed suicide.

**Prince Charles Maurice de Talleyrand-Périgord**, Prince of Benevento, Bishop of Autun, French Revolutionary, and France's foreign minister, is known to posterity by a single name, Talleyrand. Talleyrand was a French statesman and a diplomat. He was the diplomat from France assigned to the Congress of Vienna. With the interest of France, Talleyrand managed to divide the Allies and to keep France in one piece. He did this by forming an alliance with Britain and Austria. As this new alliance, the three powers were able to prevent the splitting of French land. By sheer cunning, Talleyrand was able to obtain what he wanted. He was, quite arguably, the most skillful and best diplomat that France has ever had.

**Europe after the Congress of Vienna.**
Despite his defeat, Napoleon had several important effects on Europe. For one thing, he had spread the idea of liberalism, especially in Western and Central Europe. By the same token, he had also spread the idea of nationalism in East and Central Europe.

The rulers of Europe were very nervous about the legacy of the French Revolution. They worried that the ideals of liberty, equality, and fraternity might encourage revolutions elsewhere. Late in 1815, Czar Alexander I, Emperor Francis I of Austria, and King Frederick William III of Prussia signed an agreement called the "Holy Alliance". In it, they pledged to base their relations with other nations on Christian principles in order to combat the forces of revolution. Finally, a series of alliances devised by Metternich, called the "Concert of Europe", ensured that nations would help one another if any revolutions broke out. Across Europe, conservatives held firm control of the governments, but they could not contain the ideas that had emerged during the French Revolution. France after 1815 was deeply divided politically.

Conservatives were happy with the monarchy of Louis XVIII and were determined to make it last. Liberals, however, wanted the king to share more power with the legislature. And many people in the lower classes remained committed to the ideals of liberty, equality, and fraternity.

Similarly, in other countries there was an explosive mixture of ideas and factions that would contribute directly to revolutions in 1830 and 1848. Despite their efforts to undo the French Revolution, the leaders at the Congress of Vienna could not turn back the clock. The Revolution had given Europe its first experiment in democratic government. Although the experiment had failed, it had set new political ideas in motion. The major political upheavals of the early 1800s had their roots in the French Revolution.

**Revolution in Latin America**
The actions of the Congress of Vienna had consequences far beyond events in Europe. When Napoleon deposed the king of Spain during the Peninsular War, liberal Creoles (colonists born in Spanish America) seized control of many colonies in the Americas. When the Congress of Vienna restored the king to the Spanish throne, royalist *peninsulares* (colonists

born in Spain) tried to regain control of these colonial governments. The Creoles, however, attempted to retain and expand their power. In response, the Spanish king took steps to tighten control over the American colonies. This action angered the Mexicans, who rose in revolt and successfully threw off Spain's control. Other Spanish colonies in Latin America also claimed independence. At about the same time, Brazil declared independence from Portugal.

The Congress of Vienna left a legacy that would influence world politics for the next 100 years. The continent-wide efforts to establish and maintain a balance of power diminished the size and the power of France. At the same time, the power of Britain and Prussia increased. Nationalism began to spread in Italy, Germany, Greece, and to other areas that the Congress had put under foreign control. Eventually, the nationalistic feelings would explode into revolutions, and new nations would be formed. European colonies also responded to the power shift. Spanish colonies took advantage of the events in Europe to declare their independence and break away from Spain. At the same time, ideas about the basis of power and authority had changed permanently as a result of the French Revolution. More and more, people saw democracy as the best way to ensure equality and justice for all. The French Revolution, then, changed the social attitudes and assumptions that had dominated Europe for centuries. A new era had begun.

## More Consequences

As Europe changed throughout the 19th century, several royal families were gradually dismantled. The Kingdom of Naples saw the removal of its sovereign Joachim Murat. Venice ceased being a provincial capital of Austria by 1866 and ceded to a unified Italy. When it became clear that the Venetian Republic would never again be fully independent, Venetian patricians redirected their political efforts. Several members of Royal Houses were experienced diplomats, and various individuals of royal houses branch accepted recruitment by the Austrian Emperor to serve as ambassadors for the Imperial House of Habsburg-Lorraine.

By the end of the 17th Century, claims to absolute sovereignty on the part of the English Crown and Parliament had been established. The Revolution of 1688, during which James II was chased from power, produced the English Bill of Rights, establishing a constitutional system in which the King's powers were both limited and checked by Parliament.

Britain's American colonists revolted because they refused to accept that Parliament had the right to govern their colonies without reference to established rights. Debates over "external" versus "internal" taxation in particular rested on the American insistence that their relationship with Britain was a limited one, governed by the provisions of colonial charters and by historical precedent, which had established that the colonies would be self-governing. The principle of sovereignty played a crucial role in fomenting rebellion and, from the British perspective, losing an important part of its empire.

In the 19th and early 20th centuries, the combined use of specific legal terminology and phrasing allowed Italian registers to inscribe any type of title, foreign or domestic. Registers specifically used very precise words, abbreviations and phrasing to specify the various types of comital rankings, from noble counts up to princely counts. All comital rankings within Italy were registered through the title of "count". Since 1763, the Almanach de Gotha recorded the

genealogies of the sovereign houses of Europe and of the "mediatized" (to annex a lesser state to a greater state as a means of permitting the ruler of the lesser state to retain title and partial authority) princes and princely counts of Europe and the Holy Roman Empire. However, the several genealogies of Italian noble houses were not included in the Almanach de Gotha. Titular princely counts connected to nominal territories were also excluded from the Gotha since they were not *mediatised* (the members of formerly reigning houses who were reclassified into intermediary princely or princely comital houses).

Aristocrats of non-mediatized houses with a line of titular princely counts were registered within their country of origin, and Italian registers were prepared to follow precise legal standards of inscription for the registration of an Austrian princely title of highness. Listing the name of a nominal territory was not required by law.

Beginning with the Congress of Vienna in 1814 till after World War II in 1946, princes of the noble social class were not allowed to marry within the royal social class. Doing so would create a morganatic marriage, which resulted in the subsequent issue of a reigning imperial or royal house being denied succession rights.

Princes of the noble social class were typically *princes of the church* and recipients of a *princely papal title* - a title of prince issued from the Pope, rather than from a monarch. Since the Pope acted as "His Holiness" and is not of princely highness or majesty himself, the princely families of the noble social class remained under the governance of an aristocrat holding a ranking of princely highness from within the royal social class.

Consequently, princes of the noble social class were not deemed equal to the princely members of the royal social class. Alternatively, princely counts received their title with royal decree from the Emperor, *Seine Kaiserliche un Konigliche Apostolische Majestat* (His Imperial and Royal Apostolic Majesty), and princely counts were of the highest standing within their given domain. As such, princely counts are of greater dignity and station than princes of the noble social class. A princely count could marry the daughter of the Emperor, and this marriage would be deemed a union of equals within the royal social class.

Princes of the noble social class could not secure such a union and were forced to marry within the *noble social class* (the aristocratic class below the royal social class, containing all nobles lacking a standing of highness. Specifically, non-reigning and non-mediatized princes, dukes, marquises, counts, viscounts, barons etc.). In essence, princes whom lacked a standing of highness would never be able to fully rule autonomously or produce issue connected to reigning imperial or royal houses.

The crown of Sicily, the prestige of being kings at last, and the wealth of Palermo helped strengthen the House of Savoy further. In 1720 they exchanged Sicily for Sardinia of which they were kings. In 1792 Piedmont-Sardinia joined the First Coalition against the French First Republic, but was beaten in 1796 by Napoleon and forced to conclude the disadvantageous Treaty of Paris (1796), giving the French army free passage through Piedmont. In 1798 Joubert, occupied Turin and forced Charles Emmanuel IV to abdicate and leave for the island of Sardinia. Eventually, in 1814 the kingdom was restored and enlarged with the addition of the former Republic of Genoa by the Congress of Vienna.

In 1870, when the unification of Italy was consummated with the occupation of Rome by Piedmontese troops, the House of Savoy attempted to amalgamate these different nobilities.

The project failed both politically and juridical. Many noble families remained faithful to the dethroned dynasties from which they had received their titles. Particularly, a considerable part of the Roman aristocracy, maintaining tradition, continued to figure officially in Vatican solemnities. They refused to recognize Rome's annexation to Italy, rejected any rapprochement with the *Quirinal* [50] and closed their salons as a sign of protest. To this mourning nobility was given the name "Black Nobility".

Nevertheless, the amalgamation advanced in no small scale in the social sphere through marriages, social relations, and the like. As a result, the Italian aristocracy in our day constitutes a whole, at least from many points of view. Article 42 of the 1929 Lateran Treaty, however, assured the Roman nobility a special status, since it recognized the Pope's right to grant new titles and accepted those granted previously by the Holy See. Thus the Italian and Roman nobilities, by then already at peace, continued to exist legally side by side.

## The dissolution of the Holy Roman Empire



The throne of the Holy Roman Empire, elective from its origins, became de facto hereditary in 1438, when Albert II, the Illustrious, from the House of Austria, was elected. From then on the college of Electoral Princes always chose the head of this House for the imperial throne. The election of Francis of Lorraine in 1745 was only an apparent exception, since he had married the heiress of the House of Austria, Archduchess Maria Theresa of Hapsburg. The house of Hapsburg-Lorraine thus came into being as the legitimate continuer of the House of Austria at the head of the Holy Roman Empire.

On the other hand, the strongly federative character of the Holy Roman Empire lasted until its dissolution in 1806, when Napoleon forced **Emperor Francis II**[51] (Francis I of Austria) to abdicate. With his imposition of the Confederation of the Rhine that same year, the Corsican drastically reduced the number of sovereign principalities in the Empire.

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[50] (Latin: Collis Quirinalis, is one of the Seven Hills of Rome, at the north-east of the city center. The Quirinal Palace was Pope Gregory XIII as a papal summer residence. Now it is the location of the official residence of the Italian Head of State. It has housed thirty popes, four kings and eleven presidents of the Italian Republic).

[51] **Francis II** becomes the last Holy Roman Emperor when he dissolves the Holy Roman Empire after his disastrous defeat at the hands of Napoleon at the Battle of Austerlitz. In 1804 he had founded the Austrian Empire, naming himself Francis I, first Emperor of Austria. Thus from 1804 to 1806 he was the world's first and only *Doppelkaiser* (double emperor).

Between 1804 and 1806, Francis referred to himself as *by the grace of God elected Roman Emperor, always August, hereditary Emperor of Austria*.

The subsequent German Confederation (1815-1866), which had the emperor of Austria as its hereditary president, represented a conservative interim in this centripetal march. It was, however, dissolved after the Austro-Prussian war and the battle of Sadowa (1866). The North German Confederation was then formed under Prussian hegemony. Austria and the states of southern Germany were excluded.

After the defeat of Napoleon III in 1870, this confederation became the German Reich, which was much more centralized and recognized only twenty-five member states as sovereign.

The centripetal impulse did not stop here. The *Anschluss (Union)* of Austria and, shortly thereafter, the annexation of the Sudetenland to the Third Reich (1938) carried this impulse to an extreme and resulted in the Second World War. The nullification of these centripetal conquests of Adolf Hitler and the recent incorporation of East Germany into the present German state may mark the final point of these successive modifications of the German map.

The crises resulting from World War I brought some changes to this picture. They deprived part of the noble families of their means of livelihood and forced many of their members to secure subsistence through the exercise of professions at variance, even when honest and worthy, with the psychology, customs, and social prestige of their class.

World War II brought additional and more extensive economic ruin to many noble families, worsening yet further the multiple problems the aristocracy had to face. In this way, the crisis of a great social class became acute and firmly entrenched. It was with this picture before him that Pius XII addressed the current situation of the Italian nobility in his allocutions to the Roman Patrician and Nobility, which had obvious relevance for all the European nobility.

# MEDIATISATION

In consequence of the wars of the revolution and the empire, a great number of *immediate* principalities, counties and baronies of Germany, that is to say, such as had no other suzerain than the emperor under whose immediate authority they were, were subordinated to princes formerly their equals; this has been termed mediatisation. Mediatisation is the loss of imperial immediacy. It is the subsumption of one monarchy into another monarchy in such a way that the ruler of the annexed state keeps his sovereign title and, sometimes, a measure of local power. For instance: when a sovereign county is annexed to a larger realm, its reigning count might find himself subordinated to another sovereign ruler, but nevertheless remains a count of sovereign rank, if not actually fully sovereign in fact. His subjects owe allegiance to the higher prince *through* him, and so his sovereignty is said to be *mediatised*, that is, rendered intermediate.

The term "mediatisation" was originally applied to the reorganization of the German states during the early 19th century, although the process had been going on since the Middle Ages. Mediatisation has occurred in a number of other countries: Italy (e.g. Orsini, Doria, Pallavicini), Russia (e.g. Sibirsky, Vorotynsky), and France (e.g. Rohan, de Bouillon and Lorraine) are notable examples. The term is also sometimes used in reference to some Indian princely states.

The number of mediatized rulers is somewhat considerable. There are fourteen in Austria, twenty-nine in Prussia, twenty-two in Bavaria, thirty-five in Würtemberg, eight in Baden, and nineteen in the grand duchy of Hesse. But it is proper to remark that some are mentioned twice, in this sense, and that several houses, such as those of La Tour and Taxis, figure in a number of states. Further, Prussia granted the title of *standesherrn* to twenty-eight other houses of princes and counts. Among mediatized rulers we find the names Aremburg, Croy, Bentheim, Sayn-Wittgenstein, Salm, Solms, Wied, Esterhazy, Schwarzenberg, Windischgraciz Fugger, Hohenlohe, Ottingen, Waldburg, Loewenstein, Stadion, Leiningen, Furstenberg, Loyen, Isenburg, Erbach, Stolberg, and others.

## Holy Roman Empire - *German Mediatisation*

Between 1803 and 1806, the vast majority of the states of the Holy Roman Empire were mediatised by Napoleon. These states lost their imperial immediacy (*Reichsunmittelbarkeit*) and became part of other states. The number of states was reduced from about three hundred to about thirty. Mediatisation went along with secularisation: the abolition of most of the ecclesiastic states.

The legal basis for mediatisation was the *Reichsdeputationshauptschluss* (German Mediatisation) of 1803, which had become necessary under pressure from France. The Treaty of the Confederation of the Rhine of 1806 continued the process of mediatisation. The constitution of the German Confederation of 1815 confirmed the mediatisation, but gave certain rights to the mediatised princes, such as first instance jurisdiction.
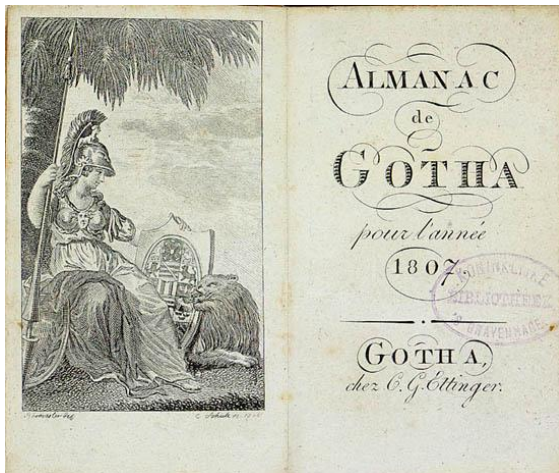


Mediatised sovereign houses rank higher than other houses of nominally equal (or higher) rank, but who never ruled a state. This division had great social significance, as mediatised princes were considered equal to royals for marriage purposes; in essence they were regarded as royalty. However, there were two types of mediatised families; old and new. Old were those who have for centuries ruled immediate imperial territories. New families were those who obtained immediate status after the end of the Middle Ages, mostly as a reward for service and loyalty to the reigning Emperor. Most of these families came from hereditary Habsburg lands and south-western Germany; originally they were mediate nobles, upgraded to immediate status.

After the mediatisation, these families were officially regarded as equals to royalty; however, the reigning houses often, but not always declined to treat them as such. Emperor Franz Joseph, for example, forbade his nephew`s son, future Charles I of Austria, even to consider a possible match with a Hohenlohe princess even though the Hohenlohes were an old family who reigned for centuries prior to the mediatisation and King Frederick William III of Prussia had to marry morganatically the Countess Auguste von Harrach even though she came from a mediatised family.

Thus in theory, if a scion from the most obscure mediatised family (say the child of an impoverished mediatised count) married an emperor or a king, their alliance was considered equal, not morganatic, and their children had dynastic rights. In practice, however, this never happened. The authoritative guide to the royal and noble houses of Europe, the *Almanach de Gotha*, is, since late nineteenth century, divided into three sections: sovereign houses, mediatised houses, and noble houses.

## Italian mediatizations

Since 1763, the Almanach de Gotha recorded facts and statistics on nations of the world and the genealogies of the sovereign houses of Europe and of the mediatized princes and princely counts of Europe and the Holy Roman Empire. Those of Europe being more complete than those of other continents. It also named the highest incumbent officers of state, members of the diplomatic corps, and Europe's upper nobility with their families.

The purpose of the Almanach was to record the ruling houses of Europe and their cadet branches, the most important of those they had ennobled, and incumbent diplomatic corps and highest officers of state. The undertaking was massive, as there were many royal families in Germany and Italy alone, and their minor branches numbered in the thousands. The inclusion of a noble family in the Almanach was seen as socially vital. Since communications were slow in the 18th and 19th centuries, a source was needed to check the existence of high noble persons. Following World War I and the fall of many royal houses, noble titles became easy to masquerade due to the inexistence of a regulating government in the business of granting titles; this made inclusion in the incorruptible *Almanach de Gotha* even more essential. If a noble title was not listed in the Almanach, it was presumed as self-created and invalid. Inclusion of lower nobility was never even attempted, as that was seen as the task of each country's own nobility or corresponding institution.

Although theoretically mediatized families were distinguished from Europe's other nobility by the former status of their territories as *Reichsstand* and their exercise within the Holy Roman Empire of "semi-sovereignty" or imperial immediacy (*Reichsunmittelbarkeit*), many *Standesherr* families, especially those bearing the comital title, had not been fully recognized as legally possessing immediate status within the Empire prior to its collapse in 1806. No other families whose highest title was count were admitted to any section of the almanac.

The genealogies of Italian noble houses were not included in the Almanach de Gotha. Titular princely counts connected to nominal territories were also excluded from the Gotha since they were not *mediatized* (the members of formerly reigning houses who were reclassified into intermediary princely or princely comital houses). In addition to many families tricked out

with imaginary titles, and thus excluded, there were some authentic families that did not appear for the simple reason that they had refused or omitted to send in an entry.

Many princely or ducal families were listed only in its third, non-dynastic section or were excluded altogether, evoking criticism in the 20th century from such genealogists as Cyril Toumanoff[52], Jean-Engelbert d'Arenberg and William Addams Reitwiesner[53], the latter commenting that the changes displayed "pan-German triumphalism" and even a "fairly nasty bit of Germanic chauvinism." Even in the early 19th century the almanac's retention of deposed dynasties evoked objections, although not necessarily the desired changes.

In the 19th and early 20th centuries, the combined use of specific legal terminology and phrasing allowed Italian registers to inscribe any type of title, foreign or domestic. Registers specifically used very precise words, abbreviations and phrasing to specify the various types of comital rankings, from noble counts up to princely counts. All comital rankings within Italy were registered through the title of "count". Since 1763, the Almanach de Gotha recorded the genealogies of the sovereign houses of Europe and of the mediatized princes and princely counts of Europe and the Holy Roman Empire. However, the genealogies of Italian noble houses were not included in the Almanach de Gotha. Titular princely counts connected to nominal territories were also excluded from the Gotha since they were not *mediatized* (the members of formerly reigning houses who were reclassified into intermediary princely or princely comital houses). Examples of Italian mediatized houses include Orsini, Doria, and Pallavicini. Aristocrats of non-mediatized houses with a line of titular princely counts were registered within their country of origin, and Italian registers were prepared to follow precise legal standards of inscription for the registration of an Austrian princely title of highness. Specifically, a line of titular princely counts of an Italian non-mediatized house had to be officially registered as such: *con D.R. di motupropio dell'anno [with year]* (with royal decree (decreto reale) and with certainty and validity from such year). Followed by, *Il sottodescritto fu elevato alla dignita di conte (masch.): [and then the name of the first princely count of the line]* (by the process of underwriting he has been fully elevated to the dignity of a princely count: [and then the name of the first princely count of the line]). Listing the name of a nominal territory was not required by law.

Since 1841, the Almanach de Gotha  moved the mediatised families of comital rank to section two as well, so making families such as Bentick, Harrach, Fugger, Schonborn-Glauchau,

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[52] **Cyril Leo Heraclius, Prince Toumanoff** (13 October 1913 – 4 February 1997) was a United States-based historian and genealogist who mostly specialized in the history and genealogies of medieval Georgia, Armenia, the Byzantine Empire, and Iran. His works have significantly influenced the Western scholarship of the medieval Caucasus

[53] **William Addams Reitwiesner** (March 8, 1954 – November 12, 2010) was a genealogist who traced the ancestry of United States political figures, European royalty and celebrities

Rosenberg, etc, despite being of lower rank yet holds a degree of sovereignty, are considered equal to marriage purposes with that of reigning families. The Almanach de Gotha made some of the oldest and most noble families such as the Orsinis, Doria-Pamphiljs, Rohans, Colonnas, La Rochefoucaulds, Montmorencys, Czartoryskis, Eltzs, Kinskys, Spencers, Hamiltons, Howards, Percys, Medinacelis, Borgheses and others not mentioned appear to be of lower birth compared to more recent families yet of royal or mediatised rank such as Thurn and Taxises or Bernadottes, some of formerly sovereign families such as the Bagrations, Birons, Boncopagni-Ludovisi did not enjoy the same precedence despite their status of formerly reigning families.

Although at its most extensive the Almanach de Gotha numbered more than 1200 pages, **fewer than half of which were dedicated to monarchical or aristocratic data,** it acquired a reputation for the breadth and precision of its information on royalty and nobility compared to other Almanach's.

## Other mediatized families

Mediatization, defined broadly, is the subsumption of one monarchy into another monarchy in such a way that the ruler of the annexed state keeps his or her sovereign title and, sometimes, a measure of local power. Mediatizations has occurred in a number of other countries: Italy (e.g. Orsini, Doria, Pallavicini), Russia (e.g. Sibirsky, Vorotynsky), and France (e.g. Rohan, de Bouillon and Lorraine) are notable examples. We are mentioning only few of the so many mediatized and non mediatized noble families:



**Juliana of the Netherlands**: Juliana (Juliana Luise Emma Marie Wilhelmina van Oranje-Nassau; 30 April 1909 – 20 March 2004) was Queen of the Kingdom of the Netherlands from her mother's abdication in 1948 to her own in 1980. Born in The Hague, the daughter of Duke Hendrik of Mecklenburg-Scherwin and Queen Wilhelmina of the Netherlands:

Thus the children of Ernst Count zu Lippe-Biesterfeld, though the children of a Count, were called princes, and the son of his second son, Prince Bernhard of Lippe-Biesterfeld, was fit to marry Juliana, Crown Princess, later Queen, of the Netherlands and their eldest daughter, Beatrix, today occupies the Dutch throne.



**Princess Louise, Duchess of Argyll**. The Princess Louise (born Louise Caroline Alberta, also known as Marchioness of Lorne and Duchess of Argyll by marriage; 18 March 1848 – 3 December 1939) was a member of the British Royal Family, the sixth child and fourth daughter of Queen Victoria and her husband, Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha

Queen Victoria allowed her daughter Princess Louise to contract an equal marriage with a non-mediatized noble (the future Duke of Argyll) in 1871, which would have been completely out of the question for a member of any continental sovereign house at that time.

 **Elizabeth Bowes-Lyon. Elizabeth** Bowes-Lyon (Elizabeth Angela Marguerite; 4 August 1900 – 30 March 2002) was Queen of the United Kingdom and the British Dominions from 1936 until 1952 as the wife of King George VI. After her husband's death, she was known as Queen Elizabeth The Queen Mother, to avoid confusion with her daughter, Queen Elizabeth II. She was the last Queen of Ireland and Empress of India

When Elizabeth Bowes-Lyon, another non-mediatized noble, became queen consort of the United Kingdom in 1936 her rank wasn't an issue at all, though it would have been an insurmountable obstacle to her elevation in some European countries

 **Randolph Churchill**. Major Randolph Frederick Edward Spencer Churchill, MBE (May 28, 1911 – June 6, 1968) was the son of British Prime Minister Winston Churchill and his wife Clementine. He was a Conservative Member of Parliament for Preston from 1940 to 1945.

However, it became common in the 19th century for upper-class men to marry women outside this class, stigmatized or not; some, such as Lord Randolph Churchill, married for money, while others, such as the 2nd Lord Berwick (who married his courtesan, Sophia du Bouchet), married for other reasons.

 **Prince Antônio of Orléans-Braganza**. Prince Antônio of Orléans-Braganza (born June 24 1950 in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil), whose baptismal name is Antônio João Maria José Jorge Miguel Gabriel Rafael Gonzaga de Orléans e Bragança e Wittelsbach; English: Anthony John Mary Joseph George Michael Gabriel Raphael Gonzaga of Orleans-Braganza-Wittelsbach is a member of the Imperial House of Brazil,

Married to Princess Christine Marie Elisabeth of Orléans-Braganza, Princess of Ligne, was born on 11 August 1955 in the Château de Belœil, Belgium. She is the daughter of the late Antoine, 13th Prince of Ligne and Princess Alix Marie of Luxembourg. Her father was head of one of Belgium's foremost noble families, mediatized in 1803.

**Crown prince**:

In the Germanic monarchies abolished in 1918, hereditary prince, rather than crown prince, was also the title borne by the heirs apparent of the kingdoms of Bavaria, Hanover, Saxony, and Wurttemberg, as well as those of grand duchies, of sovereign duchies and principalities, and of mediatized princely families.



**Duchess Therese of Mecklenburg-Strelitz**: Duchess Therese of Mecklenburg-Strelitz (; 5 April 1773 12 February 1839) was a member of the House of Mecklenburg-Strelitz and a Duchess of Mecklenburg. Through her marriage to Karl Alexander, 5th Prince of Thurn and Taxis, Therese was also a member of the House of Thurn and Taxis. Therese Mathilde Amalia of Mecklenburg was born in Hanover the daughter of Duke Charles of Mecklenburg

Only with the predictable demise of the Imperial Reichspost, the German Mediatizations of 1803, the mediatization of the Princely House of Thurn and Taxis, and the loss of position of Post Master General in the time of Napoleon I of France, Therese became outwardly politically active, most especially after the death of her father-in-law in 1805.
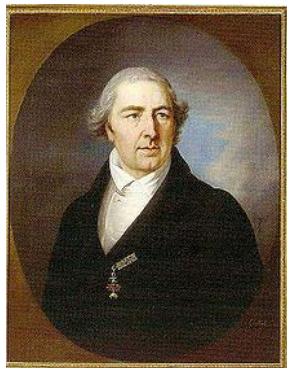


**Karl Alexander, 5th Prince of Thurn and Taxis**: Karl Alexander, Prince of Thurn and Taxis, full German name: Karl Alexander Fürst von Thurn und Taxis (born 22 February 1770 in the Imperial City of Regensburg, Holy Roman Empire; died 15 July 1827 at Schloss Taxis in Dischingen, Kingdom of Württemberg) was the fifth Prince of Thurn and Taxis, head of the Thurn-und-Taxis-Post, and Head of the Princely House of Thurn and Taxis from 13 November 1805.

According to the Confederation of the Rhine Act, agreed upon between Napoleon I of France and the Confederation of the Rhine princes, the Principality of Thurn and Taxis lost its independence and was mediatised in 1806.

**Royal and noble ranks**: Traditional ranks among European royalty, peers, and nobility are rooted in Late Antiquity and the Middle Ages. Although they vary over time and between geographic regions (for example, one region's prince might be equal to another's grand duke).

Thus, any sovereign ruler would be higher than any formerly sovereign, i.e. mediatized, family of any rank (thus, the Fürst of Waldeck, sovereign until 1918, was higher than the Duke of Arenberg, mediatized).

**Frederick of Württemberg**. Frederick I (; November 6, 1754 – October 30, 1816) was the first King of Württemberg. He was known for his size, 2.11 m (6 ft 11 in) and about 200 kg (441 lb/30 st 7 lb), which put him in contrast to Napoleon who recognized him as King of Württemberg. Born in Treptow, Frederick was the eldest son of Duke Friedrich Eugen of Württemberg and Sophia Dorothea of Brandenburg-Schwedt.

Once again, the assumption of a new title also meant territorial expansion, as the territories of various nearby princes were mediatized and annexed by Württemberg.

**Counts of Castell**: The family appears already in 1057 with Robbrath de Castello. The County of Castell was created in AD1200, in the modern region of Franconia in northern Bavaria, Germany. Rulership of Castell was shared between the brothers Louis and Rupert II in 1223, and later with the brothers Albert II, Frederick II and Henry I in 1235.

The family was mediatized in 1806 and 1815, however without loss of its equal-to-royal rank, its two states incorporated into Bavaria.

**Royal and noble styles**: Styles represent the fashion by which monarchs and noblemen are properly addressed. Throughout history, many different styles were used, with little standardization. This page will detail the various styles used by royalty and nobility in Europe, in the final form arrived at in the nineteenth century.

Mediatized dukes and reigning and mediatized princes (Fürsten) bear the style of Serene Highness (HSH,), as do other members of princely families

# ROYAL HOUSES

A **royal house** or **royal** dynasty consists of at least one, but usually more monarchs who are related to one another, as well as their non-reigning descendants and spouses. Monarchs of the same realm who are not related to one another are usually deemed to belong to different houses, and each house is designated by a name which distinguishes it from other houses. Strictly, a "royal house" is a dynasty whose members reign while bearing the title of king or queen, although it has become common to refer to any family which legally exercises sovereignty by hereditary right as a royal family, and its members as "royalty" or (colloquially) "royals". Historically, ruling families often consist of a senior and several junior branches, which are akin, but may have diverged, in descent from a common ancestor many generations ago. The name used to refer to a royal house may or may not also be used by its members as a surname. Rather, members of dynasties are usually referred to by their titles, which may or may not also be hereditary.

Historically royal intermarriage has often brought multiple thrones to a sovereign's family. Sometimes appanages[54] granted to cadet branches[55] have become the nucleus of an independent monarchy—or an incentive to acquire one. Members of the same patrilineage[56] may therefore come to rule entirely different countries and espouse national loyalties or cultural ties to nations other than the one ruled by the first monarch in the family—yet they

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[54] An **appanage** or **apanage** is the grant of an estate, titles, offices, or other things of value to the younger male children of a sovereign, who would otherwise have no inheritance under the system of primogeniture. It was common in much of Europe.

[55] In history and heraldry, a **cadet branch** consists of the male-line descendants of a monarch or patriarch's younger son (cadet). In the ruling dynasties and noble families of much of Europe and Asia, the family's major assets – realm, titles, fiefs, property and income – have historically been passed from a father to his firstborn son in what is known as primogeniture: Younger sons – cadets – inherited less wealth and authority to pass to future generations of descendants.

[56] **Patrilineality** (or *agnatic kinship*) is a system in which one belongs to one's father's lineage.It generally involves the inheritance of property, names or titles through the male line as well.

may still acknowledge bonds based on membership in the same dynasty (e.g. Bourbon Family Compact), and may still inherit thrones or bequeath assets based upon that kinship, sometimes centuries later.

While most realms have, in the documented past, calculated membership in the royal house as descending through the male line (sometimes allowing females to inherit and sometimes not), most European monarchies have now constitutionally eliminated preference in the line of succession to the throne for males (Sweden, The Netherlands, Belgium, Denmark), and some non-European royal families have contemplated doing so (Japan, Thailand). It has long been the case that royal houses sometimes continue in the female line of descent, although that most often occurred after the dynastic male line was genealogically exhausted (e.g. Habsburg, Orange-Nassau, Romanov, Grimaldi).

Royal house names in <u>Europe</u> were therefore generally taken from the father; in cases where a queen regnant married a prince of another house, their children (and therefore subsequent monarchs) belonged to the house of the prince consort. Thus Queen Victoria belonged to the House of Hanover, but her male-line descendants belong to the house of her husband Albert, which is Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, a branch of the House of Wettin. The name was changed to Windsor in 1917.

Nevertheless, this rule had several exceptions in other countries: After the marriage of the then Archduchess Maria Theresa of the House of Habsburg in the 18th century to a Lorraine prince, her issue took the name *Habsburg-Lorraine* in order to closely associate themselves with the previous Habsburg dynasty. As mentioned, Portugal deemed the issue of Queen Maria II of Portugal and Prince Consort (later King) Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha to be solely members of the Braganza, and the dynasty name, as opposed to Braganza-Saxe-Coburg and Gotha.

In Russia, the death of Empress Elisabeth brought the House of Romanov to an end patrilineal. However, the Empress designated her nephew, Duke Peter-Ulrich of Holstein-Gottorp from the House of Oldenburg, as heir to the throne. After his accession, the House name of Romanov was retained, despite the fact that Peter III inherited the crown from his maternal aunt.

More recently, in the 20th century, the children of regnant females in the Netherlands and Luxembourg have retained their maternal house affiliation, and in the United Kingdom, Queen Elizabeth II's descendants by her husband, Prince Philip of Greece and Denmark, remain *Windsor* by letters patent, although Prince Phillip was of the House of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg and later surnamed "Mountbatten".

Another way in which the royal house of a given country may change is when a foreign prince is invited to fill a vacant throne or a next-of-king from a foreign house succeeds. This occurred

with the death of childless Queen Anne of the House of Stuart: she was succeeded by a prince of the House of Hanover who was her nearest Protestant[57] relative.

**Equal marriages**

During the monarchy and for a number of decades afterwards to have the right of succession members of the House of Habsburg had to be born of an equal marriage. For a marriage of a member of the Imperial Family to be equal the spouse had to belong to one of the following: the Imperial Family of Austria-Hungary, a fellow ruling Christian royal family or a mediatised family. A family Statute introduced in 1900 further increased the pool of eligible partners by stating members of non-mediatised families which can prove they are belong to an ancient noble lineage, have a certain number of noble quarters and have held a noble fief for at least 300 years also met equality requirements for marriage into the Imperial Family.

Around the time of the marriage of Archduke Karl in 1993 to Baroness Francesca Thyssen-Bornemisza[58], who did not meet the old equality requirements, the rules regarding equal marriages were relaxed. Currently for a marriage to be dynastic all that is needed is the consent of the head of the house and a religious marriage. On 30 November 1990 the head of the house Crown Prince Otto granted the title Count or Countess von Habsburg to the issue of morganatic marriages.

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[57] **Protestantism** is one of the major divisions within Christianity. It has been defined as "any of several church denominations denying the universal authority of the Pope and affirming the Reformation principles of justification by faith alone, the priesthood of all believers, and the primacy of the Bible as the only source of revealed truth" and, more broadly, to mean Christianity outside "of an Orthodox or Catholic church".

[58] **Francesca von Habsburg-Lothringen** (born 7 June 1958) is an art collector and the wife of Karl Habsburg-Lothringen, head of the House of Habsburg-Lorraine. She was born as **Francesca Anne Dolores Freiin Thyssen-Bornemisza de Kászon et Impérfalva** in Lausanne the daughter of Baron Hans Heinrich Thyssen-Bornemisza and his third wife, fashion model Fiona Frances Elaine Campbell-Walter.

# MORGANATIC MARRIAGES



James, *Duke of York, son of* King Charles I. with his first wife Anne Hyde. *James made one of his first scandals at the court when he announced his engagement to Anne Hyde, a commoner, in those times it was difficult to wonder a royal prince marrying a commoner, however the morganatic marriage did not exist at those times in England (In fact Henry VIII married several commoners).*

## History

The *morning gift* has been a customary property arrangement for marriage presents first in early medieval German cultures (such as Langobards[59]) and also of ancient Germanic tribes and the church drove its adoption into other countries in order to improve the wife's security by this *additional* benefit. The bride received a settled property from the bridegroom's clan — it was intended to ensure her livelihood in widowhood, and it was to be kept separate as the wife's discrete possession. However, when a marriage contract is made wherein the bride and the children of the marriage will not receive anything else (than the dower) from the bridegroom or from his inheritance or clan, that sort of marriage was dubbed as "marriage with only the dower and no other inheritance", i.e. *matrimonium ad morganaticum*.

The practice of morganatic marriage was most common in the German-speaking parts of Europe, where equality of birth between the spouses was considered an important principle

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[59] The **Lombards** (Latin *Langobardi*, whence the alternative names **Langobards** and **Longobards**) were a Germanic people originally from Northern Europe who settled in the valley of the Danube and from there invaded Byzantine Italy in 568 under the leadership of Alboin. They established a Kingdom of Italy which lasted until 774, when it was conquered by the Franks. Their influence on Italian political geography is plainly visible in the regional appellation Lomba rdy.

among the reigning houses and high nobility. The German name was *Ehe zur linken Hand* (marriage by the left hand) and the husband gave his left hand during the wedding ceremony instead of the right.

Morganatic marriage is not, and has not been, possible in jurisdictions that do not allow for the required freedom of contracting with regard to the marriage contract, as it is an agreement containing that pre-emptive limitation to the inheritance and property rights of the spouse and the children.

There has never been morganatic marriage in France and morganatic marriage never existed in French laws. Equality of birth is not so important in France because antiquity of nobility in the male line is only taken into account: a Frenchman should have *cent ans de noblesse* (100 years in the male line) to become a Knight of Malta[60]. A German should have *quatre quartiers de noblesse* (all four grandparents being noble) for the same purpose.

In the context of European royalty, a **morganatic marriage** is a marriage between people of unequal social rank, which prevents the passage of the husband's titles and privileges to the wife and any children born of the marriage. Now rare, it is also known as a left-handed marriage because in the wedding ceremony the groom traditionally held his bride's right hand with his left hand instead of his right.

Generally, this is a marriage between a man of high birth (such as from a reigning, deposed or mediatised dynasty), and a woman of lesser status (such as a daughter of a low-ranked noble family or a commoner). Usually, neither the bride nor any children of the marriage has a claim on the bridegroom's succession rights, titles, precedence, or entailed property. The children are considered legitimate for all other purposes and the prohibition against bigamy applies. It is also possible for a woman to marry a man of lower rank morganatically.

After World War I the heads of both ruling and formerly reigning dynasties initially continued the practice of rejecting dynastic titles and/or rights for descendants of "morganatic" unions, but gradually allowed them, sometimes retroactively, effectively de-morganatizing the wives and children. This was accommodated by Perthe's *Almanach de Gotha* (which categorized princely families by rank until it ceased publication after 1944) by inserting the offspring of such marriages in a third section of the almanac under entries denoted by a symbol (a dot within a circle) that "signifies some princely houses which, possessing no specific princely

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[60] The **Knights Hospitaller** (also known as the *Sovereign Order of Saint John of Jerusalem of Rhodes and of Malta*, *Knights of Malta*, *Knights of Rhodes*, and *Chevaliers of Malta*; French: ***Ordre des Hospitaliers***) is a Christian organization that began as an Amalfitan hospital founded in Jerusalem in 1080 to provide care for poor and sick pilgrims to the Holy Land. After the Christian conquest of Jerusalem in 1099 during the First Crusade it became a religious/military order under its own charter, and was charged with the care and defense of the Holy Land. Following the loss of the Holy Land by Christian forces, the Order operated from Rhodes, over which it was sovereign, and later from Malta where it administered a vassal state under the Spanish viceroy of Sicily.

patent[61], have passed from the first part, A, or from the second part into the third part in virtue of special agreements."The *Fürstliche*[62] *Häuser* series of the *Genealogisches Handbuch des Adels* has followed this lead, likewise enrolling some issue of unapproved marriages in its third section, "III B", with a similar explanation (*Die in dieser Abteilung nachgewiesenen Familien besitzen kein besonderes Diplom, sondern sind nach besonderer Ubereinkunft aus der 1 und 2 Abteilung ubernommen worden*).

Variations of morganatic marriage were also practiced by non-European dynasties, such as the Royal Family of Thailand, the polygamous Mongols as to their non-principal wives, and other families of Africa and Asia.

Morganatic marriage is not, and has not been, possible in jurisdictions that do not permit restrictive encumbrances with regard to the marriage contract, as it is an agreement containing a pre-emptive limitation to the inheritance and property rights of the spouse and the children.

Back to the 19th century, it goes without saying that matrimony was a very serious matter, especially in relation to the Royal Houses of Europe, and more particularly in Victorian England, centered round the Royal Court of Her Britannic Majesty Queen Victoria of Great Britain and Ireland, Empress of India.

Historically, we understand that Her Majesty's most fervent wish for her Royal brood was to marry for love, presumably in the hope that they would excel in connubial bliss not unlike that which she had experienced with her "Dearest Albert!"

### German-speaking Europe

The practice of morganatic marriage was most common in the German-speaking parts of Europe, where equality of birth (*Ebenbürtigkeit*) between the spouses was considered an important principle among the reigning houses and high nobility. The German name was *Ehe zur linken Hand* ("marriage by the left hand") and the husband gave his left hand during the wedding ceremony instead of the right.

The origin of morganatic marriage may have been related to the succession laws of Germany. During the Middle Ages, the territories of the German nobility were divided equally among

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[61] **Letters patent** (no singular form exists)[1] are a type of legal instrument in the form of a published written order issued by a <u>monarch</u> or <u>president</u>, generally granting an office, right, monopoly, title, or status to a person or corporation. They are so named from the Latin verb *pateo*, to lie open, exposed, accessible. The originator's seal was attached *pendent* from the document, so that it did not have to be broken in order for the document to be read.

[62] *Fürst* (German pronunciation: from Old High German *furisto*, "first", a translation of the Latin *princeps*; plural: *Fürsten*) is a German title of nobility, usually translated into English as *prince*.

the males of their families. Morganatic marriages limited the pool of potential heirs, slowing diminution of the family's power.

The origin of morganatic marriage may have been related to the succession laws of Germany. During the Middle Ages, the territories of the German nobility were divided equally among the males of their families. Morganatic marriages limited the pool of potential heirs, slowing diminution of the family's power.



Perhaps the most famous example in modern times was the 1900 marriage of the heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary, **Archduke Franz Ferdinand**, and Bohemian aristocrat Countess Sophie Chotek von Chotkowa. The marriage was initially resisted by Emperor Franz Joseph I, but after pressure from family members and other European rulers, he relented in 1899 (but did not attend the wedding himself). The bride was made Princess (later Duchess) of Hohenberg, their children took their mother's new name and rank, and were excluded from the imperial succession. The Sarajevo, Bosnia, assassination in June 28, 1914, in which the couple was killed, triggered the First World War.

By the death of the crown prince, Rudolph, a most difficult situation arose. The difficulties of this situation considerably increased since the presumptive heir to the empire, the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, made the morganatic love marriage in July 1900 with the Princess Hohenberg, formerly Countess Chotek. He thereby increased the difficulties of the critical situation arising from his successor-ship to the throne. The empire of Austria would on his accession receive an emperor, but no empress. Sophia Chotek was the daughter of Count Chotek of Chotkowa and Wognin and Countess Minzie Kinsky, consequently of ancient, impoverished Bohemian nobility but not of the blood royal, so she could not share the throne.

Neither the laws of the house of Hapsburg nor the Archduke's solemn renunciation of all claims to the crown by the children of his marriage with the Countess Chotek could prevent Hungary from acknowledging her as their lawful queen, and crowning her as such. The Princess Hohenberg was not only decidedly Clerical, but also a fervently patriotic Czech in her sentiments. The Emperor of Austria was, at the same time, King of Bohemia, although Francis Joseph, to the disappointment of the Czechs, had always declined to be crowned as such in Prague.

By his marriage with the Countess Chotek, which he finally achieved after a long and difficult struggle, in spite of the vehement opposition of the Emperor and the Court in general, the Archduke showed that he was capable of obstinacy not only in political matters but also in regard to his personal affairs, even when in conflict with the most powerful man in the Empire. Although this alliance was dangerous and regrettable from a political point of view, because it was calculated to render Austrian politics, already difficult and complicated

enough, more confused than ever, yet, judged from the other, the human standpoint, it did great credit to the Archduke's constancy and will-power.

## Elizaveta Petrovna, daughter of Peter II of Russia



*Elizaveta Petrovna, daughter of Peter II of Russia.*
*She had a morganatic marriage Count Alexei Grigorievich Razumovsky, he became known as the 'Night Emperor' because of its secrecy.*

**Count Alexei Grigorievich Razumovsky** was a Ukrainian Cossack who rose to become lover and, eventually, the morganatic spouse of the Russian Empress Elizaveta Petrovna.

**Oleksiy Rozum** was born on March 17, 1709. On the farm Lemeshi near Chernihiv in the family of a registered Ukrainian Cossack, Hryhory Rozum. In his youth he was a shepherd; then he was taught to read and write by the rural sexton. Having a fine voice he sang in the choir at the village church. In 1731, Colonel Vyshnevsky, one of empress Anna Ivanovna's courtiers, while passing through the village on his way back to the Russian capital from a mission to Hungary, was wonder-struck with his vocal ability, and took him to St. Petersburg where he joined the choir of the Ukrainian palace chapel.

The beauty and talent of Razumovsky captivated Elizabeth Petrovna who took him to the imperial court in 1732. Upon deportation of Elizabeth's minion Aleksey Shubin, Razumovsky replaced him as tsesarevna's favorite. After losing his voice, he was accepted in the post of the court bandura[63] player, and then the manager of one of her mansions. He received the rank of the hof-quartermeister; and actually supervised Elizabeth's court. During the period of Anna Leopoldovna's reign he was made a Kamer-Junker[64].



Razumovsky played an important role in the palace revolution on November 25–26. in 1741, which brought about Elizabeth Petrovna's

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[63] **Bandura** refers to a Ukrainian plucked string folk instrument. It combines elements of a box zither and lute, as well as its lute-like predecessor, the kobza. It typically has 30 to 68 strings.

[64] **Kamer-Junker** (cf. German *Kammerjunker*) was a courtier title defined in the Table of Ranks, generally equating to valet de chambre or Groom of the Chamber.

accession to the throne. On November 30 he was accepted in the valid chamberlains as a general-lieutenant. On the coronation day 1742) he was made a Hofmarschall[65]. Other honours bestowed on him included Order of Saint Andrew and St. Alexander Nevsky, as well as numerous estates in Moscow and elsewhere.

It has been speculated that he secretly married Elizabeth Petrovna in a rural church of Perovo (now a part of Moscow) in the autumn 1742, earning him the nickname of "the Emperor of the Night." Two years later in 1744 he received the comital title (Reichsgraf[66], рейхграф in Russian) from the Holy Roman emperor Charles VII; and he was made count in Russia the same year. In 1745 he became the captain-lieutenant of the life-guards, and in 1748 he became the lieutenant-colonel of life-guards. On September 5 he received the rank of Field Marshal.

During Elizabeth Petrovna's reign he kept an exclusive position at court (though in his last years he was rivaled by the younger Ivan Shuvalov); in 1744 the empress even visited his native village and made acquaintance with all his family. Razumovsky's apartments in the Summer Palace directly adjoined to Elizabeth's apartments, and he had constant access to her. Under his influence the court had a passion for music and singing.

Razumovsky was not interested in politics, although he quite often supported Chancellor Aleksei Petrovich Bestuzhev-Ryumin. On his advice the office of Ukrainian hetman was restored; and his younger brother Kirill Razumovsky was made a hetman and president of the Russian Academy of Sciences.

Before her death, the empress made her successor Peter III[67] promise not to offend her former favorites. In 1762 Razumovsky submitted his resignation and moved from the Winter

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[65] The **Hofmarschall** (plural: Hofmarschälle) was the administrative official in charge of a princely German court, supervising all its economic affairs. Historically, every civil service was regarded as court service (e.g. the Russian nobility is even now called the "*Dvoryanstvo*", i.e. courtiers), though today high officials in the royal courts that still exist frequently use titles like marshal, chancellor or minister which in other countries are now only used by the civil administration or the military. A Hofmarschall always belonged to the nobility or was a retired high-ranking military officer of Major General Rank or above.

[66] A *Reichsgraf* was a nobleman whose title of *count* was conferred or confirmed by the Holy Roman Emperor, and meant "Imperial Count" i.e. a count of the Holy Roman Empire. Since the feudal era any count whose territory lay within the Empire and was under the immediate jurisdiction of the Emperor with a shared vote in the Reichstag came to be considered a member of the "upper nobility" (*Hochadel*) in Germany, along with princes (*Fürsten*), dukes (*Herzöge*), electors, and the emperor himself.[2] A count who was not a *Reichsgraf* was apt to possess only a "mediate" fief (*Afterlehen*) — he was subject to an immediate prince of the empire, such as a duke or elector.

[67] **Peter III** (21 February 1728 – 17 July [O.S. 6 July] 1762) was Emperor of Russia for six months in 1762. He was very pro-Prussian, which made him an unpopular leader. He was likely assassinated as a result of a conspiracy led by his wife, who succeeded him to the throne as Catherine II.

Palace to Anichkov Palace presented to him by Elizabeth. After Catherine II's[68] accession to the throne he refused the title of highness that was offered to him. On the Empress' request he destroyed all documents about his marriage with Elizabeth. He died on July 6, 1771 in St.Petersburg and was buried in the Annunciation Cathedral of the Alexandro-Nevskaya Lavra.

## Morganatic issue

Although the issue of morganatic marriages was ineligible to succeed to their families' respective thrones, some children of morganatic marriages did go on to achieve dynastic success elsewhere in Europe The 1851 marriage of Prince Alexander of Hesse and by Rhine and German-Polish noblewoman Countess Julia von Hauke (created Princess of Battenberg), provided a sovereign prince of Bulgaria, and queen-consorts for Spain and Sweden, as well as (through female descent) the consort of the current Queen of the United Kingdom. The present Spanish Royal Family and members of the British Royal Family, including the current Prince of Wales, trace descent from her. Likewise, the marriage of Duke Alexander of Württemberg and Claudine Rhédey von Kis-Rhéde (created "Countess of Hohenstein") resulted in the morganatic House of Teck. That family's most famous member, Mary of Teck, married George V of the United Kingdom, and the present British Royal Family descends from her.

Occasionally, children of morganatic marriages have overcome their non-dynastic origins, succeeding to their family's realms. Margrave Leopold inherited the throne of Baden despite being born of a morganatic marriage. The son of Karl Friedrich, Grand Duke of Baden by his second, wife Luise Karoline Geyer von Geyersberg, who belonged to the minor nobility, only became a Prince in 1817 (aged 27), as part of a new law of succession. Baden's grand ducal family faced extinction, so Leopold was enfranchised by international treaty and married to a princess, ascending the throne in 1830. His descendants ruled the grand duchy until the abolition of the monarchy in 1918.

Other reigning German families adopted similar approaches when facing a lack of male heirs. In 1896 the Princely House of Schwarzburg, with the Sondershausen branch numbering two elderly childless princes and Rudolstadt just one childless prince, recognized Prince Sizzo von Leutenberg, morganatic son of Friedrich Günther, Prince of Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, as a Prince of Schwarzburg and heir to the two principalities.

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[68] **Yekaterina Alexeevna** or **Catherine II**, also known as **Catherine the Great** (Russian: Екатерина II Великая, *Yekaterina II Velikaya*), Empress of Russia (May 2 [O.S. April 21] 1729 – November 17 [O.S. November 6] 1796), was the most renowned and the longest-ruling female leader of Russia, reigning from July 9 [O.S. June 28] 1762 until her death at the age of sixty-seven. She was born in Stettin, Pomerania, Prussia as *Sophie Friederike Auguste von Anhalt-Zerbst-Dornburg*, and came to power following a *coup d'état* and the assassination of her husband, Peter III, at the end of the Seven Years' War. Russia was revitalized under her reign, growing larger and stronger than ever and becoming recognized as one of the great powers of Europe.

The senior line of the dynasty ruling the Principality of Lippe bordered on extinction as the 20th century approached, prompting a succession dispute between the Lippe-Biesterfeld and Schaumburg-Lippe branches of the dynasty which evoked international intervention and troop movements. It centered on whether some ancestress of the Biesterfeld branch had been legally dynastic; if so, that line stood next to inherit the princely crown according to primogeniture. If not, the Biesterfelds would be deemed morganatic and the Schaumburg-Lippes would mount the throne. Lippe's Parliament was blocked from voting on the matter by the German Empire's Diet, which instead created a panel of jurists selected by the King of Saxony to evaluate the evidence concerning the historical marital rules of the House of Lippe and render a decision in the matter, all parties agreeing to abide by their judgment. In 1897 and 1905 panels ruled in favor of the dynasty of the challenged ancestress and their descendants, based largely on the fact that, although neither had been of dynastic rank, the Lippes had historically accepted such marriages when approved by the Head of House.

In the late 19th and early 20th centuries, a few families considered morganatic in Germany were considered for crowns elsewhere, constituting unexpected rehabilitation of their status. The first of these was Prince Alexander of Battenberg who, in 1877, was agreed upon by the Great Powers as the best candidate for the new throne of Bulgaria. He was, however, unable to hold onto his crown, nor able to obtain the hand in marriage of Princess Victoria of Prussia despite the efforts of her imperial mother and royal grandmother.

Wilhelm, Duke of Urach (1864–1928), whose father was the morganatic son of a Württemberg prince, had the distinction of being under consideration for the crowns of five realms at different times: that of the Kingdom of Württemberg in the 1890s, as the senior agnate by primogeniture when it became likely that King William II would die without male descendants, leaving as heir Duke Albrecht of Württemberg, a more distantly related, albeit dynastic, royal kinsman; the Principality of Albania in 1913; the Principality of Monaco at turn of the 20th century, as the next heir by proximity of blood following the Hereditary Prince Louis, until the Monaco succession crisis of 1918 was resolved as the First World War ended; the prospective Grand Duchy of Alsace-Lorraine in 1917,[12] and his abortive election by the *Taryba* as King Mindaugugas II of Lithuania in July 1918. In the event, Duke Wilhelm obtained none of these thrones.

Relying upon the *Almanach de Gotha* to gazette dynastic events, Germany's deposed heads of state continued to notify its editors of changes in family members' status and traditional titles. In 1919 the morganatic wife and children of Prince Oskar of Prussia, the counts and countesses von Ruppin, were upgraded to princes and princesses of Prussia by the exiled Kaiser Wilhelm II. In 1928 Georg, Count von Carlow, morganatic son of Duke George Alexander of Mecklenburg and commoner Natalia Vanljarskaya, became a duke of Mecklenburg and heir to his uncle Duke Charles Michael. In 1949, and again in 1999, various morganatic members of the Bavarian Royal House were recognized as princes and princesses of Bavaria, with the current head of the house, Franz, Duke of Bavaria, being among the

beneficiaries of his father's ruling, having been born of a marriage initially deemed morganatic.

In the former Royal Family of Saxony Maria Emanuel, Margrave of Meissen adopted and designated as his heir his nephew Alexander de Afif, thus bypassing his agnatic cousin's morganatic son, Ruediger von Sachsen, and his three sons.

## The United Kingdom

Marriages have never been considered morganatic in any part of the United Kingdom. The Royal Marriages Act of 1772 made it illegal for any member of the British royal family to marry without the permission of the sovereign. A marriage contracted without the sovereign's consent might be lawful in the eyes of the church, but the children born of it could not inherit any claim to the throne: thus the official denial of the marriage of George, Prince of Wales (later George IV) and Mrs. Fitzherbert, and the refusal of Victoria to the marriage of the second Duke of Cambridge, whose morganatic wife, Sarah Louisa Fairbrother was refused the title of Duchess, but was received everywhere as "Mrs. Fitz George".

The marriage of King Edward VIII and Wallis Simpson was not to be morganatic, although Edward had proposed this expediency to Prime Minister Stanley Baldwin, who rejected the idea after consultations with the governments of the Dominions. Ultimately, Edward renounced all of his titles for himself and successors when he *abdicated*, and was created Duke of Windsor. When they married, his wife became Duchess, and any male children would have inherited the title. The *style* H.R.H. (Her Royal Highness) is in the sovereign's gift, though it is normally conferred as a matter of course. But it was specifically not granted to Wallis Simpson. As it happened, they had no children.



Upon the engagement of Charles, Prince of Wales and Camilla Parker Bowles in February 2005, it was announced that, after the marriage, Mrs Parker Bowles would take the title Her Royal Highness The Duchess of Cornwall, and that once the Prince accedes to the throne she would not be known as Queen Camilla but as Her Royal Highness The Princess Consort. This form of address is based on that used by Queen Victoria's husband, Prince Albert, who was the Prince Consort.

This is similar to a morganatic marriage in that the wife does not apparently acquire her husband's rank and titles. However, such a marriage cannot be considered to be morganatic for two reasons: firstly, the decision has not been based upon Mrs. Parker Bowles's social rank, but upon her marital status; secondly, this decision does not have any legal standing — although she has stated that she will not use the title (due to the sensitivity of some of the British public regarding her role in the breakup of Prince Charles's first marriage to Diana,

Princess of Wales[69]), under United Kingdom law, Mrs Parker Bowles legally became the Princess of Wales upon her marriage to Prince Charles. Similarly, upon Charles's accession she will automatically become Queen Consort, not Princess Consort.

For precedent, compare the case of Queen Caroline, who became Queen Consort in the face of vociferous protests from her estranged husband, King George IV, who then introduced a parliamentary bill to divorce and strip her of her title: this failed in the face of opposition from the London mob.

There is no legal reason why a Princess of Wales or a Queen Consort cannot choose to be known by a lesser style and title than she has. A similar recent instance is the decision that the daughter of the Earl of Wessex would be known simply as Lady Louise Windsor rather than the HRH Princess Louise of Wessex. It was acknowledged however that Lady Louise would be free to assume the higher (and correct) style and title upon reaching adulthood.

Notwithstanding the above, there may have been at least one morganatic marriage or its resemblance in the British royalty. Catherine of Valois, dowager queen of Henry V, is said to have entered into such a union with Owen Tudorabout or before the year 1429, or they never married. (Their eldest child, Edmund Tudor, was the father of Henry VII.)

A situation that resembles the morganatic marriage may be caused by application of the Royal Marriages Act: a couple lives together, wanting to believe they are married, but dynastically they are not and British law does not recognize them as married.

A case has been that of the second marriage of Augustus, Duke of Sussex, sixth son of George III of Great Britain, who undertook altogether two marriages against the provisions of the Act, thus being invalid on British soil. However, his second marriage with Letitia Underwood was tolerated by Queen Victoria. Presumably, in the eyes of law, the Duke was never in marriage with Letitia. Had it been otherwise, she would have been the Duchess of Sussex. Queen Victoria created her Duchess of Inverness and the duke and duchess cohabited, being socially regarded as spouses. If the situation is interpreted in a way that their marriage was valid, then the Queen's actions would mean that it was morganatic and that the only titles and rights Letitia was entitled to be those specifically granted to her, but not those of the duke.

Queen Victoria's great-niece Philately, daughter of the Pretender to the Alsatian Throne, was betrothed in the 1880s to Sub-lieutenant Morgan Mudburn, a sanitation engineer attached to Lord Fauntleroy's Army of the Isthmus on its punitive expedition to the Orkneys. She had made a dubious choice of husbands: Sub-Lt. Mudburn was not only a commoner but also a kleptomaniac, a barbershop-quartet tenor—and a rotter: before the bans could be read,

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[69] **Diana, Princess of Wales** (Diana Frances;[née Spencer; 1 July 1961 – 31 August 1997) was the first wife of Charles, Prince of Wales. Her two sons, Princes William and Harry, are second and third in line to the thrones of the United Kingdom and 15 other Commonwealth Realms.

Mudburn married Philately's younger sister, the Infanta Cormena II of Spain. Philately's alienation-of-affections suit entangled Great Britain and Spain in a tense political imbroglio that ended only when she settled the suit ex judicia in exchange for a lifetime supply of pedigreed Pekingese dogs. Whistler's portrait of her as the Dowager Duchess of Plinth shows a preoccupied elderly lady of royal bearing, brushing, brushing, brushing away dog hairs from her formal gown of black bombazine.

**Prince Perry, the Duke of Cakewalk,** Second Baron of Dullsmere, Keeper of the Royal Time and His Majesty's High Victualer of the Channel Ports (the latter purely honorary titles), married his footman's daughter in 1719, scandalizing the Court. The wedding took place in the bride's father's tannery in Elephant's Castle, not closed down for the occasion, owing to the father's fierce disapproval of the monarchy: he was a Rosicrucian, fourth level. The couple is perhaps best remembered today for trading their first three sons, Rex, Lex, and Tex, to a traveling Persian circus for two camels and a ton of nutmeg.

**The Royal Wedding of Princess Victoria Mary of Teck to the Duke of York (later George V.**

Princess Victoria Mary of Teck (1867-1953) was the daughter of the Duke of Teck and Princess Mary of Cambridge. Although formally known as 'Princess Victoria Mary', to her family, and even the press, she was affectionately known to all by the month of her birth – May. Her mother, Mary, was a first cousin of Queen Victoria – the grandmother of the future King George V. Although her father, Francis, was the first Duke of Teck, his parents' morganatic marriage meant that he was not entitled to his father's privileges or title. May's parents had so little money that they were heavily reliant on the generosity of their prominent cousin. Despite being the daughter of a German duke, May was raised in England, and after spending eighteen months studying in Florence, the bookish princess returned to London for her social debut.

Like the earlier royal bride, Catherine of Aragon, May was first engaged to the older brother of her eventual husband. And like Diana Spencer nearly a century later, May was recommended for the role of royal bride by a member of the royal family. In this case, it was her mother's cousin, the Queen. Victoria believed May would make a suitable wife for her grandson and eventual heir to the throne, Albert Victor (Eddy), the Duke of Clarence and Avondale. Although she barely knew him and he was not very attractive, the impecunious May could not refuse when Eddy proposed in 1891. Tragically, he succumbed to a flu epidemic a few weeks later, and, within days, died of pneumonia. Instead of carrying it down the aisle, May laid her "redundant bridal bouquet of orange blossom on Eddy's coffin." (Nicholson, p. 28)

Victoria, who was devastated by the loss of Eddy and by the tragic end to her wedding plans, encouraged Eddy's younger brother, George, then Duke of York, to comfort the bereaved May. Just five months after his brother's death, George proposed. Again, May agreed – despite not knowing George very well at all.

On the 6th July 1893 the 28 year old George and his 26 year old bride married in the small Chapel Royal in St James's Palace, where the Queen herself had married Albert in 1840.

**France**
Morganatic marriage was not recognized in French law. Since the law did not distinguish, for marital purposes, between ruler and subjects, historically marriages between royalty and the noble heiresses to great fiefs became the norm, helping to aggrandize the House of Capet while gradually diminishing the number of large domains held in theoretical vassalage by nobles who were, in practice, virtually independent of the French crown. Lands mattered more than title.

Antiquity of nobility in the legitimate male line, not noble quartering, was the main criterion of rank in the *ancien régime*. Unlike the status of a British peer's wife and descendants (yet typical of the nobility of every continental European country), the legitimate children and male-line descendants of any French nobleman (whether titled or not, whether possessing a French peerage or not) were also legally noble *ad infinitum*. Rank was not based on hereditary titles, which were often assumed or acquired by purchase of a noble estate rather than granted

by the Crown. Rather, the main determinant of relative rank among the French nobility was how far back the nobility of a family's male line could be verifiably traced. Other factors influencing rank included the family's history of military command, high-ranking offices held at court and marriages into other high-ranking families. A specific exception was made for bearers of the title of duke who, regardless of their origin, outranked all other nobles. But the ducal title in post-medieval France (even when embellished with the still higher status of "peer") ranked its holder and his family among France's nobility and not, as in Germany and Scandinavia (and, occasionally, Italy, viz. Savoy, Medici, Este, della Rovere, Farnese and Cybo-Malaspina) among Europe's reigning dynasties which habitually intermarried with one another.

Once the Bourbons inherited the throne of France from the House of Valois in 1589, their dynasts married daughters of even the oldest ducal families of France — let alone noblewomen of lower rank — quite rarely (viz., Anne de Montafié in 1601, Charlotte Marguerite de Montmorency in 1609 and, in exile from revolutionary France, Maria Caterina Brignole in 1798). Exceptions were made for equal royal intermarriage with the *princes étrangers* and, by royal command, with the so-called *princes légitimés* (i.e. out-of-wedlock but legitimised descendants of Henry IV and Louis XIV), as well as with the nieces of Cardinal-prime ministers (i.e. Richelieu, Mazarin). Just as the French king could authorize a royal marriage that would otherwise have been deemed unsuitable, by 1635 it had been established by Louis XIII that the king could also legally void the canonically valid, equal marriage of a French dynast to which he had not given consent (e.g. Marguerite of Lorraine, Duchess of Orléans).

Moreover, there was a French practice, legally distinct from morganatic marriage but used in similar situations of inequality in status between a member of the royal family and a spouse of lower rank: an "openly secret" marriage. French kings authorized such marriages only when the bride was past child-bearing or the marrying prince already had dynastic heirs by a previous royal spouse. The marriage ceremony took place without banns, in private (with only a priest, the bride and groom, and a few legal witnesses present), and the marriage was never officially acknowledged (although sometimes widely known). Thus, the wife never publicly shared in her husband's titles, rank, or coat of arms. The lower-ranked spouse, male or female, could only receive from the royal spouse what property the king allowed.

The mechanism of the "secret marriage" rendered it unnecessary for France to legislate the morganatic marriage *per se*. Within post-monarchical dynasties, until the end of the 20th century the heads of the Spanish and Italian Bourbon branches, the Orleans of both France and Brazil, and the Imperial Bonaparte have, in exile, exercised claimed authority to exclude from their dynasty descendants born of unapproved marriages — albeit without calling these marriages "morganatic".

There is one example of a French practice, somewhat different, a (openly) **secret marriage** - that is, the marriage took place in private and was never officially announced (although it might be widely known), and thus the woman never publicly shared in her husband's titles and rank. **Louis XIV** married **Madame de Maintenon** (Françoise d'Aubigné, Marquise de Maintenon (27 November 1635 – 15 April 1719, she was known during her first marriage as Madame Scarron, and subsequently as Madame de Maintenon), and his second wife. Madame de Maintenon was too old to bear children in this marriage.

In her excursion with Madame de Neuillant, Françoise met Paul Scarron[70], who was 25 years older than she, and with whom she began to correspond. Scarron was an accomplished poet and novelist, who counted Marie de Hautefort, maîtresse-en-titre of King <u>Louis XIII</u>, among his patrons. He proposed either to pay her dowry so that she might enter a convent, or offered her marriage. Although Scarron suffered from acute and crippling rheumatoid arthritis, she accepted his proposal and became **Madame Scarron** in 1651. The match permitted her to gain access to the highest levels of Paris society, something that would have otherwise been impossible for a girl from an impoverished background. For nine years, she was Scarron's wife, nurse, and a fixture in his social circle.

On the death of Scarron in 1660, Anne of Austria continued his pension to his widow, even increasing it to 2000 <u>livres</u> a year, thus enabling her to remain in literary society. Following the dowager queen's death in 1666, Louis XIV suspended the pension. Once again in straitened circumstances, Mme Scarron prepared to leave Paris for Lisbon as a lady-in-waiting to the new Queen of Portugal, Marie-Françoise de Nemours. Before setting off, however, she met Madame de Montespan, who was secretly already the king's lover. Madame de Montespan took such a fancy to Mme Scarron that she had the king reinstate her pension; an act which enabled Françoise to stay in Paris.

In 1678, the king gave her the title of **Marquise de Maintenon** after the name of her estate

In 1684, Madame de Maintenon became first lady-in-waiting to the Dauphine, and in the winter of 1685-1686 she was married to the king in a private ceremony by François de Harlay de Champvallon, Archbishop of Paris, in the presence, it is believed, of Père la Chaise, the king's confessor, the Marquis de Montchevreuil, the Chevalier de Forbin, and Alexandre Bontemps. Owing to the disparity in their social status, she could not marry the king openly

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[70] **Paul Scarron** (c. July 1610 – October 6, 1660) was a French poet, dramatist, and novelist, born in Paris. His precise birthdate is unknown, but he was baptized on July 4, 1610. Scarron was the first husband of Françoise d'Aubigné, who later became Madame de Maintenon and secretly married King Louis XIV of France.

and become queen, and the marriage was morganatic. No written proof of the marriage exists, but that it took place is nevertheless accepted by historians.

**Louis XIV** (5 September 1638 – 1 September 1715), known as **Louis the Great** (*Louis le Grand*) or the **Sun King** (*le Roi-Soleil*), was a monarch of the House of Bourbon who ruled as King of France and Navarre. His reign of 72 years and 110 days is one of the longest in French and European history.

Louis began his personal rule of France in 1661 after the death of his chief minister, the Italian Cardinal Mazarin. An adherent of the theory of the divine right of kings, which advocates the divine origin of monarchical rule, Louis continued his predecessors' work of creating a centralized state governed from the capital. He sought to eliminate the remnants of feudalism persisting in parts of France and, by compelling many members of the nobility to inhabit his lavish Palace of Versailles, succeeded in pacifying the aristocracy, many members of which had participated in the Fronde rebellion during Louis's minority. By these means he became one of the most powerful French monarchs and consolidated a system of absolute monarchical rule in France that endured until the French Revolution.

**Italy morganatic marriage - example**

**Rosa Vercellana** (3 June 1833 – 26 December 1885), commonly known as 'Rosina' and, in Piedmontese[71], as **La Bela Rosin**, was the mistress and later wife of Victor Emmanuel II, King of Italy. She was made Countess of Mirafiori and Fontanafredda, but never Queen of Italy.

She was born in Nice, then part of the Kingdom of Sardinia, the youngest child of Giovanni Battista Vercellana and his wife Teresa Griglio. Four days later she was baptized as **Maria Rosa Teresa Aloisia**.

Her father, from Moncalvo in the Province of Asti, had been a standard bearer in the Napoleonic Imperial Guard. After the fall of Napoleon, he was appointed an Officer in the King's Guards and commanded the Royal Garrison in the hunting estate of Racconigi by 1847.

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[71] **Piedmontese** is a Romance language spoken by over 2 million people in Piedmont, northwest Italy. It is geographically and linguistically included in the Northern Italian group (with Lombard, Emiliano-Romagnolo, Ligurian, and Venetan). It is part of the wider western group of Romance languages, including French, Occitan, and Catalan.

It was there, while living with her family, that the fourteen year old Rosa met Crown Prince Victor Emmanuel.

She became his mistress and had two children by him:

- Vittoria Guerrieri (2 December 1848-1905), firstly married (1868) Marchese Giacomo Spinola (1828-1872), had issue; (1873) secondly married Marchese Luigi Spinola (1825-1899), had issue; thirdly, Paolo de Simone (committed suicide), no issue.
- Emanuele Alberto Guerrieri (16 March 1851-23 December 1894), Count of Mirafiori and Fontanafredda, married (1873) Bianca de Larderel (1856-1942), had issue.

Their affair caused a great scandal in 1849 when Victor Emanuel was crowned King of Sardinia, however, when his Queen died in 1855, the King named Rosa Countess of Mirafiori and Fontanafredda by royal decree in 1858. The King also recognized their two children and assigned them the surname Guerrieri.

In 1864 the capital of Italy was moved from Turin to Florence and Vercellana established herself there in the villa La Pietraia. Five years later the king fell gravely ill at San Rossore, the royal estate near Pisa. Fearing death, on October 18th 1869 he hurriedly married his mistress, in a purely religious ceremony which conferred no civil rights upon his wife. Telegrams to Rome followed, seeking papal benediction.

A civil ceremony was held in Rome eight years later in 1877. This was a morganatic marriage, so she was never made Queen and her children had no rights of succession to the throne.

Victor Emanuel died two months after the ceremony. Rosa Vercellana survived him by eight years, dying on 26 December 1885.[

**Examples of Royal men who married morganatically:**

- King Erik XIV of Sweden married the servant Karin Månsdotter morganatically in 1567 and later secondly, but this time not morganatically, in 1568.
- Ludwig Wilhelm, Duke in Bavaria and (actress) Henriette Mendel. She was created Freifrau von Wallersee, and their daughter, Marie Louise, Countess Larisch von Moennich, was a confidante of Empress Elisabeth ("Sissi") of Austria.
- Archduke Ferdinand II of Austria, ruler of the Tirol married firstly Philippine Welser, a bourgeois girl though very wealthy; their children were given a separate title and the issue of Ferdinand's second (and equal) marriage were preferred.
- Late in his life, the widowed ex-king Fernando II of Portugal married the opera singer Elise Hensler, who was created countess of Edla.
- Morganatic branches of the Russian Imperial Family:

The Russian Imperial Family was split into four main branches named after the sons of Emperor Nicholas I:

- The Alexandrovichi (descendants of Emperor Alexander II of Russia)
- The Konstantinovichi (descendants of Grand Duke Constantine Nicholaevich of Russia)
- The Nikolaevichi (descendants of Grand Duke Nicholas Nikolaevich of Russia)
- The Mihailovichi (descendants of Grand Duke Michael Nicolaevich of Russia)

The headship of the Imperial Family is in dispute between Prince Nicholas Romanovich of Russia of the Nikolaevichi branch and Grand Duchess Maria Vladimirovna of Russia of the Vladimirovichi. See the article line of succession to the Russian throne for more details on the dispute.

- Genghis Khan[72] followed the contemporary tradition by taking several morganatic wives in addition to his principal wife, whose property passed to their youngest son, also following tradition.

**Examples of Royal women who married morganatically:**

- Marie Louise, Duchess of Parma (by birth an Archduchess of the Imperial House of Habsburg, and by her first marriage an Empress of France) contracted a morganatic second marriage with a count after the death of her first husband Napoleon I.
- Queen Maria Christina of Bourbon-Two Sicilies, regent of Spain after her husband's (Ferdinand VII) death while their daughter, the future Isabella II was a minor. She married one of her guards in a secret marriage.
- Princess Stéphanie of Belgium, the widow of Crown Prince Rudolf of Austria, married Count Elemér Lónyay de Nagy-Lónya et Vásáros-Namény after the death of her first husband, to the disgust of her family. In 1917, Emperor Charles I of Austria conferred upon Lónyay the non-dynastic title of prince.

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[72] **Genghis Khan** (or,; 1162? – August 1227), born **Temujin** and occasionally known by his temple name **Taizu(太祖)**, was the founder and Great Khan (emperor) of the Mongol Empire, which became the largest contiguous empire in history after his death. He came to power by uniting many of the nomadic tribes of northeast Asia. After founding the Mongol Empire and being proclaimed "Genghis Khan", he started the Mongol invasions that resulted in the conquest of most of Eurasia. These included raids or invasions of the Kara-Khitan Khanate, Caucasus, Khwarezmid Empire, Western Xia and Jin dynasties. These campaigns were often accompanied by wholesale massacres of the civilian populations – especially in Khwarezmia. By the end of his life, the Mongol Empire occupied a substantial portion of Central Asia and China.

# SALIC LAW of SUCCESSION
## (European Law)

Salic Law of Succession, the rule by which, in certain sovereign dynasties, persons descended from a previous sovereign only through a woman was excluded from succession to the throne. Gradually formulated in France, the rule takes its name from the code of the Salian Franks, the Lex Salica (Salic Law).

Because each French king from the late 10th century to the early 14th century had a son who could succeed him, the Capetian dynasty was not faced with any controversy over succession to the throne. After the Capetian king Louis X died in 1316 leaving no male heir and a pregnant widow, who gave birth to a son who died after five days, Philip V, a brother of Louis X, convened the Estates-General (1317), which established the principle that women would be excluded from succession to the French throne. During the same period the corollary principle also came to be accepted—i.e., that descent from a daughter of a French king could not constitute a claim to royal succession.

During the 14th and 15th centuries, attempts were made to provide juridical grounds for the exclusion of women from the royal succession. The main reason adduced in each case was custom, though Roman law and the priestly character of kingship were also used as justifications. The Salic Law was first mentioned in 1410 in a treatise against the claims to the French throne by Henry IV of England.

In the 16th century the text of the Salic Law was taken up by expositors of the theory of royal power, who advanced it as a fundamental law of the kingdom. In 1593 the authority of the Salic Law was expressly invoked to deny the candidature for the French throne of the Spanish Infanta Isabella, the granddaughter of Henry II of France by his daughter's marriage to Philip II of Spain, despite the strongly pro-Spanish attitude of the dominant faction in Paris at the time. Thereafter, the Salic Law was invariably accepted as fundamental, though it was not always the explicit reason given for excluding women from the throne. Napoleon also adopted the Salic Law, which was applied in France as late as 1883.

There was no principle against succession by daughters in default of sons in England, Scandinavia, and Angevin Naples (1265–1442). Likewise, Spain had no such principle until Philip V, the first Spanish king to come from the French house of Bourbon, introduced a less-stringent variation of the Salic Law by his Auto Acordado of 1713, which was later repealed. The Salic Law of Succession was applied when Victoria, who was from the house of Hanover, became queen of England in 1837 but was barred from succession to the Hanover crown, which went to her uncle.

**Salic Law History**

**Salic Law,** Latin Lex Salica, the code of the Salian Franks[73] who conquered Gaul in the 5th century and the most important, although not the oldest, of all Teutonic laws (*leges barbarorum*). The code was issued late (*c.* 507–511) in the reign of Clovis (c. 466–511), the founder of Merovingian power in Western Europe. It was twice reissued under the descendants of Clovis, and under the Carolingians (Charlemagne and his successors) it was repeatedly altered and systematized and was translated into Old High German.

The Salic Law is primarily a penal and procedural code, containing a long list of fines (*compositio*) for various offenses and crimes. It also includes, however, some civil-law enactments, among these a chapter that declares that daughters cannot inherit land. Although this section was not invoked in the exclusion of the daughters of Louis X, Philip V, and Charles IV from the throne, it took on critical importance under the later Valois (16th century), when it was incorrectly cited as authority for the existing assumption that women should not succeed to the crown.

In its original form the code is structurally of the pre-Christian era, the only one of the kind that exists. Other Germanic laws, such as those of the Visigoths and Burgundians, may be earlier in date but show appreciable Christian influence. Despite the fact that it was first written down in Latin (after a long period of purely oral transmission), the Salic Law was very little influenced by Roman law. As a record of the Franks' early laws and customs, the Salic Law affords valuable clues about the conditions of primitive Germanic life and society.

For the next 300 years the code was copied by hand and was amended as required to add newly enacted laws, revise laws that had been amended, and delete laws that had been repealed. In contrast to printing, hand copying is an individual act by an individual copyist with ideas and a style of his own. Each of the several dozen surviving manuscripts features a unique set of errors, corrections, content and organization. The laws are called "titles" as each one has its own name, generally preceded by *de*, "concerning." Different sections of titles acquired individual names revealing something about their provenances. Some of these dozens of names have been adopted for specific reference, often given the same designation as the overall work, *lex*.

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[73] **Frank,** member of a Germanic-speaking people who invaded the Western Roman Empire in the 5th century. Dominating present-day northern France, Belgium, and western Germany, the Franks established the most powerful Christian kingdom of early medieval western Europe. The name France (Francia) is derived from their name.

**Category: Salic Law**

**Salic law** (L, = *Lex Salica*) Important body of traditional law codified for governing the Salian Franks in the early Middle Ages during the reign of King Clovis I in the 6th century. Although Salic Law reflects very ancient usage and practices, the earliest compilation date for the *Lex Salica* was most likely made between 507 and 511.

**Agnatic succession** Best-known tenet of Salic law the rule excluding females from the inheritance of a throne or fief. Indeed, "Salic law" has often been used simply as a synonym for agnatic succession. But the importance of Salic law extends beyond the rules of inheritance, as it is a direct ancestor of the systems of law in many parts of Europe today.

**European inheritance** Law of Charlemagne was based on Salic Law, an influence as great as that of Greece and Rome. Through that connection, Salic law has had a formative influence on the tradition of statute law that has extended since then to modern times in Central Europe, especially in the German states, France, Belgium, The Netherlands, parts of Italy, Austria and Hungary, parts of Eastern Europe, i.e., (Romania and the Balkans).

**Salic Law codification** Salic Law codified inheritance, crime, and murder. In a kingdom with many ethnic groups, each expected to be governed under its own law. The detailed laws established damages to be paid and fines levied in recompense of injuries to persons and damage to goods, e.g., slaves, theft, and unproved insults. One-third of the fine paid court costs. Judicial interpretation was by a jury of peers. These laws and their interpretations grant insight to Frankish society; Salic Law establishes that an individual person is legally unprotected by law if he or she does not belong to a family.

**Equal division of land** most formative (geo-) political aspect of Salic inheritance law for Europe's history was its equal division of land amongst all living male children in opposition to primogeniture. This has caused not only the break up of the Carolingian Empire amongst Charlemagne's grandsons (under the Treaty of Verdun), but many consecutive kingdoms and fiefs during medieval times.

**Agnatic succession** Salic law regulates succession according to sex. Agnatic succession means succession to the throne or fief going to an agnate of the predecessor; for example, a brother, a son, or nearest male relative through the male line, including collateral agnate branches, for example very distant cousins.

**Agnatic primogeniture** Most usual means of succession going to the eldest son of the monarch; if the monarch had no sons, the throne would pass to the nearest male relative in the male line.

**Agnatic seniority** Major form of succession.

**Female inheritance** One provision of Salic law continued to play a role in European politics during the Middle Ages and beyond. As actually interpreted by the Salian Franks, the law

simply prohibited women from inheriting, not all property (such as movables), but ancestral "Salic land"; and under Chilperic I sometime around the year 570, the law was actually amended to permit inheritance of land by a daughter if a man had no surviving sons. (This amendment, depending on how it is applied and interpreted, offers the basis for either Semi-Salic succession or male-preferred primogeniture, or both.) In its use by hereditary monarchies since the 15th century, aiming at agnatic succession, the Salic law is regarded as excluding all females from the succession as well as prohibiting succession rights to transfer through any woman. At least two systems of hereditary succession are direct and full applications of the Salic Law: agnatic seniority and agnatic primogeniture.

**Semi-Salic version** Succession order stipulates that firstly all male descendance is applied, including all collateral male lines; but if all agnates become extinct, then the closest heiress (such as a daughter) of the last male holder of the property inherits, and after her, her own male heirs according to the Salic order. In other words, the female closest to the last incumbent is regarded as a male for the purposes of inheritance/succession. This is a pragmatic way of putting order: the female is the closest, thus continuing the most recent incumbent's blood, and not involving any more distant relative than necessary. At that order, the original primogeniture is not followed with regard to the requisite female. She could be a child of a relatively junior branch of the whole dynasty, but still inherits thanks to the longevity of her own branch.

**Clovis I**

Clovis (c. 466 – 511), or **Chlodowech** (Latin *Chlodovechus*), was the first king of the Franks to unite all of the Frankish tribes under one ruler, changing the form of leadership from a group of royal chieftains to rule by a single king and ensuring that the kingship was passed down to his heirs. He was also the first Christian king to rule Gaul, known today as France.

Clovis was the son of Childeric I, a Merovingian king of the Salian Franks, and Basina, Queen of Thuringia. He succeeded his father in 481, at the age of fifteen. He is considered the founder of the Merovingian dynasty, which ruled the Franks for the next two centuries.

**Religion**
Not very long after Clovis became king he heard of a beautiful young girl, the niece of Gondebaud (gon'-de-baud), king of Burgundy, and he thought he would like to marry her. Her name was Clotilde (clo-tilde'), and she was an orphan, for her wicked uncle Gondebaud had

killed her father and mother. Clovis sent one of his nobles to Gondebaud to ask her for his wife. At first Gondebaud thought of refusing to let the girl go. He feared that she might have him punished for the murder of her parents if she became the wife of so powerful a man as Clovis. But he was also afraid that by refusing he would provoke the anger of Clovis; so he permitted the girl to be taken to the court of the king of the Franks. Clovis was delighted when he saw her; and they were immediately married.

Clotilde was a devout Christian, and she wished very much to convert her husband, who, like most of his people, was a worshiper of the heathen gods. But Clovis was not willing to give up his own religion. Nevertheless Clotilde continued to do every thing she could to persuade him to become a Christian. Clovis issued a proclamation to his people declaring that he was a believer in Christ, and giving orders that all the images and temples of the heathen gods should be destroyed. This was immediately done, and many of the people followed his example and became Christians.

(Above: Clovis statue at the Abbey Church of Saint-Denis)

### Interpreted by the Salian Franks

As actually interpreted by the Salian Franks, the law simply prohibited women from inheriting, not all property (such as movables), but ancestral "Salic land"; and under Chilperic I[74] sometime around the year 570, the law was actually amended to permit inheritance of land by a daughter if a man had no surviving sons. (This amendment, depending on how it is applied and interpreted, offers the basis for either Semi-Salic succession or male-preferred primogeniture, or both).

The wording of the law, as well as common usages in those days and centuries afterwards, seems to support an interpretation that inheritance is divided between brothers. And, if it is intended to govern succession, it can be interpreted to mandate agnatic seniority, not a direct primogeniture.

In its use by hereditary monarchies since the 15th century, aiming at agnatic succession, the Salic law is regarded as excluding all females from the succession as well as prohibiting succession rights to transfer through any woman. At least two systems of hereditary succession are direct and full applications of the Salic Law: agnatic seniority and agnatic primogeniture.

The so-called *Semi-Salic* version of succession order stipulates that firstly all male descendance is applied, including all collateral male lines; but if all agnates become extinct, then the closest heiress (such as a daughter) of the last male holder of the property inherits, and after her, her own male heirs according to the Salic order. In other words, the female

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[74] **Chilperic I** (ca. 539 – September 584) was the king of Neustria (or Soissons) from 561 to his death. He was one of the sons of the Frankish king Clotaire I and Queen Aregund.

closest to the last incumbent is regarded as a male for the purposes of inheritance/succession. This is a pragmatic way of putting order: the female is the closest, thus continuing the most recent incumbent's blood, and not involving any more distant relative than necessary (see, for example: Pragmatic Sanction of 1713 in Austria[75]). At that order, the original primogeniture is not followed with regard to the requisite female. She could be a child of a relatively junior branch of the whole dynasty, but still inherits thanks to the longevity of her own branch.

From the Middle Ages, we have one practical system of succession in Cognatic male primogeniture, which actually fulfills apparent stipulations of original Salic law: succession is allowed also through female lines, but excludes the females themselves in favour of their sons. For example, a grandfather, without sons, is succeeded by his grandson, a son of his daughter, when the daughter in question is still alive. Or an uncle, without his own children, is succeeded by his nephew, a son of his sister, when the sister in question is still alive.

Strictly seen, this fulfills the Salic condition of "no land comes to a woman, but the land comes to the male sex". This can be called a *Quasi-Salic* system of succession and it should be classified as primogeniture, Cognatic, and male.

## Applications of the law

### In France



In 1316, King John I the Posthumous died, and for the first time in the history of the House of Capet, a king's closest living relative upon his death was not his son. French lords (notably led by the late king's uncle, Philip of Poitiers, the beneficiary of their position) wanted to forbid inheritance by a woman. These lords wanted to favor Philip's claim over John's half-sister Joan (later Joan II of Navarre), but disqualify her future claim to the French throne, and any possible future claims of Edward III of England. These events later led to the Hundred Years' War (1337−1453)[76].

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[75] The **Pragmatic Sanction of 1713** (Latin: *Pragmatica Sanctio*) was an edict issued by Holy Roman Emperor Charles VI to ensure that the hereditary possessions of the Habsburgs could be inherited by a daughter. The Head of the House of Habsburg bore the title of Archduke of Austria and ruled the Archduchy of Austria, the Kingdom of Hungary, the Kingdom of Bohemia, Italian territories and the Netherlands. This measure does not concern the dignity of Roman Emperor, ruler of the Holy Roman Empire, which remained elective, although the Archduke of Austria was also Holy Roman Emperor for centuries.

[76] The **Hundred Years' War** was a series of conflicts waged from 1337 to 1453 between the Kingdom of England and the Kingdom of France and their various allies for control of the French throne. It was the result of a dynastic disagreement dating back to William the Conqueror who became King of England in 1066, while remaining Duke of Normandy. As dukes of Normandy and other lands on the continent, the English kings owed

In 1328, a further limitation was needed, to bar inheritance by a male through a female line. A number of excuses were given for these applications of succession, such as "genealogical proximity with the king Saint Louis"; the role of monarch as war leader; and barring the realm going to an alien man and his clan through a woman, which also denied an order of succession where an alien man could become king of France by marriage to its queen, without necessarily having any French blood himself. Also, in 1316 the rival heir was a five-year-old female and powerless compared with the rival. In 1328, the rival was the king of England, against which France had been in a state of intermittent war for over 200 years. As far as can be ascertained, *Salic law* was not explicitly mentioned.

Jurists later resurrected the long-defunct Salic law and reinterpreted it to justify the line of succession arrived at in the cases of 1316 and 1328 by forbidding not only inheritance by a woman but also inheritance through a female line (*In terram Salicam mulieres ne succedant*).

Notwithstanding Salic law, when Francis II of Brittany died in 1488 without male issue, his daughter Anne succeeded him and ruled as duchess of Brittany until her death in 1514. (Brittany had been inherited by women earlier – Francis's own dynasty obtained the duchy through their ancestress Duchess Constance of Brittany in the 12th century.) Francis's own family, the Montfort branch of the ducal house, had obtained Brittany in the 1350s on the basis of agnatic succession, and at that time, their succession was limited to the male line only.

This law was by no means intended to cover all matters of inheritance — for example, not the inheritance of movables – only those land considered "Salic" — and there is still debate as to the legal definition of this word, although it is generally accepted to refer to lands in the royal fisc. Only several hundred years later, under the Direct Capetian kings of France and their English contemporaries who held lands in France, did Salic law become a rationale for enforcing or debating succession. By then somewhat anachronistic (there were no Salic lands, since the Salian monarchy and its lands had originally emerged in what is now the Netherlands), the idea was resurrected by Philip V in 1316 to support his claim to the throne by removing his niece Jeanne from the succession, following the death of his nephew John.

In 1328, at latest, the Salic Law needed a further interpretation to forbid not only inheritance by a woman, but inheritance through a female line, in order to bar the male Edward III of England, descendant of French kings through his mother Isabel of France, from the succession. When the Direct Capetian line ended, the law was contested by England, providing a putative motive for the Hundred Years' War.

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homage to the King of France. In 1337 Edward III of England refused to pay homage to Philip VI of France, leading the French king to claim confiscation of Edward's lands in Aquitaine.

Shakespeare claims that Charles VI rejected Henry V's claim to the French throne on the basis of Salic law's inheritance rules, leading to the Battle of Agincourt[77]. In fact, the conflict between Salic law and English law was a justification for many overlapping claims between the French and English monarchs over the French Throne.

**Other European applications**

A number of military conflicts in European history have stemmed from the application of, or disregard for, Salic law. The Carlist Wars[78] occurred in Spain over the question of whether the heir to the throne should be a female or a male relative. The War of the Austrian Succession[79] was triggered by the Pragmatic Sanction[80] in which Charles VI of Austria, who himself had inherited the Austrian patrimony over his nieces as a result of Salic law, attempted to ensure the inheritance directly to his own daughter Maria Theresa of Austria, this being an example of an operation of the *Semi-Salic law*.

In the modern kingdom of Italy under the house of Savoy the succession to the throne was regulated by Salic law.

The British and Hanoverian thrones separated after the death of King William IV of the United Kingdom and of Hanover in 1837. Hanover practiced the Salic law, while Britain did not. King William's niece Victoria ascended to the throne of Great Britain and Ireland, but the throne of Hanover went to William's brother Ernest, Duke of Cumberland. Salic law was also an important issue in the Schleswig-Holstein question, and played a weary prosaic day-to-day role in the inheritance and marriage decisions of common princedoms of the German states such as Saxe-Weimar, to cite a representative example. It is not much of an overstatement to

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77 The **Battle of Agincourt**[a] was a major English victory in the Hundred Years' War. The battle occurred on Friday, 25 October 1415 (Saint Crispin's Day), near modern-day Azincourt, in northern France. Henry V's victory at Agincourt, against a numerically superior French army, crippled France and started a new period in the war, during which, first, Henry married the French king's daughter and, second, his son, Henry VI, was made heir to the throne of France (although Henry VI later failed to capitalize on his father's battlefield success).

78 The **Carlist Wars** were a series of civil wars that took place in Spain during the 19th century. The contenders fought to establish their claim to the throne, although some political differences also existed. Indeed, several times during the period from 1833 to 1876 the Carlists — followers of Infante Carlos (later Carlos V) and his descendants — rallied to the cry of "God, Country, and King" and fought for the cause of Spanish tradition (Legitimism and Catholicism) against the liberalism, and later the republicanism, of the Spanish governments of the day.

79 The **War of the Austrian Succession** (1740–48) – including King George's War in North America, the War of Jenkins' Ear (which actually began formally on 23 October 1739), the First Carnatic War in India, and the First and Second Silesian Wars – involved most of the powers of Europe over the question of Maria Theresa's succession to the realms of the House of Habsburg.

80 The **Pragmatic Sanction of 1713** (Latin: *Pragmatica Sanctio*) was an edict issued by Holy Roman Emperor Charles VI to ensure that the hereditary possessions of the Habsburgs could be inherited by a daughter.

say that European nobility confronted Salic issues at every turn and nuance of diplomacy, and certainly, especially when negotiating marriages, for the entire male line had to be extinguished for a land title to pass (by marriage) *to a female's husband*—women rulers were anathema in the German states well into the modern era.

In a similar way, the thrones of the Kingdom of the Netherlands and the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg were separated in 1890, with the succession of Princess Wilhelmina as the first Queen regnant of the Netherlands. As a remnant of Salic law, the office of the reigning monarch of the Netherlands is always formally known as 'King' even though her title may be 'Queen'. Luxembourg passed to the House of Orange-Nassau's distantly-related agnates, the House of Nassau-Weilburg. However, that house too faced extinction in the male line less than two decades later. With no other male-line agnates in the remaining branches of the House of Nassau, Grand Duke William IV adopted a semi-Salic law of succession so that he could be succeeded by his daughters.

In the Channel Islands, the only part of the former Duchy of Normandy still held by the British Crown, Queen Elizabeth II is traditionally ascribed the title of Duke of Normandy.

## EUROPE REVOLUTION 1848



(The Uprising by Honoré Daumier c. 1860)

The European Revolutions of 1848, known in some countries as the Spring of Nations, Springtime of the Peoples or the Year of Revolution, were a series of political upheavals

throughout Europe in 1848. It remains the most widespread revolutionary wave in European history, but within a year, reactionary forces had won out, and the revolutions collapsed.

The revolutionary wave began in France in February, and immediately spread to most of Europe and parts of Latin America. Over 50 countries were affected, but with no coordination or cooperation among the revolutionaries in different countries. Five factors were involved: widespread dissatisfaction with political leadership; demands for more participation in government and democracy; the demands of the working classes; the upsurge of nationalism; and finally, the regrouping of the reactionary forces based on the royalty, the aristocracy, the army, and the peasants.

**Background**
The Revolutions of 1848 were a series of political and economic revolts that took place in Europe because of a recession and abuse of political power. The participants in the revolutions were the Poles, Danes, Germans, Italians, Czechs, Slovaks, Slovaks, Hungarians, Croats, and the Romanians. The Revolutions of 1848 did change that countries government but the changes didn't last long. Although the changes didn't last long the revolutions did demonstrate that people could undermine the government, and create liberalism & socialism.

After Napoleon, a period of Reactionary governments swept Europe. Having swung so far one way during the French Revolution and Napoleon's rule, the historical pendulum now swung back the other way, as rulers tried to prevent the "excesses" of the French Revolution from happening again. Fear among the traditional rulers was not without basis, either. Revolution *was* brewing throughout Europe.

Among the reactionary rulers and leaders of Europe in the post-Napoleonic era, only the liberal, progressive, and fervently Christian Alexander I, Czar of Russia, seemed a wild card when it came to change. He certainly wanted to rule, but he also wanted to change the world for the better. Highly educated, he saw himself as an "enlightened despot" or a "philosopher-king" able to foresee reforms that were in the best interest of all. In 1815, the rulers of Europe were all worried about what Czar Alexander might do. However, once Alexander found out that granting constitutions and self-government to people led to them doing things that he sometimes disagreed with, his interest in liberal reforms began to sour, and he fell further into the reactionary fold over time.

Metternich was upset about possible German unification because he was afraid that a powerful and unified Germany might upset the balance of power, not to mention pose a threat to neighboring Austria. Although Austria did not have a tremendous amount of formal influence in the German *Bund,* it could put informal pressure on the German states, and Metternich did this heavily in the period to get the Carlsbad decrees passed.

British Parliament designed the Corn Law (1815) to protect the profits of landed aristocrats in Britain. But the action demonstrates the degree to which Parliament was out of touch with the

social and political situation. The tariffs raised food prices, naturally affecting the poor. The raise in prices also affected the industrialist manufacturers, who had to pay their workers more to insure that they had people physically able to man the industrial factories. Whereas the poor had no political power, and little tendency to political action, the wealthy manufacturers had both. The teaming up of the manufacturers and poor demonstrated a changing reality in British social and political life. Parliament's eventual recognition of this change can be seen in the Tory government's subsequent passage of a high tax on newspapers as an attempt to limit the spread of ideas among workers. The Tory government even went so far as to restrict the right of public assembly. The Tory government in Great Britain was archconservative and greatly opposed social upheaval. Metternich, the foreign minister in Austria, was willing to do anything to stabilize Europe and preserve Hapsburg power.

**Aspects of revolution**

The revolutions of 1848 were the most widespread in the history of Europe. They directly affected France, Germany, Prussia, the Austrian Empire, various Italian states, Moldavia and Wallacia. They also indirectly affected Switzerland, Denmark, England, Spain and Belgium. Of all the European states, only Russia was unaffected.

Two aspects draw our attention. First, the immediate course of the revolutions where the drawing up of democratic constitutions was the order of the day. Second, the fact that by 1850 all the revolutions had collapsed into nothing and hard-nosed reaction appeared to triumph. To understand both these aspects, one needs to understand the forces underlying both the revolutions and militating against them.

**Economic conditions**

The period from 1815 to 1848 was marked by significant economic fluctuations. Initially (1815-1818) there was a post-Napoleonic War depression in which the economies of all countries except France went into recession. The early 1820s saw an upswing in economic fortunes but another recession accompanied the 1830 revolutions.

Although the 1830s were generally prosperous years, a major recession descended on Europe during the 1840s. The industrialization was making significant inroads into the European states, especially France and Germany. It was accompanied, however, with gross exploitation and increasing unemployment.

Urbanization was therefore on the increase and the cities became centers for the unemployed masses. Poverty led to destitution, with an accompanying increase in the crime-rate. The ruling classes and the elite bourgeoisie appeared indifferent to the plight of the people. Any political philosophy which promised change would therefore be supported by the masses.

The recession of the 1840s was also accompanied by a major crop failure. The potato crop throughout Europe was destroyed by blight in 1845. This was followed by a bad harvest of

cereals, leading to inflated prices and a drop in spending power. Conditions became progressively worse in 1846 and 1847. It is estimated that about one-fifth of the population of Paris was unemployed in February 1848 when the revolution occurred. Circumstances in Germany were similar.

There was also general disillusionment over the political conditions throughout Europe. The defeat of Napoleon in 1815 had been heralded as the triumph of reason and stability. The governments which were thereupon installed promised constitutions to their people but by the 1840s the constitutions were either not forthcoming or the rulers had regressed into new forms of oppression.

A person born in 1815 would be over 30 years of age by 1848 which meant that the young people knew nothing of the hardships of the Revolutionary Wars and the Napoleonic campaigns. On the contrary, the stories had now become legends of a glorious and romantic past, in contrast to which the contemporary rulers only oppressive.

## The Holy Britannian Empire
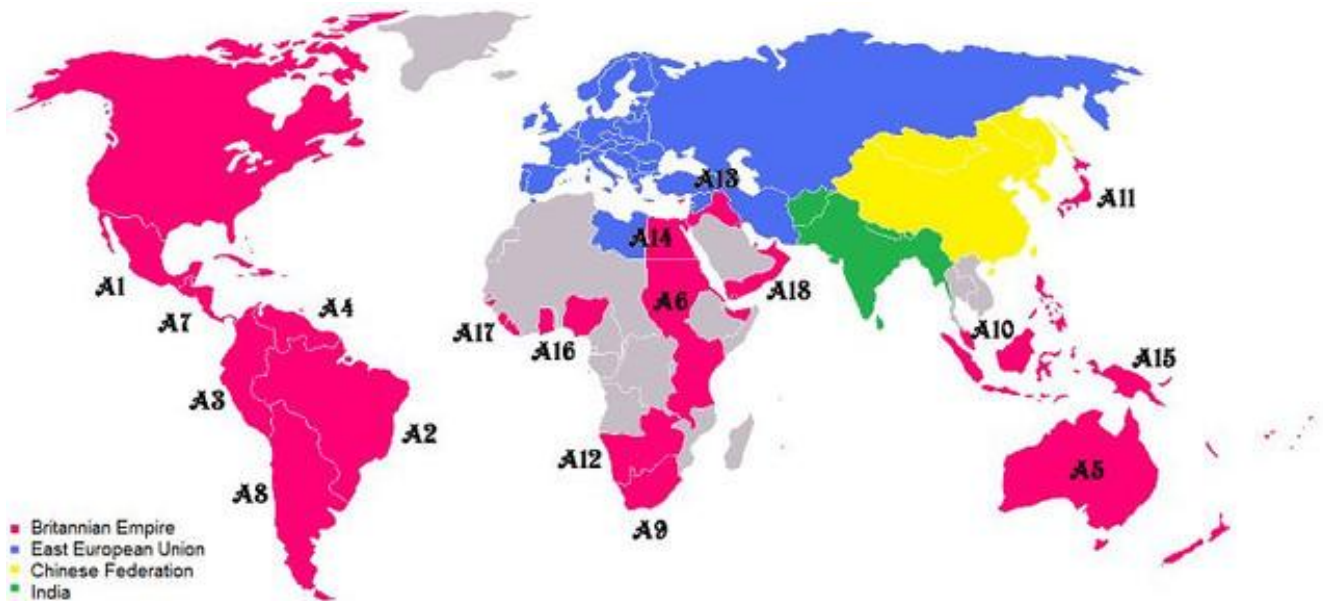


As the "Age of Revolution" reached its peak, many of the old monarchies in Europe were overthrown, but Henry X of Britannia retained an absolute monarchy. The greatest of these revolutions at the time was the French Revolution, which eventually produced the rule of Napoleon Bonaparte. It was Napoleon who orchestrated the greatest formative event which resulted in the creation of the Holy Britannian Empire. A decisive victory at the Battle of

Trafalgar allowed Napoleon to invade the British Isles and occupy London. Napoleon's invasion of the British Isles advanced to the point that, in 1862 (our 1807), Queen Elizabeth III was forced to retreat to Edinburgh, where a local revolutionary group arrested her and forced her to abdicate the throne, ending the monarchy over the British Isles. This event came to be known as the "Humiliation of Edinburgh."

However, Sir Ricardo von Britannia, Duke of Britannia, and his friend and subordinate Sir Richard Hector, Knight of One, led a retreat with Elizabeth III and the remaining loyalists in the British Isles to the North American colonies, establishing a capital on the east coast. In 1867 (our 1813), Elizabeth III died childless, nominating Ricardo von Britannia as her successor on her deathbed. It was at this time that the "Ascension Throne Britannia" calendar was established in the American version. Though Napoleon successfully conquered the British Isles, his rule over Europe ran into popular discontent and culminated in his defeat at the Battle of Waterloo in 1875 (our 1821, which occurred in 1815 in our timeline). Napoleon died on his way back to France; it is rumored that he was poisoned by agents who were acting in accordance with Elizabeth III's will. With the departure of Napoleon and his imperial ambitions from history, a new Europe-spanning empire with democratic ideals arose, and would later become the modern European Union. Over time, the EU would grow to encompass all of Europe, including the whole of Russia, and Africa, and would for centuries be the bitter enemy of Elizabeth III's followers in North America.

## Development and Expansion
By the end of the Napoleonic Wars, the "Britannians" were essentially the defeated remains of the absolutist aristocracy of the British Isles who had retreated to their colonial holdings in North America following the loss of their original homeland. Even before the Napoleonic Wars, the Britannian aristocracy had utterly reject all notions of democracy that were put forth by the Enlightenment and the Age of Revolution, instead embracing absolutism like that of the Tudor dynasty. Their humiliating defeat and exile only further embittered the Britannians, causing them to fully embrace a national ethos of revanchism. The resulting Holy Britannian Empire, while geographically centered in the area of our United States and descended from our British Empire, is analogous to neither of these political entities, instead being an odd mix of North American Tories (pro-British colonials, or loyalists, from the Revolutionary era) and imperial British aristocrats.

The small population of "Britannian" nobles had reached a critical low point, having a very small core population, but were determined to rebuild their former power in North America, and began and aggressive campaign of conquest. Presumably this campaign began as events analogous to our Manifest Destiny, but clearly eventually grew to stretch across both North and South America, presumably seizing former European colonial regions such as the empires of Mexico and Brazil. After being pushed to the edge of oblivion, the Britannians now saw international politics as a fight for survival, and rapidly rebuilt themselves into a world power by dominating the rest of the Americas. Each new region that was conquered appears to be

designated as an "Area," and its indigenous population as "Numbers" named after their Area (i.e., Area 11 and the Elevens). However, it is not explicitly stated what parts of North and South America make up the Britannian Homeland; it could form North America, or just the original colonies, or the whole of the Americas. It is therefore difficult to place exactly what regions are Areas prior to the incorporation of Area 11 (Japan) into the empire.

Because the original core population of Britannians was so small, a very stratified and highly classist social hierarchy was established, in which the extremely small minority of "pureblood" Britannians (who were descended from the original British aristocrats who fled to North America) ruled over the "honorary Britannians" (who held a mid-level social position. At the very bottom were the Numbers, the conquered peoples who lived in segregated ghettos Numbers can also apply for honorary citizenship, but are still treated as second-class citizens by some Britannians ,

When Charles Darwin proposed his Theory of Evolution, which was later appropriated by the philosophy of Social Darwinism, it readily caught on in Britannia. The idea that conflict and competition promoted growth, that those who conquered and subjugated other peoples were justified in doing so, was well-accepted by Britannians. They saw it as the ultimate justification for their struggle to claw back from the brink of extinction and over the decades turn themselves into a world power again, and for their campaign of survival, conquest, and, ultimately, revenge.

The Holy Britannian Empire utterly embraced Social Darwinism not only as a national ethos and mentality, but even as something akin to a state religion; Charles Darwin came to be referred to as Saint Darwin, as an example, and the Emperor Charles may very well have been named after the naturalist. The subjugation and oppression of non-Britannians became a systematically applied set of negative virtues, which brought about the act of Britannia "reforming itself along Prussian lines" as the society became almost entirely dedicated to the military effort and further conquests.

By the time of the World Wars in the mid-20th century, the Holy Britannian Empire had already become one of the three superpower nations that controlled a third of the planet, the other two being the European Union and the Chinese Federation. Of note is the fact that the three superpowers are similar in their geographic composition to the three superpowers of *Nineteen Eighty-Four*: Oceania (Britannia), Eurasia (European Union), and Eastasia (Chinese Federation).

By the time of the invasion of Japan, from their homeland in North America, Britannia controlled the whole of the Americas, as well as--depending on different versions of the manga that do not contradict the main storyline--New Zealand, Hawaii, and the Philippines.

**Giuseppe Mazzini**

The Revolutions first started out in France 1848 where the people wanted universal suffrage which was led by Louis Blanc. King Louis Philippe was overthrown and Louis Blanc's revolution established the second republic. The February revolution in France gave ideas to other countries in Europe which in turn started other revolutions. The February revolution in France also gave to Liberals in the German states the idea to make a proposal for a unified German country with a national parliament. But the old order was restored because the provisional government couldn't decide on a constitution for the new government.

The Italian states of Europe also had a revolution which made Pope Pius IX flee Italy. This gave a leader of unification, Giuseppe Mazzini the chance to unify Italy. This plot of Mazzini was a failure because of the Italians overwhelming protectiveness of their independence.

**Giuseppe Mazzini:** Mazzini was a significant figure in Italian Unification. His ideas and propaganda not only influenced revolutions in Italy, but they also influenced revolutionaries throughout Europe. Mazzini was against conservative governments, and his ideas were based on trusting the morals of the common man. Mazzini believed that the common people could organize to oust unsatisfactory governments. His goal was to unify Italy under a democratic government. He tried many things to attain this goal.

In 1831 he founded Young Italy, and in 1832 he unsuccessfully tried to induce mutiny within the Sardinian Army. Two years later another conspiracy against the Kingdom of Sardinia failed. During this time of failure, Mazzini was gaining popularity in Europe, and was a prophet of nationalism.

It was during the Revolution of 1848 that Mazzini had his day. The well-organized revolt was successful, and Mazzini was appointed one of the leaders of the new Roman Republic. However, the republic fell only about a year later in 1849. Mazzini fled, but he continued his efforts in the name of republican government.

Attempts were made in Mantua and Milan, but both were unsuccessful. Furthermore, the Italian nationalist movement gained new leadership. When Mazzini returned to Italy in 1859, he was not happy to see that Italy was unified under a kingdom, rather than a republic. In 1870 he was jailed for plotting to gain Rome and Venice from Sardinia. Two years later he died in Pisa.

Giuseppe Mazzini was a significant figure in the Revolutions of 1848. He believed in liberal government, and influenced many European nationalists. His life was spent attempting to unify Italy under a democratic government.

*"Country is not a mere zone of territory. The true country is the Idea to which it gives birth; it is the Thought of love, the sense of communion which unites in one all the sons of that territory."* (Giuseppe Mazzini: On the Duties of Man, 1844-58).

## The European Revolutions of 1848 begin

Although little noticed at the time, the first major outbreak came in Sicily, starting in January 1848. There had been several previous revolts against Bourbon rule; this one produced an independent state that lasted only 16 months before the Bourbons came back. During those months, the constitution was quite advanced for its time in liberal democratic terms, as was the proposal of an Italian confederation of states. The failed revolt was reversed a dozen years later as the Bourbon kingdom of the Two Sicilies collapsed in 1860–61 with the Risorgimento[81].

The 1848 revolutions in the Italian states were organized revolts in the states of Italy led by intellectuals and agitators who desired a liberal government. As Italian nationalists they sought to eliminate reactionary Austrian control. During this time period, Italy was still not a unified country, and was divided into many states, which, in Northern Italy, were ruled by the Austrian Empire. A desire to be free from foreign rule, and the conservative leadership of the Austrians, led the Italian people to stage a revolution in order to drive out the Austrians. The revolution was led by the state of Piedmont, one of the four states where the Austrian leaders were forced to grant liberal rights. Also, the uprisings in the Kingdom of Lombardy–Venetia, particularly in Milan, forced the Austrian General Radetsky to retreat to the Quadrilatero fortresses.

King Charles Albert, who ruled Piedmont-Sardinia from 1831 to 1849, aspired to unite Italy under his leadership. He declared war on Austria and launched a full-out attack on the Quadrilateral. Lacking allies, Charles Albert was no match for the Austrian army. He was defeated at the Battle of Custoza (July 24, 1848), signed a truce, and withdrew his forces from Lombardy. Austria remained dominant in a divided Italy and the Revolution was lost.



GIUSEPPE LA MASA.

The wave of revolutions in 1848 started in Palermo, Italy, where people, led by **Giuseppe La Masa**, rose against the domination of the Bourbons on 12 January 1848. One month later, the wind of change swept through France: the revolutionists drove away Louis Philippe de Bourbon, who had reigned since the 1830 revolution; and proclaimed the Second French Republic. In the wake of the events in France, a series of revolutions erupted in Brussels, Vienna and Pest.

The Bourbon Kingdom of the Two Sicilies was notorious for its

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81 Italian unification (Italian: il Risorgimento, meaning The Resurgence) was the political and social movement that agglomerated different states of the Italian peninsula into the single state of Italy in the 19th century.

arbitrary and repressive government and endemic unrest. Many of Sicily's problems were largely self-inflicted. Efforts on the part of the government of Ferdinand II (1830-59) to enact economic and agrarian reform had been thwarted by evasion of the law and corruption, and much of the drive for Sicilian autonomy was prompted to avoid outside meddling with the usurpation of the land by a minority.

Sicily, however, did suffer from the economic exactions of Naples and an inefficient, corrupt, and brutal administration, and many Sicilians longed for the autonomy provided by the island's short-lived 1812 constitution. In 1842, Michele Amari's history of the medieval Sicilian vespers escaped the royal censors and was read by many on the island as an evocation of its lost independence. Luigi Settembrini's 1847 Protest of the People of the Two Sicilies, although suppressed, was passed from hand to hand and inspired an elite of potential rebels. A frightening and socially disruptive cholera epidemic ascribed to poisoning by the perfidious monarchy, the reforms of Pope Pius IX in Rome in 1846-47, and a September 1847 rising in Reggio Calabria which spread across the strait to Messina further stimulated unrest in Sicily.

## Giuseppe Garibaldi

From 1500 to 1800 Italy was on the political sidelines and, in fact, was merely an object of division between foreign powers (France and Spain, and to a lesser degree, Austria). Thus while its great artists were stupefying the world and its explorers—like Columbus, Vespucci, Verrazzano, Cabot, and Pigafetta—were discovering new ones, and while Galileo was founding modern science and focusing his telescope on Jupiter, Italy continued to shrink, battered above all by violent internal conflicts between the small city-states that made it up.

The end of the era of the maritime republics left Italy without political subjects of any importance. The south was for a long time simply the Kingdom of Naples, under the dominion of the King of Spain, and then of the Bourbons; the center of the country continued under the power of the Papacy; in the north the Lombard-Veneto region was continuously contested by France, Spain and Austria, and the ancient *signorie* were having difficulty everywhere.

After the brief but intense revolutionary and Napoleonic era that gave Italy a flag and its first prefectorial administration, the country went to the Vienna Congress still divided into states and city-states[82] (the strongest of these, the Kingdom of Piedmont-Sardinia, would soon become the Kingdom of Italy).

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[82] In 1848 modern day Italy was composed of the following duchies, states, or kingdoms: in southern Italy was the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, in central Italy was the Papal States, in the north were the three Duchies of Parma, Tuscany and Modena, in the northwest was the Kingdom of Sardinia, which consisted of Nice, Genoa, Savoy, mainland Piedmont and the island of Sardinia.The economy was heavily based on agriculture. Farm products were subject to unstable prices due to foreign competition, and the slowness of Italian farming

A series of attempts at revolution were made until 1848, mainly by secret societies such as that of the Carbonari, against the arrangement of the peninsula by the Vienna Congress. The Italian national movement found its main inspiration in Giuseppe Mazzini, who outlined in his writings and actions the goal of a united, independent and republican Italy.

With the intervention of Carlo Alberto di Savoia, King of Sardinia, who declared war on Austria, started the First War of Independence in 1848. After his defeat and his abdication in favor of the son Vittorio Emanuele II, Republics of Tuscany, Venice and Rome were proclaimed.

The concrete accomplishment of Italian unification was the work of the Kingdom of Piedmont-Sardinia. Under the exceptional political guidance of its greatest statesman, Camillo Benso, Count of Cavour, the small Piedmont kingdom allied with France and Napoleon III and managed to defeat Austria during the Second War of Independence in 1859. This allowed it to unify central-northern Italy, except for the Veneto region and part of the Vatican State.

Immediately following Cavour's success an initiative, called the Italian Risorgimento, came by another great protagonist of this period, **Giuseppe Garibaldi** (July 4, 1807 – June 2, 1882). Garibaldi had already taken part in independence struggles in Latin America and earned himself the nickname "Hero of the Two Worlds."[83] Heading up a band of patriots, he landed in Sicily in June of 1860 with the intention of bringing down the Bourbon regime, while the Savoy troops entered the Vatican State to join the forces of Garibaldi. The victorious campaign was crowned by an historic encounter at Teano near Caserta between Garibaldi and King Vittorio Emanuele II. A large part of the Italian nation was thus unified under the Savoy scepter and on March 17, 1861, the new Turin Parliament, then composed of Deputies elected in all the regions linked to the old Savoy state, decreed the birth of the Kingdom of Italy. Heading up a band of patriots, he landed in Sicily in June of 1860 with the intention of bringing down the Bourbon regime, while the Savoy troops entered the Vatican State to join the forces of Garibaldi. The victorious campaign was crowned by an historic encounter at Teano near Caserta between Garibaldi and King Vittorio Emanuele II. A large part of the Italian nation was thus unified under the Savoy scepter and on March 17, 1861, the new Turin Parliament, then composed of Deputies elected in all the regions linked to the old Savoy state, decreed the birth of the Kingdom of Italy.

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contrasted to more efficient foreigners. There were food riots all through 1840 to 1847; radical groups proliferated in Rome.

[83] **Giuseppe Garibaldi** has been called the "Hero of Two Worlds" because of his military enterprises in South America and Europe. These earned him a considerable reputation in Italy and abroad, aided by exceptional international media coverage at the time. Many of the greatest intellectuals of his time, such as Victor Hugo, Alexandre Dumas, and George Sand showered him with admiration. The United Kingdom and the United States helped him a great deal, offering him financial and military support in difficult circumstances.

## The structure of the states of Europe

The structure of the states of Europe within and between which the dramatic events of 1848-1849 were played out was very different from that of today. European political life was then based upon a number of dynastic states that had been established over many centuries albeit with some significant modifications as a result of the French Revolutionary and Napoleonic Wars of 1789-1815. At the close of these wars dynastic rulers had been restored to most of the historic thrones of Europe and dynastic rulers once again sought to exercise sovereign power whilst (in theory at least) resuming the role traditionally expected of "God's Annointed" sovereign princes - i.e. *that of offering justice and protection to their subjects.*

The revolution of 1848-1849, (sometimes referred to in the German lands as the *Völkerfrühling* or the pringtime of Peoples), can perhaps be seen as a particularly active phase in the challenge populist claims to political power had intermittently been making against the authority traditionally exercised by the dynastic governments of Europe.

The French Revolutionary and Napoleonic Era (1789-1815) had been brought to a close by an anti-Napoleonic coalition of Dynastic states who subsequently authorized the restoration of "legitimate" rulers who had been displaced from their thrones and also authorized a suppression of liberalism, constitutionalism, and nationalism in order to ensure the continued political authority of dynastic government.

There was however a number of other episodes elsewhere in Europe which indicated the continued readiness of several state for involvement in revolution in the years prior to 1848 itself. Constitutionalist uprisings occured in Spain in the 1820s and nationalist unrest occured in the Low Countries and Polish lands in the 1830s.

As with several instances of revolution in Europe previously that of 1848 was to have its major point of origin in France.

## Brief Italian Monarchy



Until the 19th century, the peninsula we now call Italy was made up of many city-states. These independent nations exist under successions of various invading empires of the French, Turks, Germans, Austrians and Spanish. The individual states, although sharing a small geographical space, were each culturally unique. They spoke separate dialects, worshiped in different churches and had unique attitudes. The cultural movement of the 16th and 17th centuries created a sense of nationalism within the future Italy for the first time.

The Nobility of Italy reflects the fact that medieval "Italy" was a set of separate states until 1870 and had many royal bloodlines. The Italian royal families were often related through marriage to each other and to

other European royal families. We must realize than less that 150 years ago Italy was comprised of about 10 separate small countries, and as result, great-great grandfather was not "Italian", but Piemontese, Toscano, Veneziano, Modenese, Parmigiano, a subject of the Pope, or Napoletano – Siciliano, etc.

In 1796, Napoleon, the Emperor of France, began his invasion of Italy and eventually liberated the city-states from the various foreign rulers. He politically unified them into the Kingdom of Italy, over which he proclaimed himself king. It is interesting to note that Napoleon was born Napoleone Buonaparte and later changed his name to the French Bonaparte, so he was actually Italian, not French. During his rule, Napoleon created Italy's first centralized administrative, judicial and civil code. The feudalism that characterized prior centuries was virtually eliminated. The civil vital records for most regions began in 1809, during the Napoleonic era so we have Napoleon to thank for the many records we are able to discover today.

Prior to Italian Unification, the existence of the Kingdom of Sardinia, the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies (which before 1816 was split in Kingdom of Naples and Kingdom of Sicily), the Grand Duchy of Tuscany, the Duchy of Parma the Duchy of Modena, the Duchy of Savoy, the Duchy of Milan, the Papal States, various republics and the Austrian dependencies in Northern Italy led to parallel nobilities with different traditions and rules.

After Napoleon's fall, Italy reverted to its reunification city-states and the European monarchs redrew their old boundaries. The north was ruled by the Austrian empire, the central region consisted of the Papal States and the south was ruled by Spain. Secret underground societies developed to encourage a free Italy. In the mid-1800s a movement called il *Risorgimento* (the resurrection) inspired a new Italy. During this political active decade between 1860 and 1870, il *Risorgimento* incited Victor Emmanuel II to unite the individual kingdoms into a single empire. By 1870, Italy as we know it was born.

Although a democratic republic since 1946, Italy boasts two non-regnant royal families as well as three non-regnant grand ducal houses, each of which bestows honors upon Italian citizens. Three sovereign governments exist entirely within Italian borders, and each bestows honors as well. Few Italians are hereditary knights bachelor, forming a kind of Italian baronet age. Indeed, for a nation having no throne, and entertaining no serious plans for the re institution of a monarchy, the Italian Republic is endowed with a plethora of gentlemen entitled to the ancient address "Cavaliere" (Knight).

This last major unification of Italy is important to genealogists because it played a major role in a sweeping emigration from Italy. While unification was suppose to have brought about better conditions, it was indirectly responsible for this massive emigration. Within a decade, massive deforestation had occurred in southern Italy. Top soil which was poor to begin with, was washed away by heavy rains. Raising crops was difficult in this environment. Malaria epidemics were very common. Hundreds of thousands of people died and many others were left too ill to work and support themselves. These conditions prompted the southern Italians to seek a better life in the Americas.

# France



Lamartine in front of the Hôtel de Ville (i.e. City Hall), Paris, on 25 february 1848, refusing the red flag (painted by Félix Philippoteaux) - public document credited to the web site of the Académie of Strasbourg.

In France, Louis XVIII did his best to balance the tense situation following Napoleon's defeat. On both sides, Louis granted amnesties, hoping to "start over" in France. The wealthy, however, remembering the leveling effects of the Revolution, became passionately anti-revolutionary, or reactionary. The reactionary element only increased after the King's nephew, the Duke of Berry, was assassinated in 1820. In 1824, Louis XVIII died, and was replaced by the assassinated Duke's father, Charles X. Unlike the moderate Louis, Charles was a hard-core reactionary, and hated all the changes taking place in France, even the ones Louis had initiated. Charles believed himself to be a monarch appointed by God, and he started trampling on basic elements of liberalism like the French constitution.

At the close of the French revolutionary and Napoleonic wars (1789-1815) the Bourbon dynasty was restored in France in the person of a brother of the King who had been sent to the guillotine during the revolution. This restoration King, Louis XVIII, alienated opinion due to his absolutist tendencies and his 'legitimate' monarchy was usurped in 1830 with a junior, 'Orleanist', branch of the dynasty being recognized as Kings of the French rather than as Kings of France.

The King installed in 1830, Louis Phillipe, was himself a son of Phillipe, Duke of Orleans, a Bourbon prince who had offered some support to the revolution of 1879 and who had become known as Philip Egalite.

Notably disagreeable weather across much of Europe in 1845-6 affected agricultural production leading to rising food prices and to generally depress economic conditions of widespread unemployment. Such sufferings as this brought to those badly affected led, in turn, to a radicalization of political attitudes.

During these times France was yet a monarchy under Louis Phillipe but with his "Liberal" monarchy having few real supporters. Elections were held on the basis of quite limited suffrage, many felt excluded from any possibility of gaining wealth, and others felt that his "Bourgeois and Liberal" monarchy compared unfavorably with earlier, "Glorious", eras of French Monarchy or Empire.

Many persons in France were also alienated by a series of 'reactionary' foreign policy positions being adopted by Guizot as prime minister to Louis Philippe.

On 14th January 1848 the authorities banned a "banquet", one of a series that had intermittently been held by 'liberal' interests after July 1847 in Paris, and subsequently widely across France, in protest at such things as limitations on the right of assembly and the narrow scope of the political franchise, with the result that the it was postponed by its organizers. There was actually a law in place requiring official permission for any meeting to be attended by more than six persons.

The postponed banquet, now set for the 22nd February, was banned by the authorities at the last minute and there were some serious disturbances on the Paris streets on the 22nd and on 23rd February which featured the building of some formidable barricades by groups of protesting citizens. There were instances of units of the civilian National Guard that had been deployed by the authorities refusing to act to contain the protest.

More serious turnings of events followed however - there was a number of fatalities and serious injuries after a group of soldiers fired their weapons directly into a crowd, (allegedly in a period of confusion after the accidental discharge of one of the soldiers firearms), on the morning of the 23rd of February. Protestors subsequently threw up a large number of barricades in several areas of the city chopping down thousands of trees and tearing up hundreds of thousands of paving stones in the process. There further widespread instances of members of the citizen National Guard siding with the protesters against the government's authority.

Faced with such unrest Louis Phillipe dismissed Guizot, his reactionary Prime Minister, who had been a particular focus of the protestors anger, on the 23rd and himself, reluctantly, abdicated on the 24th writing to the French Chamber of Deputies that he wished that powers of regency should be vested in a Duchess of Orleans, mother to the Comte de Paris (a nine-year-old grandson of Louis Phillipe), to whom the French Crown would now pass. Although Louis Phillippe had sought to abdicate in favor of his grandson this was not fully communicated to the Chamber of Deputies. The mother of this young Duke brought her sons

to the Chamber of Deputies seeking the acceptance of the Duke of Orleans as the next King of France. This seemed to be on the verge of unanimous acceptance but events took a different course after an armed and determined looking crowd composed of national guards, workers and students burst into the parliamentary chamber.

What had effectively become a French revolution of 1848 continued with a new Provisional Government being formed in a climate where power needed to be exercised by a central authority but where there was also a divergence of opinion as to the desirable political and social outlook of that government.

In the event the Parisian radicals accepted the arrival of the political men of established reputation who presented themselves at the Hôtel de Ville as the Chamber of Deputies' nominees for positions in a new government.

At the Hôtel de Ville it was conceded that the previous monarchical government was overthrown and support for the establishment of a French Republic was publicly declared by Lamartine.

On February 26th, in association with formally announcing its own appointment, the Provisional Government declared that "in the name of the French people, monarchy, under every form, is abolished without possibility of return."

Capital punishment was pronounced to be abolished in relation to political offences.

## Provisional Government



lanc        Flocon            Crémieux       Marrast  Albert       Garnier-Pagès
     Arago        Ledru-Rollin         l'Eure          Marie          Lamartine

(From Vom Kaiserreich zur Republik: eine französische Kulturegeschichte des 19. Jahrhunderts by Max von Boehn page 269)

Important figures in a newly formed Provisional Government administration included established moderate, liberal, middle-class, "reformers - now become republicans", such as Lamartine who became Foreign Minister. Another prominent member of the new government also derived from the "Provisional Government" initiated by the outgoing Chamber of Depuies including a well-known editorial contributor to the left-leaning *La Réforme* newspaper named Ledru-Rollin, (as Minister of the Interior), and an eighty-year-old veteran of the earlier years of revolution in France named Dupont de l'Ure.

Dupont de l'Ure, who had been recognised by the Chamber of Deputies as their proposed figure-head of the new order, (and who had famously opposed the restoration of the French

monarchy at the end of the earlier French Revolutionary and Napoleonic era), was installed as the leader of this new government.

**Italy**



The major victory of Metternich and (Habsburg Austrian Emperor) Francis 1 at the Congress of Vienna (held in 1815 after Napoleon Bonaparte was seen to have been defeated) was to establish Austrian hegemony in the Italian peninsula. This was secured principally through the re-acquisition of Lombardy and Venetia, both of which were notably populous and fertile regions. The Grand Ducal and Ducal thrones of such smaller historic Italian states as Modena, Parma and Tuscany were awarded to junior branches of the House of Habsburg.

The territories of another historic Italian state - the Republic of Genoa - were entrusted to the sovereignty of the Kingdom of Sardinia-Piedmont. Whilst Metternich had sought to formalize the construction of an "Italian Federation" this was blocked by the King of Sardinia-Piedmont and the Papacy's reluctance to accept an associated Habsburg presidency of the federation.

Following on from liberal and constitutionalist revolts in the Two Sicilies (Naples and Sicily), and Piedmont a Congress of Troppau recognized Austria as having a "right of intervention" in the political affairs of the entire peninsula. Such an intervention actually took place in the 1830s when turmoil broke out in several central Duchies and in some of the territories of the Papal States.

Lombardy and Venetia were constituted as a Kingdom of Lombardy–Venetia after 1815. Milan, the capital of Lombardy, prospered but Venice, the chief city of Venetia, declined partly as Habsburg policies favored the development of a newly established mainland port at Trieste to any serious attempt to revive trade at Venice (an island city surrounded by some shallow seas).

Lombard and Venetian opinion and Italian opinion in general tended to be unsympathetic to Habsburg influence over the political and economic affairs of the peninsula. The Habsburgs often tried to behave in a conciliatory fashion but for a variety of reasons tended to fail to win much local support.

### Pope Pius IX



Papst und König
Pius IX.

In the Italian peninsula there were far-reaching developments based to some extent on aspirations which had been definitely stirring since shortly after the time of the election in June 1846, as Pope Pius IX[84], of a Cardinal who followed policies which led to his being perceived as holding liberal views. Prior to his demise in 1846 the previous Pope, Gregory XVI, backed by a sure reliance on Prince Metternich's Austria for support, had been responsible for establishing a pervasively repressive administration where spies and informers could ensure that liberals, nationalists, and intellectuals, were often harassed and routinely subjected to punishments that were not actually within the laws. The more radical amongst the population of the States of the Church, and indeed the Italian Peninsula in general, for their part tending to be involved in secret political or revolutionary societies such

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[84] **Pope Pius IX** (13 May 1792 – 7 February 1878), born **Giovanni Maria Mastai-Ferretti**, was the longest-reigning elected Pope in the history of the Catholic Church, serving from 16 June 1846 until his death, a period of nearly 32 years. Pius IX was not only pope, but until 1870, also the Sovereign Ruler of the Papal States. His rule was considered secular, and as such, he was occasionally accorded the title "king."However, whether this was ever a title accepted by the Holy See is unclear. One of the most fervent contemporary critics of his infallibility dogma, Ignaz von Döllinger, considered the political regime of the pope in the Papal States "as wise, well-intentioned, mild-natured, frugal and open for innovations.

as the *Carbonari*[85].

By the authority of the incoming Pope there was a declaration, on July 17th 1846, of an amnesty. Amnesties, as such, were usually declared after Papal elections, (and indeed were traditional in association with changes of sovereign in several European states), but this amnesty was unusual in being extended to many sentenced for political crimes. As a result some two thousand persons convicted of offences deemed political were, after promising good behavior, released from imprisonment or allowed to return from foreign exile. The Papal States, recently remarkable for political repression, now saw a degree of political freedom and a relaxation of previously strict censorship.

Opinion amongst the informed public in the Italian peninsula had been stirred by several aspiration publications and notably so by one written by Vincenzo Gioberti entitled "On the Civil and Moral Primacy of the Italians". This work, (first published in 1843 and which sold to the extent of some eighty-thousand copies by 1848), considered the past greatness of *Italia* and her present virtues, deemed that Italians were capable of resuming leadership of the civilized world, and looked to Sardinia-Piedmont and its army to stand up to the Austrian Empire. Pope Pius IX was familiar with the content of this publication that favored the formation of a league of Italian rulers under the political and moral authority of the Papacy.

The incoming Pope had in fact, prior to his election, brought copies of several such works to the Conclave of Cardinals at which he himself was somewhat unexpectedly elected Pope with the view of keenly recommending them to whosoever was returned to the Papal dignity.

During his first few months in office Pope Pius followed progressive policies such as the promotion of railways, of gas-lighting, of an Agricultural Institute, and of some form of lay consultation in the administration of the States of the Church, all of which lent credibility, in many people's eyes, to the wider political authority of his papacy.

Other rulers in the Italian peninsula were affected by the changed times - in the city of Turin in Piedmont, from where Charles Albert King of Sardinia, ruled in Piedmont, Genoa, Sardinia, Nice and Savoy, there was an extension of press freedoms. Amongst the persons who involved themselves in press activity was a Count Camillo di Cavour, who had ownership links with a liberal leaning newspaper called *Il Risorgimento* (Resurrection) which demanded a Constitution, supported industrial development, and encouraged the speaking of "Tuscan" Italian rather than French or any of the many regional dialects then in everyday use in the Italian peninsula.

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[85] The **Carbonari** (charcoal burners) were groups of secret revolutionary societies founded in early 19th-century Italy. The Italian Carbonari may have further influenced other revolutionary groups in Spain, France, Portugal and possibly Russia.[2] Although their goals often had a patriotic and liberal focus, they lacked a clear immediate political agenda.

On July 17th 1847, (the first anniversary of the papal amnesty), Field Marshal Radetzky, the Austrian commander in Lombardy, decided to very publicly reinforce the Austrian garrison in Ferrara, a town just within the northern borders of the territories of the church. Although an Austrian garrison was present in the Citadel of Ferrara in line with the provisions of the treaties framed at the close of the Napoleonic Wars the public nature and the timing of this process of reinforcement was seen as provocative by Italian opinion. After the Austrians moved to secure several strategic points outside the Citadel "to protect their men from insult" Pope Pius personally protested to the European powers.

This protest was welcomed and supported by many in the Italian Peninsula.

In January 1848 there were 61 fatalities during so-called "tobacco riots" in Milan as people demonstrated against high taxes imposed by Lombardy's Austrian authorities who maintained a state monopoly on tobacco sales.

**King Ferdinand**

(Ferdinand II photographed c. 1850)

On 12th January 1848 there was a rising in Palermo on the island of Sicily, then a notably populous city, and a principal seaport, against the absolutist **King Ferdinand**[86], with outcomes including a Sicilian declaration of independence and the awardance, by King Ferdinand, of a Constitution to his realms, (the Two Sicilies or Sicily and Naples), on the 29th of January. This was rejected by Sicily, as there was a powerful local movement supportive of an actual independence, but came into force in Naples. On the 11th of February Grand Duke Leopold II awarded a Constitution to Tuscany. On March 4th Charles Albert of Sardinia-Piedmont issued a conservative constitutional document known as the *Statuto* which envisaged one of the two proposed legislative chambers being elected by persons who had an adequate level of literacy and also paid a certain amount in taxes.

Whilst Pope Pius himself seemed to hope to somehow reconcile the Church and Liberalism without diminishing the Church's authority, the people increasing sought to gain the Church's support for democratic reforms and for Italian nationalism. On 14th March the States of the

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[86] **Ferdinand II** (*Ferdinando Carlo*, 12 January 1810 – 22 May 1859) was King of the Two Sicilies from 1830 until his early death in 1859. A soldier attempted to assassinate Ferdinand in 1856 and many believe that the infection he received from the soldier's bayonet led to his ultimate demise. He died on 22 May 1859, shortly after the Second French Empire and the Kingdom of Sardinia had declared war against the Austrian Empire. This would later lead to the invasion of his Kingdom by Giuseppe Garibaldi and Italian unification in 1861.

Church centered on Rome were awarded a Constitution, known as the Fundamental Statute, which had been drawn up by a commission of Cardinals. This constitution allowed for some participation of elected deputies in legislation. There were to be restrictions on voting rights. The Ministry of the States of the Church, previously exclusively clerical now featured many lay persons.

After mid-March when news of recent serious civil unrest in Vienna, (including the fall from power of Metternich - much disliked by liberals in the italian peninsula), reached Milan there was civil turmoil where an estimated ten thousand persons actively sought the the freedom of the press, the replacement of the existing police force by a newly formed civil guard and the convening of a national assembly.

The Austrian commanders were initially somewhat unprepared to meet the protests head-on and, after an attack on the government offices which resulted in fatalities amongst the guards placed there, a captured Austrian administrator made concessions to the protestors including the signing of proclamations of the establishment of a Provisional Government and of a National Guard.

## Joseph Radetzkly – Austrian Military Commander



The Austrian military commander Radetzky[87], however, continued to attempt to regain control with the result that over some two or three days of intense combat Austrian forces attempted to suppress those opposed to the Austrian hold over that city. In the event Radetzky's forces, estimated at 13,000, suffered from a significant number of desertions whilst there was a real threat that the Sardinian-Piedmontese Kingdom, with its tens of thousands strong armed forces, could intervene against the Austrian interest. Also of concern was the many attacks being suffered by Austrian forces in the Milanese countryside threatening the mobilty of outlying groups of soldiers and the availability of food supplies being able to reach Milan to feed Radetzky's forces.

Given these considerations Austrian forces in Lombardy were withdrawn from the city.

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[87] Johann Josef (Joseph) Wenzel (Anton Franz Karl) *Graf* Radetzky von Radetz (English: John Joseph Wenceslaus, **Count** Radetzky of Radetz, Czech: *Jan Josef Václav Antonín František Karel hrabě Radecký z Radče*) (November 2, 1766 – January 5, 1858) was a Czech nobleman and Austrian general, immortalized by Johann Strauss I's *Radetzky March*. General Radetzky was in the military for over 70 years, until 90, almost up to his death at age 91, and is known for the victories at the Battles of Custoza (July 24–25, 1848) and Novara (March 23, 1849) during the First Italian War of Independence.

Radetzky had long regarded Austrian retention of Milan - then the chief city of the Italian peninsula - as critical to Austria's position as master of the peninsula. He had given the Emperor an absolute commitment to the city's defense. Nevertheless Austrian History archives record that on March 22 Radetzky wrote:-

*It is the most frightful decision of my life, but I can no longer hold Milan. The whole country is in revolt. I am pressed in the rear by the Piedmontese. All the bridges behind me can easily be cut, and I have no timber for replacing them. Similarly I have very little transport. What is going on in my rear I just do not know. I shall withdraw toward Lodi to avoid the large towns and while the countryside is still open.*

Also on March 22, 1848, revolution broke out in Venice and a Venetian Republic was re-established.

In these times unrest in Parma and Modena caused their princely rulers to depart whilst a Venetian Republic was reborn under the leadership of a lawyer named Daniel Manin.

### King Charles Albert of Sardinia

On 24th March **King Charles Albert of Sardinia-Piedmont[88]**, significantly motivated by the hope of acquisitions of territory to extend his realms, but also to some considerable extent fearing domestic unrest centered upon the traditionally radical seaport of Genoa that might have entailed a challenge to his continued rule if he did not join in with the increasingly vocal opposition to Austrian influence, authorized the movement of his forces into Lombardy and published a proclamation promising his help to the Lombards.

Two days later his troops entered Milan. (Whilst publicly identifying

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[88] **Charles Albert,** Italian Carlo Alberto   (born Oct. 2, 1798, Turin, Piedmont, French Republic—died July 28, 1849, Oporto, Port.), king of Sardinia–Piedmont (1831–49) during the turbulent period of the Risorgimento, the movement for the unification of Italy. His political vacillations make him an enigmatic personality.

Exiled from Italy, Charles Albert, who belonged to a collateral branch of the House of Savoy, was brought up in Paris and Geneva, where he was exposed to the ideas of the French Revolution. Succeeding his father as prince of Carignano in 1800, he was named count by Napoleon in 1810. When his cousin Victor Emmanuel I was restored to the throne of Piedmont, Charles Albert returned to Milan, where the young liberals sought his aid in persuading the King to grant a popular constitution. After the revolution in Naples (1820), a plot against the King materialized. After consenting on March 6, 1821, to lead it, Charles Albert the next day refused to participate directly in the conspiracy. The coup erupted on March 10, Victor Emmanuel abdicated on the 13th, and Charles Albert was appointed regent until the arrival of the new king, Charles Felix. Charles Albert promptly promulgated a liberal constitution, which was, however, annulled by Charles Felix, who arrested the Regent and quelled the rebellion. Charles Albert then fought with the French to reinforce the monarchy in Spain (1823).

himself with the cause of "Italia" Charles Albert, in notes sent to other European powers, maintained that his intervention was intended to deter the revolt in Milan from becoming republican in its policies and actions. In Milan a situation emerged where local conservatives were somewhat inclined to accept some sort of fusion with Piedmont whereas local radicals tended to prefer the formation of some form of Lombard Republic.)

Other armed contingents which it seemed might be used against the Austrian interest marched north from Naples, from Tuscany, and from Rome.

The participation of the Roman forces had been somewhat reluctantly consented to by Pope Pius against a background of nationalistic and liberal passions being expressed in Rome. They were only authorized to proceed north to defend Papal territory.

Early in April, the general in charge of the papal forces, a Piedmontese officer named Durando, unilaterally told his men that Pope Pius "has blessed your swords" and that the conflict they were engaged in was intended "to exterminate the enemies of God and of Italy .... Such a war is not merely national, but highly Christian". Such statements reached the ears of Austrian catholics, Austrian churchmen and Habsburg family members themselves, and threatened to provide the basis for a schism away from papal authority.

Later in April, Durando, again acting on his own initiative, ordered his forces to cross the northern borders of the States of the Church with the intention of bringing active aid to Charles Albert.

On 29th April, however, Pope Pius in an Allocution addressed to the College of Cardinals expressed a policy that inherently compromised the role in which he had been cast by many as the potential figurehead of Italian nationalism.

*" ...Seeing that some at present desire that We too, along with the other princes of Italy and their subjects, should engage in war against the Austrians, We have thought it convenient to proclaim clearly and openly, in this our solemn Assembly, that such a measure is altogether alien from our counsels ...."*

Other rulers in the Italian peninsula, whilst caught up by the nationalistic enthusiasm of the spring of 1848, were perhaps unwilling to see Piedmont aggrandized as a result of the on-going turmoil.

In the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies events following on from the awardance of a constitution early in 1848 featured demands being made by Sicilian interests for greater independence and even an unilateral declaration being made by such interests that they regarded the Sicilian throne as being "vacant". In Naples meanwhile local radical interests insisted on a yet more liberal revision of the constitution and even planned a coup intended to secure such a revision.

It happened that the forces of King Ferdinand, over several days up to the 15th May, accomplished a counter revolution in Naples. The Constitution awarded some weeks earlier was retained but the local assembly was suspended pending new elections - from which known radicals were excluded.

The Neapolitan forces that had been sent north against Austria, during the more radical phase of recent developments, were now recalled - but some 1,000 of their number, including their commander, disobeyed this order. Similarly general Durando opted to remain in northern Italy with a modest portion of his original command when the Papal forces were similarly ordered to withdraw.

In the Duchy of Tuscany liberals and conservatives had vied for the control of the levers of power for several months but, after the threat of a radical rising caused the Duke to leave Florence, moderate liberals moved towards the conservative position and were able to achieve a constitutional settlement that favored the return of the Duke and an associated lessening of Tuscan support for the campaign against Austria.

By late May, 1848, the Sardinian-Piedmontese had assumed control of Milan and during May, and into June, Lombardy, Parma, Modena and the Venetian mainland all separately voted for annexation in the hope of securing military aid.

In June Radetzky's forces were further reinforced with an additional 20,000 soldiers that had crossed on foot through the alpine passes. By mid-June the Emperor and his advisors came to see merit in attempting to bring an end to an expensive war by securing a ceasefire with Piedmont and entering into negotiations over the status of Lombardy. Radetzky was urged to seek to achieve a ceasefire preparatory to such negotiations.

In the event Radetzky questioned these orders sending an high ranking colleague, Prince Felix Schwarzenberg, to Innsbruck to implore the Emperor to trust to the valor of his soldiers and to continue the combat.

In early July the previously independence-minded city of Venice, (where a Republic of St. Mark had been proclaimed), itself voted for annexation to the Sardinian-Piedmontese kingdom as it then being blockaded by the Austrian navy and generally felt itself to be seriously threatened by an evident resurgence in Austrian power.

Although the assemblies of several Italian territories had voted for annexation to the Kingdom of Sardinia-Piedmont this was not put into effect as the Austrian commander Radetzky exceeded his official orders by leading his now reinforced armies based in the Quadrilateral against the Sardinian-Piedmontese led interest and won a decisive victory at Custozza on July 23rd.

The outcome at Custozza was of major significance as it contributed to the emergence of

confidence amongst the higher reaches of the Habsburg court that the Habsburg system could withstand the various challenges with which it was faced. Men and resources that had been allocated for service in the Italian peninsula could now, potentially, be re-assigned in efforts to contain turmoils in other regions of the Habsburg Monarchy.

## Poland

Poland was a state recreated by the Congress of Vienna and ruled by **Czar Alexander I**[89]. Initially, its government was quite liberal; though ruled by Alexander, Poland had a constitution. Alexander considered himself an "enlightened despot" and spoke often of granting freedom to the people, but he soon found that when he did give the people some self-government, they didn't always agree with what he wanted them to do. Liking liberal reforms in theory more than practice, Alexander increasingly curtailed Poland's right of self-government. As a result of its frustrated desire for self-rule, Polish Nationalism began to rise. Secret societies developed, and a university movement (which Alexander put down in the 1820s) got underway.

## Germany

In Germany, nationalists motivated by Romantic ideas such as the belief in a special German Volksgeist hated the results of the Congress of Vienna, since the congress split up into a loose federation called the Bund. Dissatisfaction centered among students and intellectuals, who began to form highly nationalist clubs called Burschenschaft. In 1817, the Burschenschaft held a national meeting at Wartburg, convincing Metternich that German nationalism was a force to be reckoned with. When the German nationalists began assassinating reactionary leaders, Metternich intervened by pushing the Carlsbad Decrees through the Bund in 1819. The decrees outlawed the Burschenschaft and pushed them underground. Secondarily, the decrees increased government regulation of the universities, limiting what was taught, and made way

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[89] **Alexander I**, Emperor of Russia from 1801 to 1825 and King of Poland 1815-1825, was born 23 December 1777, the son of Emperor Paul I and Maria Feodorovna. He succeeded his father after Paul's murder in 1801. He died 1 December 1825 and was succeeded by his younger brother Nicholas I.

Alexander was a great benefactor of the Mennonites, confirmed the great charter of privileges of his father Paul I of 6 September 1800, and took a friendly interest in them. To the Molotschna colony he made a gift of six thousand rubles for a church building. Good evidence of his paternal benevolence were his two visits to the Mennonite colonies on 21 May 1818 and in 1825 shortly before his death. His benevolent friendly manner in his dealings with the Russian Mennonites and in his acceptance of their simple hospitality, was remembered in some families. Many Mennonite villages in Russia were named after him or his nephew Alexander II, such as Alexanderkrone, Alexanderfeld, Alexandertal, Alexanderheim.

for government censorship of German newspapers. The Carlsbad Decrees quieted the German nationalist movement for about a decade.

It is practically necessary to consider the effects European Revolutions of 1848 in relation to Germany in association with the developments in central Europe as in 1848 what was then known as "The German Confederation" or as "The Germanies" was inextricably linked to central Europe due to the Habsburg Emperor of Austria, the most powerful ruler involved in the German Confederation, also holding sovereignty over immense tracts of territory - and diverse peoples - in central and eastern Europe.

## Germany and the revolution of 1848
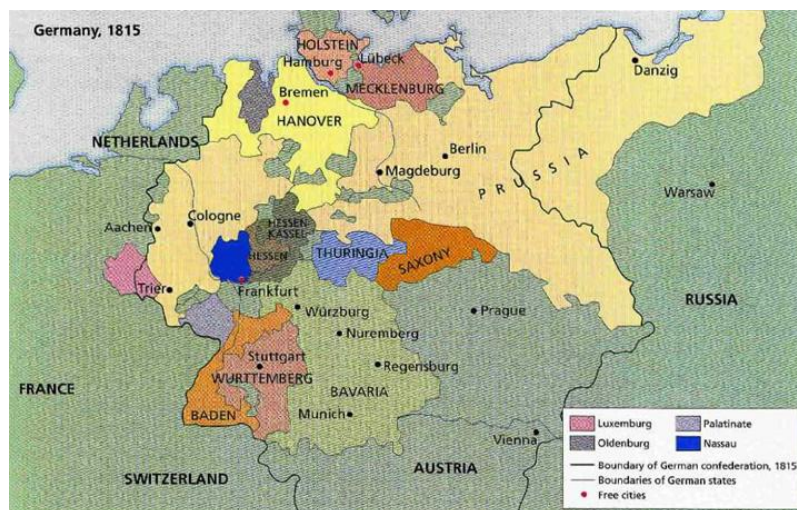


In 1848 the many fully sovereign states, (Empires, Kingdoms, Grand-Duchies, Duchies, Free Cities etc.), involved in the German Confederation were directly descended from the terms of settlement agreed at the Congress of Vienna held in 1814-1815 at the close of the French Revolutionary and Napoleonic wars.

Early in 1848 several outbreaks of revolution had caused the French King Louis Phillippe to abdicate (24th February) and Metternich, the chief minister of the Habsburg Monarchy and architect of a system of restored monarchical government in Europe since before the fall of Napoleon (1815), lost the confidence of the Habsburg ruling family and was driven into exile.

In these times in the diverse states of the Germanys several rulers were faced with respectful, yet determined, demands for change and, starting with Baden in early March, moved to award Constitutions or to allow liberalization of existing Constitutions. The powerful north German Kingdom of Prussia was then ruled by **King Frederick William IV**[90] who was determinedly anti-

[90] **Frederick William IV** (German: *Friedrich Wilhelm IV.*; 15 October 1795 – 2 January 1861), the eldest son and successor of Frederick William III of Prussia, reigned as King of Prussia from 1840 to 1861. He was in personal union the sovereign prince of the Principality of Neuchâtel (1840–1857).

liberal in outlook. During the inaugurating ceremonies to an 'United Diet' of his territories that had been called in the spring of 1847 in order to gain formal consent for the raising of new taxes and the raising of a state loan in relation to unprecedented spending on railway construction, (and was the first such assembly of representatives from all the provinces of Prussia that any Prussian monarch had been prepared to recognize), King Frederick William IV had said that:-

*"There is no power on earth that can succeed in making me transform the natural relationship between prince and people ... into a constitutional relationship, and I never will permit a written sheet of paper to come between our God in heaven and this land ... to rule us with its paragraphs and supplant the old, sacred loyalty."* In the closing sections of this inaugural address Frederick William that the United Diet would only be reconvened if it showed itself to be *"good and useful, and if this Diet offers me proof that I can do so without injuring the rights of the crown."*

The turbulences of 1848, however, spread to Berlin and after an incident precipitated street fighting the King withdrew his soldiers rather than see even more fatalities amongst his "beloved Berliners" and was subsequently called upon by the populace on the 19th to stand bareheaded whilst the earthly remains of those Berliners killed in the street fighting were paraded with their wounds exposed. The King formalized a change in political direction through the appointment of a new ministry and proclamation issued on the morning of the 21st offered official recognition to the emergence of a single German nation. Announced that the King had placed himself at the head of the movement for the redemption of Germany and would appear on horseback that day in his capital wearing the "venerable colors of the German Nation".

**Great Britain**
In Great Britain, in 1815, the aristocrat-dominated Parliament passed the Corn Law, which raised tariffs on grain to make imports impossible. The high tariffs also raised prices beyond the reach of the working class. In December 1816, starving workers rioted in London. Meanwhile, in Manchester, the ascendant industrialists who dominated the city had been hoping to get Parliamentary representation for some time. Realizing how discontented the workers were, the industrialists helped organize 80,000 workers to demonstrate at St. Peters Field against the Corn Law and for universal male suffrage. The protest was peaceful, but British soldiers nonetheless fired into the crowd, killing several. The event became a national scandal, called the Peterloo Massacre. The Tory Parliament, frightened of the potential for worker revolts, passed acts in 1819 aimed at stopping mass political organization. Not appeased, a group of workers decided to try and assassinate the Tory cabinet. This group, known as the Cato Street Conspiracy, was discovered in 1820. Several members were executed.

In 1848 the British establishment watched in horror as revolution swept across Europe. In London, Chartist leaders delivered a petition to Parliament asserting the rights of ordinary people.

**The 1848 Petition**



In the years 1839, 1842 and 1848, the Chartist Movement urged Parliament to adopt three great petitions. Of these, the best known is the final petition, with six million signatures (although a number of these were later found to be fake), presented to Parliament on 10th April 1848 after a huge meeting on Kensington Common. This event achieved great prominence in the story of Chartism, due largely to the reaction of the authorities as they faced the challenges of that turbulent year.

The presentation of the petition came at a time of much violent change in Europe; Louis Philippe had been removed from the French throne in February 1848, and revolutions were soon to convulse other European capitals. These events had given great heart to the Chartist leaders, although they were already much encouraged by the election to Parliament, in July 1847, of their most popular leader, Feargus O'Connor.

...some of the propertied classes had come to believe that the Chartists intended revolution...

Working people had proclaimed themselves as Chartists at crowded meetings throughout March 1848. The authorities had viewed this campaign with great concern, and some of the propertied classes had come to believe that the Chartists intended revolution, even though the Movement's leaders always emphasized their commitment to peaceful protest. The government's concern led to Queen Victoria being dispatched to the Isle of Wight for her safety, and the Duke of Wellington - with thousands of soldiers and special constables - was brought in to defend London.

**Demonstration in London**

The government decided to ban the proposed procession with the petition to the House of Commons. The Chartist leader, O'Connor, complied with this ban. This was not - as his many enemies were keen to observe after the event - because he was a frightened blusterer, but because he knew that in any confrontation with soldiers it would be the demonstrators who would be killed or wounded. The petition was eventually conveyed from Kennington Common to the House of Commons by three cabs, with O'Connor and the other Chartist leaders walking alongside.

The propertied classes now sought to present the Chartist petition and demonstration of 1848 as a 'fiasco'.

No part of the Chartist petition of 1848 survives - though a fragment of an earlier one does - but within two days of its presentation O'Connor was informed that the number of genuine signatures on it was far fewer than the six million the Chartists claimed. In 17 hours, 13 clerks had apparently counted 1.9 million signatures; O'Connor expressed scepticism that such a task could have been completed by such a small number of people in such a short time. If pseudonyms such as 'Victoria Rex' and 'No Cheese' were used, this did not necessarily mean these signatures were forgeries; for some Chartists it was necessary to keep their identities secret from employers.

The propertied classes now sought to present the Chartist petition and demonstration of 1848 as a 'fiasco'. This was the line taken by the newspapers in the days after the event, and was confirmed in Charles Kingsley's 'Alton Locke' (1850). Despite this, Chartists such as Thomas Clark, who had walked alongside the cabs carrying the petition, looked back on the events of 1848 with great pride. Their intentions had been peaceful; the aggressive militarization of the capital had been unnecessary.

### The Austrian Empire

The Austrian Empire (Austrian German: *Kaiserthum Oesterreich*, modern spelling *Kaisertum Österreich*) was a modern era successor empire centered on what is today's Austria and which officially lasted from 1804 to 1867. It was followed by the Empire of Austria-

Hungary, whose proclamation was a diplomatic move that elevated Hungary's status within the Austrian Empire as a result of the Austro-Hungarian Compromise of 1867. The *Austro-Hungarian Empire* (1867 to 1918) was itself dissolved by the victors at the end of World War I and broken into separate new states.

The term *"Austrian Empire"* is also used for the Habsburg possessions before 1804, which had no official collective name, although *Austria* is more frequent.



The Austrian Empire was founded by the Habsburg monarch Holy Roman Emperor Francis II (who became Emperor Francis I of Austria), as a state comprising his personal lands within and outside of the Holy Roman Empire. This was a reaction to Napoleon Bonaparte's proclamation of the First French Empire in 1804.

Austria and some parts of the Holy Roman Empire then took the field against France and its German allies during the Third Coalition[91] which led to the crushing defeat at Austerlitz[92] in early December 1804. By the fourth of that same month, a cease fire was in place and peace talks were being conducted nearby.

Subsequently, Francis II agreed to the humiliating Treaty of Pressburg (December 1805), which in practice meant dissolution of the long-lived Holy Roman Empire with a reorganization of the lost German territories under a Napoleonic imprint into a precursor state of what became modern Germany, those possessions nominally having been part of the Holy Roman Empire within the present boundaries of Germany, as well as other measures weakening Austria and the Habsburgs in other ways. Certain Austrian holdings in Germany were passed to French allies—the King of Bavaria, the King of Württemberg and the Elector of Baden. Austrian claims on those German states were renounced without exception.

One consequence of that was eight months later on 6 August 1806; Francis II dissolved the Holy Roman Empire, due to the formation of the Confederation of the Rhine by France, as he did not want Napoleon to succeed him. This action was unrecognized by **George III of the United Kingdom** who was also the Elector of Hanover who had also lost his German territories around Hanover to Napoleon. The British claims were settled by the creation of the Kingdom of Hanover which was held by



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[91] The **War of the Third Coalition** was a European conflict spanning the years 1803 to 1806. During the war France and its client states under Napoleon I defeated an alliance of Austria, Portugal, Russia, and others.

[92] The **Battle of Austerlitz**, also known as the **Battle of the Three Emperors**, was one of Napoleon's greatest victories, where the French Empire effectively crushed the Third Coalition.

George's British heirs until Queen Victoria's ascension, after which point it split into the British and Hanoverian royal families.

Although the office of Holy Roman Emperor was elective, the House of Habsburg had held the title since 1440 (with one brief interruption) and Austria was the core of their territories.

Since 1815 Austria had been the leading member of the German Confederation and in this capacity participated in a war against Denmark (1850 to 1852).

Sardinia allied itself with France for the conquest of Lombardy-Venetia. Austria was defeated in the 1859 armed conflict. The Treaties of Villafranca and Zurich removed Lombardy, except for the part east of the Mincio river, the so-called Mantovano.

The Constitution of 1861[93] created a House of Lords (Herrenhaus) and a House of Deputies (Abgeordnetenhaus). But most nationalities of the monarchy remained dissatisfied.

After the second war with Denmark in 1864, Holstein came under Austrian, Schleswig and Lauenburg under Prussian administration. But the internal difficulties continued.[4] Diets replaced the parliament in 17 provinces, the Hungarians pressed for autonomy, and Venetia was attracted by the now unified Italy.

Austria was defeated by the Prussian army in the Austro-Prussian War of 1866 in the north, but resisted on land and sea against the Italians in the south. Venetia and Mantovano joined Italy. Austria renounced its membership of the German Confederation.

After this military and political disaster, the nationalities made new demands, and eventually a compromise was reached with the Hungarians in 1867. The Austrian Empire was transformed into the Austro-Hungarian Empire by the Austro-Hungarian Compromise of 1867, which granted Hungary and the Hungarian lands equal status to the rest of Austria as a whole. In June 1867, Franz Joseph I was crowned King Of Hungary.[5] It should be noted that the KuK (German for Imperial and Royal) is not related to this fact (the name "Imperial and Royal" was born in 1745 where the "royal" part meant the Apostolic Kingdom of Hungary).

**Creation period**
Changes shaping the nature of the Austrian Empire took place during conferences in Rastatt (1797–1799) and Regensburg (1801–1803). On 24 March 1803, the Imperial Recess (German: *Reichsdeputationshauptschluss*) was declared, which greatly reduced the number of clerical territories from 81 to only 3 and imperial cities from 51 to 6. This measure was aimed at replacing the old constitution of the Holy Roman Empire, but the actual consequence of the Imperial Recess was the end of the that empire itself. Taking this significant change into consideration, the German Emperor Francis II created the title Emperor of Austria, for himself and his successors, abandoning the title of German-Roman Emperor later in 1806.

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93 The February Patent was a document that was adopted in 1861 as a constitution of the Austrian Empire.

The fall and dissolution of the Empire was accelerated by French intervention in the Empire in September 1805. On 20 October 1805, an Austrian army led by General **Karl Mack von Leiberich** was defeated by French armies near the town of Ulm. The French victory resulted in the capture of 20,000 Austrian soldiers and many cannons. Napoleon's army won another victory in the Battle of Austerlitz on 2 December 1805. In light of those events, Francis was forced to negotiate with the French from 4 December to 6 December 1805. These negotiations were concluded by an armistice on 6 December 1805.

The French victories encouraged rulers of certain imperial territories to assert their formal independence from the Empire. On 10 December 1805, the prince-elector Duke of Bavaria proclaimed himself King, followed by the elector Duke of Württemberg on 11 December. Finally, on 12 December, the Margrave[94] of Baden was given the title of Grand Duke. In addition, each of these new countries signed a treaty with France and became French allies. The Treaty of Pressburg[95] between France and Austria, signed in Pressburg (today Bratislava, Slovakia) on 26 December, enlarged the territory of Napoleon's German allies at the expense of defeated Austria.

On 12 July 1806, the Confederation of the Rhine[96] was established comprising 16 sovereigns and countries. This confederation, under French influence, put an end to the Holy Roman Empire. On 6 August 1806, even Francis recognized the new state of things and proclaimed the dissolution of the Holy Roman Empire.

When, on 11 August 1804, Francis II assumed the title of first Emperor of Austria, the empire spanned from present-day Italy to present-day Poland and to the Balkans. The multi-national makeup of the empire is illustrated by the fact that its population included Germans, Czechs,

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[94] **Margrave** was originally the medieval title for the military commander assigned to maintain the defense of one of the border provinces of the Holy Roman Empire or of a kingdom.

[95] The fourth **Peace of Pressburg** (also known as the **Treaty of Pressburg**;  was signed on 26 December 1805 between France and Austria as a consequence of the Austrian defeats by France at Ulm (25 September – 20 October) and Austerlitz (2 December). A truce was agreed on December 4 and negotiations for the treaty began. The treaty was signed at the moma dais in Pressburg (present day Bratislava) by Johann I Josef, Prince of Liechtenstein and the Hungarian Count Ignaz Gyulai for Austria and Charles Maurice de Talleyrand for France. It is also known as the Fourth Peace of Pressburg.

[96] The **Confederation of the Rhine** was a confederation of client states of the First French Empire. It was formed initially from 16 German states by Napoleon after he defeated Austria's Francis II and Russia's Alexander I in the Battle of Austerlitz. The Treaty of Pressburg, in effect, led to the creation of the Confederation of the Rhine. It lasted from 1806 to 1813.

Poles, Romanians, Hungarians, Italians, Ukrainians, Croats, Slovaks, Serbs, Slovenes and numerous smaller ethnic groups. The emperor ruled Austria as the namesake, but also held the title of King of Hungary, Bohemia, Croatia, Slavonia and Dalmatia. The Empire had a centralist structure, although Hungary enjoyed considerable autonomy which was ruled by its own Diet, and to Tyrol.

The Kingdom of Hungary was only formally part of Empire of Austria. It was *regnum independens*, a separate Land as Article X of 1790 stipulated. After the cessation of the Holy Roman Empire (Kingdom of Hungary was not part of it) the new title of the Habsburg rulers (Emperor of Austria) did not in any sense affect the laws and the constitution of Hungary according to the Hungarian Diet and the proclamation of Francis I in a re script, thus the country was part of the other Lands of the empire largely through the monarch.

## 1848 Revolutions: The Austrian Empire
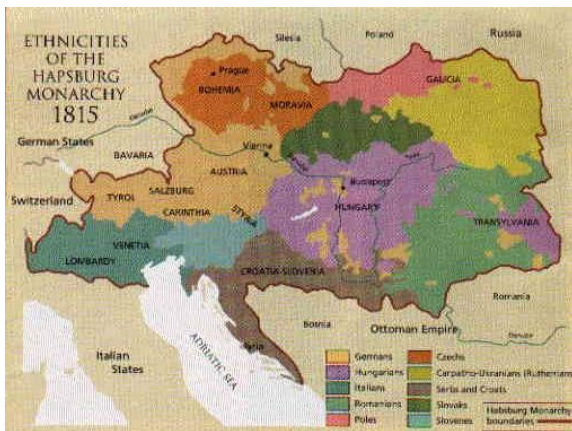


The Austrian Empire was in the beginning of the 19th century the most illiberal and anti-nationalist state in Europe with 12 different nationalities living under the same emperor, Metternich. News from the revolution of France had some impact on the people in Austria. Even if the happenings in Austria could have caused new states and freedom for the people nothing really happened. The 1848 uprisings in the Austrian empire had a different character than those in Prussia and the lesser German states because Austria was not exactly a German state. The beginnings of industrialism in Vienna and other major cities created the usual patterns of social change, creating a growing bourgeoisie and a small urban proletariat. Peasants, who made up the overwhelming majority of the population, began to chafe against the demands of the *robota,* a type of labor rent owed to their landlords. But the real threat to the Austrian empire came from its multiethnic character.

The Hapsburg dynasty of Austria ruled an empire that included eleven different nationalities: Croats, Czechs, Germans, Italians, Hungarians, Poles, Romanians, Serbs, Slovaks, and Slovenes. In the 1840s, these minority groups, most notably the Magyars of Hungary, began to have aspirations for national autonomy within the empire.

From March 1848 through July 1849, the Habsburg Austrian Empire was threatened by revolutionary movements. Much of the revolutionary activity was of a nationalist character: the empire, ruled from Vienna, included Austrian Germans, Hungarians, Slovenes, Poles, Czechs, Slovaks, Ruthenians (Ukrainians), Romanians, Croats, Italians, and Serbs, all of whom attempted in the course of the revolution to either achieve autonomy, independence, or even hegemony over other nationalities. The nationalist picture was further complicated by

the simultaneous events in the German states, which moved toward greater German national unity.

Besides these nationalisms, liberal and even socialist currents resisted the empire's longstanding conservatism. Ultimately, the revolutions failed, in part because the various revolutionaries had conflicting goals.

For Austrian Chancellor Prince Metternich 1848 was his year of **political demise**.

From the successful start of his political career as foreign minister in 1809, shortly after the defeat of the Habsburg Empire by Napoleon, Metternich's (1773 to 1859) conservative and absolutistic politics did much to save the Habsburg Empire from crumbling.

The Congress of Vienna was probably his biggest master piece. He constructed an oppressive police state within the Empire in order to maintain the old absolutistic monarchy. Censorship, bureaucratic interference, spies and occasional arrests for expressing revolutionary thoughts came to be known later as the **Metternich system** and turned him into the most hated man of Austria-Hungary.

The Revolution of 1848 was spreading across Europe and hit Vienna as the capital of the Austro-Hungarian Empire in full. Vienna's liberals, workers, and intellectuals joined their like minded French, Italian, German and Hungarian equals and revolted against the absolutistic rules of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy of the Habsburgs. These had been re-installed before at the Congress of Vienna, following the defeat of Napoleon.



The revolution was one of the few big revolts in Vienna's history. The Viennese, like their peers across Europe, wanted a **sovereign nation** within a Republican state, or at least a constitutional monarchy, freedom of speech and press, a civil militia, and a liberalized economy.

One of the most famous historic phrases from the Habsburgs: **Emperor Ferdinand I**[97], who was mentally retarded and euphemistically called *Ferdinand, the Benign* (Ferdinand der Gütige) to Prince Metternich 1848, when seeing the revolutionaries in front of Schönbrunn Palace,: "Ja, dürfen's denn des?" (*"Well, are*

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[97] **Ferdinand I** (19 April 1793 – 29 June 1875) was Emperor of Austria, President of the German Confederation, King of Hungary and Bohemia (as **Ferdinand V**), as well as associated dominions from the death of his father (Francis II, Holy Roman Emperor) on 2 March 1835, until his abdication after the Revolutions of 1848. He married Maria Anna of Savoy, the sixth child of Victor Emmanuel I of Sardinia. They had no issue. Ferdinand was incapable of ruling his empire because of his mental deficiency, so his father, before he died, drafted a will promulgating that he consult Archduke Louis on every aspect of internal policy, and urged him to be influenced by Prince Metternich, Austria's foreign minister.

*they allowed to do this?"*) At first, the revolution seemed to succeed. The Austrian Court published a constitution, replaced the State Council with a provisional state ministry and granted freedom of speech. However, the revolutionaries thought the changes in the constitution were unsatisfactory and called for direct elections. This was the start of the end of the revolution.

While a certain embarrassment for Metternich 1848 also marked the year **Karl Marx[98]** visited Vienna and held a famous speech in front of 1,000 members of the new workers' union, reporting about the situation of the working classes in other European countries and reassuring the Viennese workers that only a well organized workers' organization would be able to succeed with their fight for democratic rules.
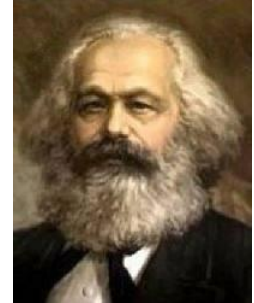
At the last revolt in October 1848, the Austrian Court and Ferdinand escaped to Olmötz in what is now the Czech Republic. Prince Metternich resigned and fled from Vienna to England after it was clear that the Government could not guarantee his safety. The revolution was beaten down with the help of Russian troops. Ferdinand abdicated in favor of his nephew Franz Joseph, who restored order. The few cosmetic changes in constitution and some liberties for the peasants were more than outdone by an even more oppressive system, referred to as *Neo-Absolutism*.

## Hungarian Revolution of March 15, 1848
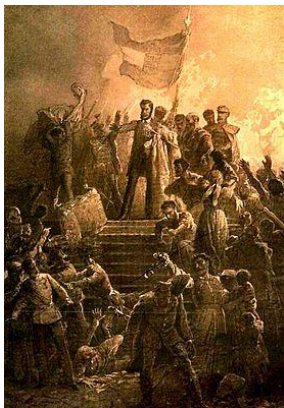
The first Hungarian Revolution holds a profoundly important place in the hearts and heads of Hungarians, and is celebrated as a national holiday. The events were the product of mounting social and political tensions after the Congress of Vienna of 1815.

Pervasive in pre-1848 Europe was conflict over organized religion. During the "Pre-March" period, the Austrian Empire moved away from Enlightenment ideas, restricted freedom of the press, and limited many university activities, including banning fraternities.

Conflicts between debtors and creditors in agricultural production as

[98] **Karl Heinrich Marx** (5 May 1818 – 14 March 1883) was a Prussian-German philosopher, economist, sociologist, historian, journalist, and revolutionary socialist. His ideas played a significant role in the establishment of the social sciences and the development of the socialist movement. He is also considered one of the greatest economists in history. He published numerous books during his lifetime, the most notable being *The Communist Manifesto* (1848) and *Capital* (1867–1894). He worked closely with his friend and fellow revolutionary socialist, Friedrich Engels.

well as over land use rights in parts of Hungary (and France) led to conflicts that occasionally erupted into violence, often against the state. The revolution started on March 15, 1848, with demonstrations in Pest and Buda followed by various insurrections throughout the kingdom, which enabled Hungarian reformists to declare Hungary's autonomy within the Habsburg Empire, under the governor Lajos Kossuth and the first Prime Minister Lajos Batthyány.

The Hungarian diet, which held its sessions in Bratislava at the time, was greatly excited by Lajos Kossuth's bills on the emancipation of serfs, the general and proportional taxation, and the establishment of an independent national government, while the Opposition Circle (OC) was in a state of agitation in Pest.

The Opposition Circle OC comprised of middle-class intellectuals and young members of the nobility, who were instigated by a small circle of radicals in Pest, with **Sándor Petőfi** in the forefront.

The Circle drew up a 12 point petition, penned by József Irinyi, who was a young radical, on 11 March., and presented it in the form of 12 points. The petition's claims surpassed even the bills of Kossuth, calling for the freedom of the press and equality before the law.

On 13 March, the Opposition Circle OC adopted the petition as its program. On the same day, a revolution broke out in Vienna. Count Klemens Wenzel von Metternich, the all-powerful chancellor who had exerted a powerful impact on the Habsburg emperor, Ferdinand I, was forced to step down and flee. After, the monarch promised a constitution to the nations of Austria.

Meanwhile, the upper nobility adopted Kossuth's bills in Bratislava, on 14 March, later a delegation of the diet conveyed them to Vienna on the next day with the intention to forward the 12 Points, which was signed by thousands of Pest citizens of Pest, to Bratislava, the young people who gathered in Pilvax Café in Pest's centre, organized a rally and banquet in Rákos Field, for Saint Joseph's Day; the day of the annual fair.

On hearing the news of the revolution in Vienna, though, the young people of Pilvax decided to seize control. Sándor Petőfi, Pál Vasvári, János Vidats, Károly Sükey, Gyula Bulyovszky, János Vajda and Mór Jókai decided to enforce the first claim of in the 12 Points, the freedom of the press, and have the 12 Points and National anthem Song, Petőfi's inspiring poem, published without censorial permission.

On the morning of the following day, 15 March, Petőfi and his companions marched in a drizzling rain, from Pilvax Café to the medical university of Pest. After medical students joined them, nearly 1000 young people continued their way to the printing house of Lajos Landerer and Gusztáv Heckenast.

Upon arrival, Irinyi confiscated a printing machine and "in the name of the people", and the printers printed set copies of the National Song anthem and the 12 Points. At 3 pm they held a rally outside the National Museum;, and the ten-thousand-strong mass marched to the Pest city council, and persuaded its members to back their claims. .



A revolutionary committee was set up, and the mass set out to Buda to force their claims through the dicasterium, the most important central government authority, subordinated to the monarch and to free from prison Mihály Táncsics, a writer and publicist incarcerated on charges of a press misdemeanor and subversion. The Council of Governor-General did not dare resort to use military force. Instead, it accepted the 12 Points and released Mihály Táncsics. The revolution of Pest was bloodless, as opposed to Paris and Vienna.

The Bratislava Diet's delegation to Vienna, set the main goal of appointing palatine István as the monarch's all-powerful governor, and count Lajos Batthyány as prime minister. The royal ordinance of 17 March included the appointment of palatine István, but not that of Batthyány. Nevertheless, Kossuth and Batthyány persuaded the palatine to exercise his unrestricted powers in order to fulfill their request.



**Batthyány**[99] submitted a proposal for the members of his government to the lower house on 23 March. He was in such a hurry, that he had no time to ask seek for the consent of from a number of his nominees beforehand.

The first Hungarian responsible government was set up with the following members: count Lajos Batthyány (President); Bertalan Szemere Minister (home affairs), duke Pál Esterházy (relations with Austria), Lajos Kossuth (finances), Lázár Mészáros (national defence), count István Széchenyi (transport), baron József Eötvös (cult and education), Gábor Klauzál (agriculture and industry) and Ferenc Deák (justice). Four government members were aristocrats, and five were of the lesser nobility.

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[99] **Batthyány** is the name of an old distinguished Hungarian Magnate family. The members of this family bear the title count or countess (Graf/Gräfin) respectively prince or princess (Fürst/Fürstin) Batthyány von Német-Ujvár. A branch of the family (Croatian: *Baćan*) was notable in Croatia as well, producing several Bans (viceroys) of Croatia in the 16th, 17th and 18th century.

The royal ordinance, which contained the monarch's reaction to the law, and the establishment of ending the government's responsibilities le to parliament, came as a major shock. The monarch maintained the chancellery's supervision over the government, and only granted absolute power to the current palatine, during the absence of the king. It ordained the assumption of a part of Austrian public debts and the payment of Hungarian revenues to the common treasury, and classified the Hungarian Ministry of Defense unnecessary.

The youth of Bratislava burnt the ordinance at the stake. Pest witnessed a set of disturbances, and Batthyány tendered his resignation in protest. The Council of State retreated on 30 March and only insisted on the palatine's immunity, only granted to the incumbent palatine, and on the monarch's exclusive right to appoint officers and decide on the army's foreign missions. The document was read out aloud at the diet of 31 March in Bratislava, in the midst of ovation.

Batthyány submitted the list of his government members to the palatine on 2 April, and the monarch signed the document on 7 April in Vienna. In the evening hours of 10 April, Ferdinand I and his wife arrived in Bratislava aboard a steamer. The government members who were in Bratislava at the time (Batthyány, Kossuth, Széchenyi, Deák and Pál Esterházy) were sworn into office the next morning. Thus, Hungary's first government responsible to the diet alone took office.

Among his first measures, Batthyány instructed the authorities in a circular to proclaim the emancipation of serfs without delay, even before royal assent. It is of symbolic importance that he was sworn in as prime minister on 11 April, the day when the revolutionary laws earned the royal assent. Our first Prime Minister is credited for setting up the home guard and the first ten battalions.

As a consequence of the historical events, Batthyány stepped down on 10 September, and retired to his castle in Ikervár. He was arrested in Buda on 8 January 1849, and was later held prisoner in Bratislava and Olmütz. He was condemned to be hanged for high treason, but his sentence was later modified to death by shooting. He was executed on 6 October 1849 in downtown Pest, now marked by a sanctuary lamp."

**United States and the 1848 Revolutions**

**Evolution**
A combination of economic, intellectual, and social changes started a wave of revolutions in the late 1700s that continued into the first half of the 19th century. The started in North America and France, and spread into other parts of Europe and to Latin America.

**The American Revolution**
Ironically, the first revolution inspired by the new political thought that originated in England began in the North American colonies and was directed at England. It began when American

colonists resisted Britain's attempt to impose new taxes and trade controls on the colonies after the French and Indian War ended in 1763. Many also resented Britain's attempts to control the movement west. "Taxation without representation" turned British political theory on its ear, but it became a major theme as the rebellion spread from Massachusetts throughout the rest of the colonies. Colonial leaders set up a new government and issued the Declaration of Independence in 1776. The British sent forces to put the rebellion down, but the fighting continued for several years until the newly created United States eventually won. The United States Constitution that followed was based on enlightenment principles, with three branches of government that check and balance one another. Although initially only a few had the right to vote and slavery was not abolished, the government became a model for revolutions to come.

A very different situation existed in France. No established nobility existed in the United States, so when independence was achieved, the new nation had no old social and political structure to throw off. In contrast, the Revolution in France was a civil war, a rising against the Ancien Regime, or the old kingdom that had risen over centuries. The king, of course, had absolute power, but the nobility and clergy had many privileges that no one else had. Social classes were divided into three estates: first was the clergy, second the nobility, and the Third Estate was everyone else. On the eve of the Revolution in 1789, about 97% of the population of France was thrown into the Third Estate, although they held only about 5% of the land. They also paid 100% of the taxes.

Part of the problem was that the growing class of the bourgeoisie had no political privileges. They read Enlightenment philosophers, they saw what happened in the American Revolution, and they resented paying all the taxes. Many saw the old political and social structure as out of date and the nobles as silly and vain, undeserving of the privileges they had.

The French Revolution began with King Louis XVI called the Estates-General, or the old parliamentary structure, together for the first time in 160 years. He did so only because the country was in financial crisis brought on by too many wars for power and an extravagant court life at Versailles Palace. Many problems converged to create the Revolution: the nobles' refusal to pay taxes, bourgeoisie resentment of the king, Louis Vic's incompetence, and a series of bad harvests for the peasants. The bourgeoisie seized control of the proceedings and declared the creation of the National Assembly, a legislative body that still exists in France today. They wrote the Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen, modeled after the American Declaration of Independence, and they set about to write a Constitution for France.

The years after the revolution began were turbulent ones that saw the king beheaded and the government taken over by the Jacobins, a radical group that sought equality through executing those that disagreed with the government. The Reign of Terror lasted for about two years, with thousands of people guillotined and thousands more fleeing the country. The Jacobin leaders themselves were eventually guillotined; the country teetered for several years

in disarray, and finally was swept up by Napoleon Bonaparte as he claimed French glory in battle. Democracy did not come easily in France.

**Unites States military success in Mexico**
Americans entered the year 1848 flushed from military success in Mexico. The U.S. Senate ratified the Mexican peace treaty only a few days before transatlantic steamers brought the first news of the 1848 upheavals in Europe. The events together seemed to symbolize rising American power. American soldiers in Mexico, for instance, rejoiced that the "refulgence of their glorious stars" had penetrated the "noxious fogs of European despotism." It was easy to envision an American republican mission unfolding in the European upheavals.

Some northern journalists and Democratic politicians, enunciating this national mission under the moniker of "young America," saw the time ripe for an aggressive American policy in Europe. They supported military assistance to revolutionary governments in Germany and Hungary, and suspension of diplomatic relations with Prussia and Austria, whose rulers refused to submit to or cooperate with popular authority. Besides hastily recognizing the French Second Republic, the United States also accorded recognition to short-lived regimes in Sicily and Frankfurt.

Outside official channels, moreover, support for radical Europe showed in various ways. Americans paraded, wore revolutionary cockades, and staged banquets to evince sympathy with European rebels. Protestant ministers preached, especially with the ousting of Pius IX from the Vatican, that the downfall of Catholicism, and perhaps the beginning of the millennium, was near. Mexican war veterans and recent Irish and German immigrants organized volunteers and gathered arms and money to return to Europe to assist in its liberation.

Yet support for vigorous pro-revolutionary American action in Europe was far from universal. In politics, Whigs and many southern Democrats opposed all but the most symbolic of American shows of support. American businessmen took interest in European turbulence, but mainly in hopes that shaken European financiers would buy American securities, and American exports of cotton and tobacco would gain in more open European makets. Apologists for American slavery frowned on support for European liberation movements, especially with the abolition of feudal labor in central Europe and slavery in the French West Indian colonies.

But while the 1848 Revolutions did not foster majority American interest in intervention in Europe, the revolutions did have an impact in the United States. Advocates of various reform movements -- urban labor organization, women's rights, and most prominently, antislavery -- perceived that transatlantic reform was indeed gaining momentum, and used upheavals in Europe to argue that analogous change should occur in the United States. Revolutionary Europe, these groups declared, was an indicator of American defects, and a warning of what awaited the United States if inequities went unattended. After passage of the Fugitive Slave

Law in 1850, requiring the national government to help recapture runaway slaves, the antislavery press described episodes of slaves' flight and apprehension in terms of Hungarian freedom- fighters succumbing to Austrian oppression. Land reform in the western United States in part stemmed from pressure brought by immigrant and native laborers who used revolutionary Europe as a foil.

Many European revolutionary refugees came to America, some to settle permanently, others to raise funds to rejoin the struggle in Europe. Of the latter type, the most celebrated was the Hungarian lawyer Lajos Kossuth, whose 1852 speaking and fund- raising tour was sensational if quixotic. Kossuth pleaded for both private financial support for the Hungarian struggle, which he received, and military intervention in Europe, which he was refused. Kossuth spent most of the money he raised before he left the United States; perhaps the most lasting impact of his tour was in the realm of personal attire, as "Kossuth" hats, cloaks, and, for men, beards became popular.

With the collapses of the 1848 Revolutions many Americans took comfort in the idea that the United States was different from Europe in its stability achieved via a republican revolution. But a decade later this would prove hubris. Then America would undergo a conflict whose upheavals and attendant suffering dwarfed the preceding conflicts in Europe. In their failed quests for greater liberty the 1848 Revolutions did not so much follow the American example of a republican revolution as they themselves provided a glimpse of coming, more comprehensive conflicts of democracy and nation-building on both sides of the Atlantic.

## Revolution in Latin America

From North America and France, revolutionary enthusiasm spread throughout the Caribbean and Spanish and Portuguese America. In contrast to the leaders of the War for Independence for the United States, most of the early revolutions in Latin America began with subordinated Amerindians and blacks. Even before the French Revolution, Andean Indians, led by Tupac Amaru, besieged the ancient capital of Cuzco and nearly conquered the Spanish army. The Creole elite responded by breaking the ties to Spain and Portugal, but establishing governments under their control. Freedom, then, was interpreted to mean liberty for the property-owning classes. Only in the French colony of Saint Domingue (Haiti) did slaves carry out a successful insurrection.

The rebellion in 1791 led to several years of civil war in Haiti, even though French abolished slavery in 1793. When Napoleon came to power, he sent an army to tame the forces led by Toussaint L'Ouverture, a former slave. However, Napoleon's army was decimated by guerrilla fighters and yellow fever, and even though Toussaint died in a French jail, Haiti declared its independence in 1804.

Other revolutions in Latin America were led by political and social elites, although some of them had important populist elements.

- Brazil - Portugal's royal family fled to Brazil when Napoleon's troops stormed the Iberian Peninsula. The presence of the royal family dampened revolutionary fervor, especially since the king instituted reforms in administration, agriculture, and manufacturing. He also established schools, hospitals, and a library. The king returned to Portugal in 1821, after Napoleon's threat was over, leaving Brazil in the hands of his son Pedro. Under pressure from Brazilian elites, Pedro declared Brazil's independence, and he signed a charter establishing a constitutional monarchy that lasted until the late 19th century when Pedro II was overthrown by republicans.
- Mexico - Father Miguel Hidalgo led Mexico's rebellion that eventually led to independence in 1821. He was a Catholic priest who sympathized with the plight of the Amerindian peasants and was executed for leading a rebellion against the colonial government. The Creole elite then took up the drive for independence that was won under the leadership of Agustin de Iturbide, a conservative military commander. However, Father Hidalgo's cause greatly influenced Mexico's political atmosphere, as his populist ideas were taken up by others who led the people in revolt against the Creoles. Two famous populist leaders were Emiliano Zapata and Pancho Villa, who like Father Hidalgo were executed by the government. Mexico was not to work out this tension between elite and peasants until well into the 20th century.
- Spanish South America - Colonial elite - landholders, merchants, and military - also led Spanish colonies in South America in rebellion against Spain. The term "junta" came to be used for these local governments who wanted to overthrow colonial powers. Two junta centers in South America were:

  1. Caracas, Venezuela - At first, laborers and slaves did not support this Creole-led junta. However, they were convinced to join the independence movement by Simon de Bolivar, a charismatic military leader with a vision of forging "Gran Columbia," an independent, giant empire in the northern part of South America. He defeated the Spanish, but did not achieve his dream of empire. Instead, regional differences caused the newly independent lands to split into several countries.

  2. Buenos Aires, Argentina - other charismatic military leaders led armies for independence from the southern part of the continent. His combined Chilean/Argentine forces joined with Bolivar in Peru, where they helped the northern areas to defeat the Spanish. Martin's areas, like those led by Bolivar, also split along regional differences.

All in all, constitutional experiments in North America were more successful than those in South America. Though South Americans gained independence from colonial governments during the 19th century, their governments remained authoritarian and no effective legislatures were created to share the power with political leaders.

# Significant Immigration waves - Landing in the New World, with new opportunities ahead



Little Italy in New York, ca.1900

"America is a nation of immigrants." It has been said so often that it's almost become a cliché, but it is still indisputably true: The 2000 Census found that 99% of today's American population can trace its ancestry to origins across the sea—in Europe, Africa, or Asia.[z] Heavy immigration through four centuries of American history played a large part in driving the country's dramatic growth from a small backwater along the distant fringe of the British Empire to the world's richest economy and one of its most populous and diverse nation-states.

Immigration from Europe to the United States overwhelmingly increased in the mid-1800s. The U.S. population recorded in the census of 1860 was 31,500,000; of that population, 4,736,000, or 15 percent, were of foreign birth. The greater part of these immigrants had come from two countries: 1,611,000 from Ireland, and 1,301,000 from Germany (principally from the southwestern states of Württemberg, Baden, and Bavaria). The mass migration from Germany had begun in the 1830s, but the peak decades were the 1850s, with more than 950,000 immigrants, and the 1880s, with nearly 1.5 million.

American immigration history can be viewed in four epochs: the colonial period, the mid-19th century, the start of the 20th century, and post-1965. Each period brought distinct national groups, races and ethnicities to the United States. During the 17th century, approximately 175,000 Englishmen migrated to Colonial America. Over half of all European immigrants to Colonial America during the 17th and 18th centuries arrived as indentured servants. The mid-

19th century saw mainly an influx from northern Europe; the early 20th-century mainly from Southern and Eastern Europe; post-1965 mostly from Latin America and Asia.

Historians estimate that fewer than one million immigrants—perhaps as few as 400,000—crossed the Atlantic during the 17th and 18th centuries. The 1790 Act limited naturalization to "free white persons"; it was expanded to include blacks in the 1860s and Asians in the 1950s.In the early years of the United States, immigration was fewer than 8,000 people a year, including French refugees from the slave revolt in Haiti. After 1820, immigration gradually increased. From 1836 to 1914, over 30 million Europeans migrated to the United States. The death rate on these transatlantic voyages was high, during which one in seven travelers died. In 1875, the nation passed its first immigration law, the Page Act of 1875.

**German immigration**
Although political turbulence and religious repression in Europe triggered small waves of German migration to the United States, most historians note that the mass migrations were mainly motivated by the desire for economic opportunity and prosperity. For many years rural Germans had lived on small family farms. As the German states faced industrialization (the change from a farm-based economy to an economic system based on the manufacturing of goods and distribution of services on an organized and mass-produced basis), the old way of rural life was quickly disappearing. Many were forced to move into cities and learn new skills. Yet, with unemployment in Germany rising, the cities did not always hold much hope. Among those who emigrated, some had few options left in Germany and sought more opportunity. Steady migrations were ongoing starting in the early nineteenth century.

It was a dangerous and difficult trip across the Atlantic. Germans began the journey by making their way to a port city. During the high peaks of emigration there was a steady flow of traffic on the roads to the ports made up of families pushing carts loaded with their belongings. In Germany, most emigrants left from Bremerhaven or Hamburg. Some made their way to Britain in the early eighteenth century, hoping to find passage to North America from there. Others went to Rotterdam, Holland, or Le Havre, France, and sought a ship there. They were often robbed or swindled when they arrived in ports.

The conditions on the sailing ships that took the German immigrants across the Atlantic were terrible. Many people could not afford to purchase a first- or second-class ticket, and so they traveled in steerage, in the lower decks of the ship that were designed to carry cargo. Aside from being miserably overcrowded, the accommodations often lacked clean drinking water and adequate toilet and washing facilities. Rats, head lice, and bedbugs were common, and infectious diseases spread quickly. In the years after, steamships would shorten the voyage and regulations on ships would correct some of the worst abuses of travelers. Even so, throughout the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, many immigrants faced misery and even death to get to the United States. Despite the hard trip, for over a century Germans immigrated by the hundreds of thousands to the United States.

New York had become the principal port of arrival for German immigrants. Many chose to stay in the East, while others moved westward along the Erie Canal through Buffalo and out to Ohio. By the 1840s large numbers of German immigrants went to New Orleans on cotton ships from Le Havre, France. The majority moved to the valleys of the upper Ohio and Mississippi Rivers. By 1880, Wisconsin had more German Americans than any other state. Here, as in the East, those who settled in urban centers brought a range of crafts and professional skills, while others setting up farms brought their farming skills from Germany. In the years between 1860 and 1890, three-fifths of German immigrants moved to rural areas, while two-fifths moved to the cities. When they settled, they often established German-speaking communities, setting up their own churches, schools, newspapers, and other institutions, and keeping their cultural traditions alive in the New World.

**Italian immigration**

The newly created Italian constitution, drafted after unification in 1861, heavily favored the North. This caused economic conditions to considerably worsen for many in southern Italy and Sicily. Heavy taxes and other economic measures imposed on the South made the situation virtually impossible for many tenant farmers, and small business and land owners. Multitudes chose to emigrate rather than try to eke out a meager living. Often, the father and older sons would go first, leaving the mother and the rest of the family behind until the male members could afford their passage.

From 1880 to 1920, an estimated 4 million Italian immigrants arrived in the United States, the majority from 1900 to 1914. Once in America, the immigrants faced great challenges. Often with no knowledge of the English language and with little education, many of the immigrants were compelled to accept the poorest paying and most undesirable jobs, and were frequently exploited by the middlemen who acted as intermediaries between them and the prospective employers.[15] Many sought housing in the older sections of the large northeastern cities in which they settled, which became known as "Little Italy", often in overcrowded substandard tenements. About a third of the immigrants, so called "birds of passage", intended to stay in the United States for only a limited time, followed by a return to Italy with enough in savings to re-establish themselves there. While many did return to Italy, others chose to stay, or were prevented from returning by the outbreak of World War I.

The Italian male immigrants in the Little Italy were most often employed in manual labor, heavily involved in public works, such as the construction of roads, sewers, subways and bridges being carried out at the time in the northeastern cities. The women most frequently worked as seamstresses in the garment industry or in their homes. Many established small businesses in the Little Italy to satisfy the day-to-day needs of fellow immigrants. In spite of the economic hardship of the immigrants, civil and social life flourished in the Italian American neighborhoods of the large northeastern cities. Italian theater, band concerts, choral recitals, puppet shows, mutual-aid societies, and social clubs were available to the immigrants. An important event, the "festa", became for many an important connection to the

traditions of their ancestral villages in Italy and Sicily. The festa involved an elaborate procession through the streets in honor of a patron saint or the Virgin Mary in which a large statue was carried by a team of men, with musicians marching behind. Followed by food, fireworks and general merriment, the festa became an important occasion that helped give the immigrants a sense of unity and common identity. To assist the immigrants in the Little Italy, who was overwhelmingly Catholic, Pope Leo XIII dispatched a contingent of priests, nuns and brothers of the Missionaries of St. Charles Borromeo. Among these was Sister Francesca Cabrini, who founded schools, hospitals and orphanages and who, after her death, was declared the first American saint. Hundreds of parishes were founded by the St. Charles missionaries to serve the needs of the Italian communities.

## Lithuanians immigration

A number of Lithuanians immigrated to the New World before the American Revolution. The first may have been a Lithuanian physician, Dr. Aleksandras Kursius, who is believed to have lived in New York as early as 1660. Most of the other Lithuanians who ventured to the Americas during this period were members of the noble class or practitioners of particular trades. The first really significant wave of Lithuanian immigration to the United States began in the late 1860s, after the Civil War. During the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, an estimated 300,000 Lithuanians journeyed to America—a flow that was later halted by the combined effects of World War I, the restriction of immigration into the United States, and the achievement in 1918 of Lithuanian independence. This number is hard to document fully because census records did not officially recognize Lithuanians as a separate nationality until the twentieth century, and the country's people may have been reported as Russian, Polish, or Jewish.

Several key factors brought about the first surge of Lithuanian immigration to the United States. These included the abolition of serfdom in 1861, which resulted in a rise in Lithuania's free population; the growth of transportation, especially railroads; and a famine that broke out in the country in the 1860s. Later, other conditions, such as a depressed farm economy and increased Russian repression, prompted even more Lithuanians to leave their home soil. In 1930 the U.S. Census Bureau listed 193,600 Lithuanians in the United States. This figure represents six percent of the total population of Lithuania at the time.

The second wave of immigration had a greater impact on U.S. census figures. Following World War II, a flood of displaced refugees fled west to escape the Russian reoccupation of Lithuania. Eventually 30,000 *Dipukai* (war refugees or displaced persons) settled in the United States, primarily in cities in the East and the Midwest. These immigrants included many trained and educated leaders and professionals who hoped to return someday to Lithuania. The heightening of tensions between the United States and the Soviet Union—known as the Cold War—dampened these expectations, and many Lithuanians sought to create a semi permanent life in the United States. By 1990 the U.S. Bureau of the Census listed 811,865 Americans claiming "Lithuanian" as a first or second ancestry.

Throughout the twentieth century, however, Lithuanian Americans began to climb up the economic ladder and gain an important place in their local communities. This mobility allowed them to enter the American mainstream. Members of the post-1945 immigration surge—with their fierce opposition to Russian communism and their middle-class professionalism—have adjusted smoothly and rapidly to the American way of life.

**Russian immigration**

Since the second half of the nineteenth century, Russia has been the largest country in the world, stretching from the plains of Eastern Europe across Siberia as far as the shores of the Pacific Ocean. For centuries, Russia has straddled both Europe and Asia, two continents that are divided by the Ural Mountains.

The first Russians on U. S. territory were part of Russia's internal migration. During the eighteenth century, Russian traders and missionaries crossing Siberia reached Alaska, which became a colony of the Russian Empire. By 1784 the first permanent Russian settlement was founded on Kodiak, a large island off the Alaskan coast. Soon there were Russian colonies on the Alaskan mainland (Yakutat and Sitka), and by 1812 the Russians pushed as far south as Fort Ross in California, 100 miles north of San Francisco. In 1867 the Russian government sold Alaska to the United States, and most Russians in Alaska (whose numbers never exceeded 500) returned home. Russian influence persisted in Alaska, however, in the form of the Orthodox Church, which succeeded in converting as many as 12,000 of the native Inuit and Aleut people.

Large-scale emigration from Russia to the United States only began in the late nineteenth century. Since that time, four distinct periods of immigration can be identified: 1880s-1914; 1920-1939; 1945-1955; and 1970s-present. The reasons for emigration included economic hardship, political repression, religious discrimination, or a combination of those factors.

The pre-1914 Russian Empire was an economically underdeveloped country comprised primarily of poor peasants and a small but growing percentage of poorly paid or unemployed industrial workers. European Russia also encompassed the so-called Pale of Settlement (present-day Lithuania, Belarus, Moldova, and large parts of Poland, and Ukraine). The Pale was the only place Jews were allowed to reside. The vast majority lived in small towns and villages in their own communities known as the *shtetl,* which were made famous in America through the setting of the Broadway musical *Fiddler on the Roof.*

Between 1881 and 1914, over 3.2 million immigrants arrived from the Russian Empire. Nearly half were Jews; only 65,000 were ethnically Russian, while the remaining immigrants were Belarusans and Ukrainians. Regardless of their ethnoreligious background, their primary motive was to improve their economic status. Many of the 1.6 million Jews who also left did so because they feared *pogroms*—attacks on Jewish property and persons that occurred sporadically in the Russian Empire from the 1880s through the first decade of the twentieth century.

While many Jews from the Russian Empire did not identify themselves as Russians, another group of immigrants adopted a Russian identity in the United States. These were the Carpatho-Rusyns, or Ruthenians, from northeastern Hungary and Galicia in the Austro-Hungarian Empire (today far western Ukraine, eastern Slovakia, and southeastern Poland). Of the estimated 225,000 Carpatho-Rusyns who immigrated to the United States before World War I, perhaps 100,000 eventually joined the Orthodox Church, where they and their descendants still identify themselves as Americans of Russian background.

The second wave of immigration was less diverse in origin. It was directly related to the political upheaval in the former Russian Empire that was brought about by the Bolshevik Revolution and Civil War that followed. Over two million persons fled Russia between 1920 and 1922. Whether they were demobilized soldiers from anti-Bolshevik armies, aristocrats, Orthodox clergy, professionals, businesspersons, artists, intellectuals, or peasants, and whether they were of non-Jewish (the majority) or Jewish background, all these refugees had one thing in common—a deep hatred for the new Bolshevik/communist regime in their homeland. Because they were opposed to the communist Reds, these refugees came to be known as the Whites.

The White Russians fled their homeland. They left from the southern Ukraine and the Crimea (the last stronghold of the anti-Bolshevik White Armies) and went first to Istanbul in Turkey before moving on to several countries in the Balkans (especially Yugoslavia and Bulgaria; other countries in east-central Europe; Germany; and France, especially Paris and the French Riviera (Nice and its environs). Others moved directly westward and settled in the newly independent Baltic States, Poland, Czechoslovakia, or farther on to western Europe. A third outlet was in the Russian far east, from where the White émigrés crossed into China, settling in the Manchurian city of Kharbin. As many as 30,000 left the Old World altogether and settled in the United States. This wave of Russian immigration occurred during the early 1920s, although in the late 1930s several thousand more came, fleeing the advance of Nazi Germany and Japan's invasion of Manchuria. During this period, approximately 14,000 immigrants arrived in the United States.

The third wave of Russian immigration to the United States (1945-1955) was a direct outcome of World War II. Large portions of the former Soviet Union had been occupied by Germany, and hundreds of thousands of Russians had been captured or deported to work in Germany. After the war, many were forced to return home. Others lived in displaced-persons camps in Germany and Austria until they were able to immigrate to the United States. During this period, approximately 20,000 of these Russian displaced persons, the so-called DPs, arrived.

Both the tsarist Russian and Soviet governments placed restrictions on emigration. In 1885 the imperial Russian government passed a decree that prohibited all emigration except that of Poles and Jews, which explains the small numbers of non-Jewish Russians in the United States before World War I. By the early 1920s, the Bolshevik/communist-led Soviet

government implemented further controls that effectively banned all emigration. As for the second-wave White Russian refugees who fled between 1920 and 1922, they were stripped of their citizenship in absentia and could never legally return home. This situation was the same for the post-World War II DPs, who were viewed as Nazi collaborators and traitors by the Soviet authorities.

## Nobility in USA

It seems impossible to calculate how many noblemen lost or abandoned their titles and went to America. Probably there were far less than ten thousands of them, as compared to some 10 million German immigrants during the 19ᵗʰ century, so the story may be true in fewer than one in a thousand emigration cases.

However, many Americans are likely descended from European noble families through an illegitimate descent of one of the emigrants' ancestors, which occurred many generations ago and may not even have been known to the emigrant himself.

Due to primogeniture, many colonists of high social status were younger children of English aristocratic families who came to America looking for land because, given their birth order, they could not inherit. Many of these immigrants maintained high standing where they settled. They could often claim royal descent through a female line or illegitimate descent. Many Americans descend from these 17th-century British colonists who had royal descent.

There were at least 650 colonists with traceable royal ancestry, and 387 left descendants in America. These colonists with royal descent settled in every state, but a large majority lived in Massachusetts or Virginia. Several families, who settled in those states, over the two hundred years or more since the colonial land grants, interlinked their branches to the point that almost everyone was somehow related to everyone else.

From domestic American tradition: From the 1890s onwards, the American genealogists became aware of the fact that many Americans had noble ancestors. This coincides with the foundation of several lineage-societies: Order of the Crown in America, 1898; The Baronial Order of Magna Charta, 1898, The National Society of Americans of Royal Descent, 1908, and others.
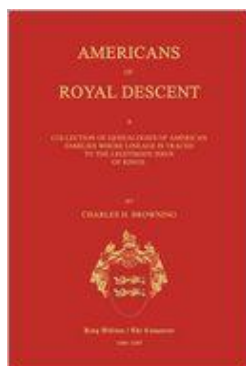


The search for royal ancestors is not a new story: in 1883, in the USA, a country without organized nobility, Charles H. Browning compiled a series of royal descents from the medieval Kings of England and France in a book appropriately named *Americans of Royal Descent*. The book was expanded, reedited and reprinted in 1891, 1894, 1897, 1900, 1905, 1911, 1969, 1986 and 1998.
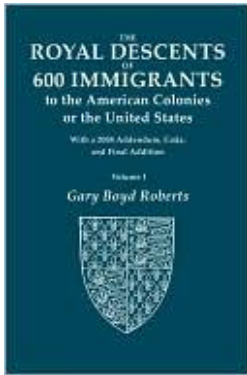
In 1993, Gary Boyd Roberts wrote The Royal Descents of 600 Immigrants to the American Colonies or Charles H. Browning the United States: as compared with Browning, the method followed is the same but well-known figures of today were added, such as most of the Presidents of the United States. Another difference is the inclusion of several European aristocratic recent immigrants such as Arnaud de Borchgrave, Wernher von Braun, Egon von Fürstenberg, Ted Morgan, Catherine Oxenberg and Brooke Shield. It can be estimated that as many as 150 million Americans have traceable royal European descent. Gary Boyd Roberts, an expert on royal descent, most Americans with significant New England Yankee, Mid-Atlantic Quaker, or Southern planter ancestry are descended from medieval kings, especially those of England, Scotland, and France. Some Americans may have royal descents through immigrants who had an illegitimate descent from European royalty.



Royal descent is now recognized as common among residents as in other countries. At one time, publications on this matter stressed royal connections for only a few families. One example included James Pierpont and other.

(Rev. James Pierpont, 1711. Born January 4, 1659, Roxbury, Massachusetts; died November 22, 1714, New Haven, Connecticut) was a Congregationalist minister who is credited with the founding of Yale University in the United States).

Today more than two thousand family associations of varying types exist in the United States. Such groups were started to commemorate the deeds and the spirit of the founders of families, thus maintaining the familial *esprit de corps* through the generations. A characteristic example of a remarkably aristocratic family institution is the National Society Washington Family Descendants. Founded in 1954, it aims to cherish, maintain, and fortify family ties and to perpetuate the memory of George Washington. Her Majesty Queen Elizabeth II numbers among its honorary members.

**Samples of Americans Who Married Royalty**
Efforts have been made to collect relevant facts and to correctly interpret these, it always remains possible something was omitted or interpreted wrongly.



**Elizabeth Patterson Bonaparte** (Baltimore, Maryland, 6 February 1785 - Baltimore, Maryland, 4 April 1879), known as "Betsy", was the daughter of a Baltimore, Maryland merchant, and was the first wife of **Jérôme Bonaparte**, later King of Westphalia ,and sister-in-law of Emperor

Napoleon I of France. Married on December 24, 1803 in Baltimore, Maryland.

Although little known today outside her native Baltimore or to Napoleon scholars, Elizabeth Bonaparte Patterson was a well-known beauty in her day. Her marriage to Napoleon Bonaparte's younger brother, made her a well-known celebrity on both sides of the Atlantic, and allowed her entree into the highest echelon of society.

Elizabeth or Betsy as she was known was the daughter of William Patterson, who emigrated from Ulster in Ireland and grew to be the second richest man in Baltimore after Charles Carroll, making his fortune in business, finally ending up as the owner of a line of clipper ships (Patterson Park is named after him). She met Jerome Bonaparte at a ball given by Samuel Chase, a signer of the Declaration of Independence in the fall of 1803. Joseph fell for her immediately. Although his English was limited, she spoke French fluently.

Jerome Napoleon since 1799 was First Consul of France. Napoleon immediately ordered him back to France and demanded him to have his marriage annulled. Jerome soon returned to France, accompanied by Elizabeth, who was now pregnant. But on orders of Napoleon, Elizabeth ('Betsy') was denied landing in any port on the European continent. In 1805 she gave in London birth to a son, Napoleon Bonaparte was born in 95 Camberwell Grove, Camberwell

Jerome adapted himself to the wishes of his brother, who had in the meantime crowned himself emperor of France. In 1807 Napoleon made him King of Westphalia and he married a princess of Wurtemburg. Betsy went with her son back to Baltimore, where she lived with her father. In 1815 her marriage was finally dissolved. After the battle of Waterloo she went to Europe, where she attracted much attention and was received in high society. Back in Baltimore she spent all her time in the management of her estate. Her grandson Charles Joseph Bonaparte (1851-1921) was in 1905 appointed by President Theodore Roosevelt Secretary of the Navy and in 1906 U.S. Attorney General.

**Jérôme-Napoléon Bonaparte** (15 November 1784 – 24 June 1860) was the youngest brother of Napoleon I and King of Westphalia between 1807 and 1813. Made King of Westphalia, the short-lived realm created by Napoleon from the states of northwestern Germany (1807–1813), with its capital in Kassel (then: Cassel), Jérôme married HRH Princess Catharina of Württemberg, the daughter of Frederick I, King of Württemberg, in a marriage arranged by Napoleon.

After 1848, when his nephew, Louis Napoleon, became President of the French Republic, he served in several official roles, being created 1st Prince of Montfort by the King of Württemberg, his father in-law.

**Alexandra von Fürstenberg** (name at birth **Alexandra Natasha Miller**) (born New York, New York County, New York, October 3, 1972) is the image director for Diane von Furstenberg's company, the clothing label which was founded by her former mother in law, Diane von Fürstenberg, and helped revive the company's famous 1970s wrap dress.
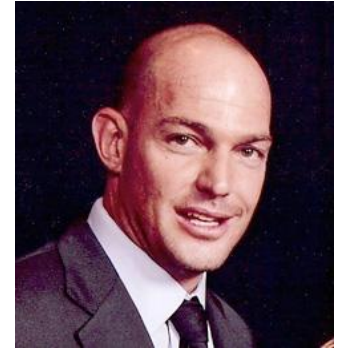


She is the youngest daughter of the American-born Duty Free shops businessman Robert Warren Miller and his Ecuadorian wife, the former María Clara "Chantal" Pesantes Becerra. She has two siblings, Pia Getty and Marie-Chantal, Crown Princess of Greece, Princess of Denmark. The troika is popularly known as the Miller sisters.

On 28 October 1995, at the Church of St. Ignatius of Loyola in New York City, she married **Prince Alexander von Fürstenberg** (b. 1970), brother of Princess Tatiana von Fürstenberg and the only son of the fashion designers Diane von Fürstenberg and Prince Egon von Fürstenberg and a great-grandson of Giovanni Agnelli, the founder of <u>Fiat</u>. The couple had two children, Princess Talita Natasha (b. 7 May 1999) and Prince Tassilo Egon Maximilian (b. New York, New York County, New York, 26 August 2001), who is named for his paternal great-grandfather. They separated in 2002 and later divorced.



**Agnes Elisabeth Winona Leclerc Joy - known as Princess Salm-Salm, or Princess Agnes**, was born in Franklin, Vermont on December 25th, 1844 and died on the 21st of December 1912, in Karlsruhe at the age of 68.

She was the daughter of the American General William Leclerc Joy (1793 - abt. 1886) and Julia Willard (- 1882). Her grandfather on her father's



side was Mica Joy.(1753-1826) who married Mercy Terrill (1764-1843). Her grandmother was said to be an Indian from Ohio. As well she was the cousin of President Lincoln through her great grandmother Olive Kilby Lincoln who married Captain Melzar Joy.

She married **Prince Felix Constantin Alexander Johann Nepomuk Marie zu Salm-Salm**, who was a soldier of fortune and who was descended from one of the oldest noble families in Europe. (b. December 25, 1828, Anholt ). The couple was wed in St. Patrick's in Washington D.C. on August 30, 1862. When Felix returned to Europe, he entered the Prussian Army as a major, and was killed in action on August 18, 1870 at St. Privat at the battle of

Gravelotte. He was 39 years old when he died. Felix was the son of Fürst Wilhelm Florentin Ludwig Karl zu Salm-Salm and Flaminia di Rossi.

**John Owen Dominis** (March 10, 1832–August 27, 1891) was an American-born statesman. He became Prince Consort of the Kingdom of Hawaii upon his marriage to the last reigning monarch, **Queen Liliuokalani**. The Queen was overthrown by the Committee of Safety, a group organized by American and European businessmen who sought to promote western interests in the region.

His father was a sea captain named John Dominis (1796–1846) who came to America in 1819 from Trieste (Italy) during the Napoleonic Wars. Although he was often called "Italian", there is evidence he was probably descended from a noble Croatian family, although he might be both, since the Croatian region of Dalmatia was Italianized for being ruled by Venice, existing a Venetian family of Conti Palatini de Dominis de Arba.

**Lili´uokalani**  September 2, 1838 – November 11, 1917), born Lydia Lili´u Loloku Walania Wewehi Kamaka´eha, was the last monarch and only queen regnant of the Kingdom of Hawaii. She was also known as Lydia Kamaka´eha Pākī, with the chosen royal name of Lili´uokalani, and her married name was Lydia K. Dominis.

On September 16, 1862, Lili´uokalani married John Owen Dominis, who became Governor of O´ahu and Maui. Her marriage to Dominis was an unhappy match. He was unfaithful to her and had many affairs, a fact that family friend and royal physician Georges Phillipe Trousseau tried to hide from her, but in 1882 Dr. Trousseau had to inform her that one of her household retainers was pregnant with her husband's son. Lili´uokalani first reaction was to attempt to claim the child as her own, and making him in line to the throne, to spare her husband´s embarrassment. She understood this was illegal and would undermine the integrity of the monarchy, but she wanted to protect her husband.

**Mary Esther Lee** (3 October 1837 New York City – 4 July 1914) was a philanthropist in Germany. She married **Prince Frederick of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Augustenburg-Noër** and later, after his death, Count Alfred von Waldersee, the successor of Field-Marshal von Moltke.

Mary was the daughter of David Lee, a New York

merchant, who left his widow and five children a large fortune. The second daughter, Blanche, married Augustus Charles Murray, a commander in the British navy, and the third, Josephine (1833 New York City - 1930 Stuttgart), married Baron August von Waechter, ambassador of the king of Württemberg to the French court.

The baroness sent for her youngest sister, Mary, to live with her in Paris, where she met and married Prince Frederick of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Augustenburg-Noër, who had been driven into exile by the Austro-Prussian army in 1864. Miss Lee, however, not wishing to be trammeled by the exacting etiquette that attaches to high rank, induced the prince to renounce his rights and titles as a member of the royal house of Denmark. He subsequently accepted from the emperor of Austria the title of Prince of Noër, the name of his principal estate. The prince died shortly after his marriage while on a visit to the Holy Land, 2 July 1865, and the princess then returned to Paris, where she resided with her sister, the Baroness Waechter, until the beginning of the Franco-Prussian War, when she accompanied the latter to Württemberg. In 1874 she married Count von Waldersee, and lived with him for some time at Hanover. There she soon became widely known through her interest in local charities. While she resided in Berlin, she was equally zealous in good works. She was for years the friend of Emperor Frederick William, of Germany, and of the Empress Victoria.

**Alice Heine** (February 10, 1858 – December 22, 1925), styled HSH The Princess of Monaco, and also The Duchess of Richelieu, was the American-born second wife of **Prince Albert I of Monaco**, a great-grandfather of Prince Rainier III of Monaco. Her first husband was the Duke de Richelieu and one of the titles of her second husband was the Duke de Mazarin; she was thus unique in bearing the titles of both Cardinal Richelieu and Cardinal Mazarin.

She was born **Marie Alice Heine** at 900 Rue Royale, in the French Quarter of New Orleans, Louisiana. Her French father, Michel Heine, was a scion of a prominent German-rooted Berlin and Paris banking Jewish family.   France, and moved to New Orleans in 1843. Her mother was Amélie Marie Celeste Miltenberger, an architect's daughter, of French Alsatian descent; her family had built three interconnected Miltenberger mansions on Rue Royale.

The American Civil War sent the family back to France, where the teenaged Alice's youth and beauty and her family's wealth, made a great impression in Parisian society. A & M Heine, her father's firm, helped finance Napoleon III's war with Prussia.

A Roman Catholic by birth, Alice married her first husband, Marie Odet *Armand* Aimable Chapelle de Jumilhac, Marquis of Jumilhac, 7th Duke of Richelieu and of Fronsac, on February 27, 1875 in Paris. They had one son and one daughter.

Alice's second marriage, to Prince Albert I of Monaco, Sovereign Prince of Monaco, occurred on October 30, 1889. The prince, whose first wife had been a daughter of a Scottish Duke, was an oceanographer and during his long journeys at sea, Alice took great interest in the Monegasque opera season.

She brought a strong business acumen, showing an understanding far beyond her years. Having helped put her husband's principality on a sound financial footing, she would devote her energies to making Monaco one of Europe's great cultural centers with its opera, theater, and the ballet under the direction of the famed Russian impresario, Sergei Diaghilev. Her affair with composer Isidore de Lara resulted in Prince Albert slapping her in view of an audience at the *Salle Garnier*.

The Prince and Princess of Monaco separated judicially on May 30, 1902 (Monaco) and June 3, 1902 (France), but remained married. Upon the Prince's death 20 years later, Alice became the Dowager Princess of Monaco.

**Grace Patricia Kelly** (12 November 1929 – 14 September 1982), daughter of John Brendan Kelly and Margaret Maier, was an American actress who, in April 18, 1956, married **Rainier III, Prince of Monaco**, to become princess consort of Monaco, styled as Her Serene Highness The Princess of Monaco and commonly referred to as **Princess Grace**.

After embarking on an acting career in 1950, at the age of 20, Grace Kelly appeared in New York City theatrical productions as well as in more than forty episodes of live drama productions broadcast during the early 1950s Golden Age of Television. In October 1953, with the release of *Mogambo*, she became a movie star, a status confirmed in 1954 with a Golden Globe Award and Academy Award nomination as well as leading roles in five films, including *The Country Girl*, in which she gave a deglamorized, Academy Award-winning performance. She retired from acting at 26 to enter upon her duties in Monaco. She and Prince Rainier had three children: Caroline, Albert, and Stéphanie. She also retained her American roots, maintaining dual US and Monégasque citizenships.

She died after suffering a stroke on September 14, 1982, when she lost control of her automobile and crashed. Her daughter, Princess Stéphanie, was in the car with her, and survived the accident.

**Rainier III Louis Henri Maxence Bertrand Grimaldi, Prince de Monaco** was born on 31 May 1923. He was the son of Pierre de Polignac, Prince of Valentinois and Charlotte Grimaldi, Duchess of Valentinois. He died on 6 April 2005 at age 81 at Cardio-Thoracic Center, Monaco. He succeeded to the title of *Prince Rainier III de Monaco* (styled as *HSH Prince of Monaco*) in 1949.



**Anita Rhinelander Stewart**, (c.1885 – September 15, 1977), born in New York, New York, married on September 15, 1909 at Tulloch Castle near Dingwall, Scotland, Dom Miguel of Braganza, Infante of Portugal, Duke of Viseu, grandson of Dom Miguel I, King of Portugal, and the eldest son of Dom Miguel, Duke of Braganza, at that time the first in the line of succession to the former Portuguese throne.



Anita had been created **Princess Stewart** by the Emperor of Austria the day before. Out of this union, three children were born: Nadejda de Braganza, Miguel de Braganza, and John de Braganza, all of whom used the title Prince and Princess until 1920, when their parents' marriage was deemed to be in contravention of royal law.

Dom Miguel, Duke of Viseu, died in 1923, after which the Princess moved to New York City. In order to regain her American citizenship, she had to renounce her royal title. However, society continued to refer to her with her regal title.

Anita de Braganza married Lewis Gouverneur Morris in New York City in 1946. After that, she continued to operate a photography studio in Manhattan and spend time at her house in Newport, Rhode Island. Anita died on September 15, 1977, at her house in Newport, Rhode Island. She died at the age of 92.



**Wallis Warfield Spencer Simpson**, (19 June 1896 – 24 April 1986) born in Blue Ridge Summit, Pennsylvania, married her third husband, **Prince Edward, Duke of Windsor**, formerly King Edward VIII of the United Kingdom and the Dominions, abdicated his throne to marry her

The King's desire to marry a woman who had two living ex-husbands threatened to cause a constitutional crisis in the United Kingdom and the

Dominions, and ultimately led to the King's abdication in December 1936 to marry "the woman I love". After the abdication, the former king was created Duke of Windsor by his brother George VI. Edward married Wallis six months later, after which she was formally known as the Duchess of Windsor, without the style "Her Royal Highness".

Edward was created Duke of Windsor by his brother, George VI, prior to their marriage. However, letters patent passed by the new King and unanimously supported by the Dominion governments, prevented Wallis, now the Duchess of Windsor, from sharing her husband's style of "Royal Highness". The new King's firm view, that the Duchess should not be given a royal title, was shared by Queen Mary and George's wife, Queen Elizabeth (later the Queen Mother). At first, the royal family did not accept the Duchess and would not receive her formally, although the former king sometimes met his mother and siblings after his abdication.

(Picture above: 14th April 1937: The Duchess of Windsor, as Mrs Wallis Warfield Simpson (1896 – 1986), and the Duke of Windsor (1894 – 1972) at the Chateau de Conde, near Tours, shortly before their wedding. The couple lived in France and the Bahamas; the Duchess of Windsor was not accepted by the British royal family until the late 1960's).

**Nancy Stewart Worthington Leeds** was a wealthy American heiress, who became a member of the Greek Royal Family through marriage to **Prince Christopher of Greece and Denmark**, the youngest child of King George I of Greece and his Queen, Grand Duchess Olga of Russia. Nancy became **Princess Anastasia of Greece and Denmark.**

She was born May Stewart in Zanesville, Ohio 20 January 1878, to William C. Stewart, a wealthy merchant, and his wife, Mary Holden Stewart, who had been married since 11 December 1874. By 1880 the Stewart family had moved to Cleveland, Ohio, where it appears that May's mother died not long afterward, and her father re-married. May was educated at home until the age of seventeen, when she was sent to the Porter School for young ladies in Farmington, Connecticut. She was soon introduced to high society.

The engagement of Nancy and Prince Christopher was announced to the public in 1914 on the island of Capr[100]i. The wedding was delayed due to reservations within the Royal Family about the prince's marriage with an American commoner who had been twice married. After the

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[100] **Capri** is an island in the Tyrrhenian Sea off the Sorrentine Peninsula, on the south side of the Gulf of Naples in the Campania region of Italy. The main town Capri on the island shares the name. It has been a resort since the time of the Roman Republic.

First World War when the dynasty went into exile and lived in much reduced circumstances, family opposition to Prince Christopher's wealthy bride-to-be subsided.

The Orthodox wedding took place on 1 February 1920 in Vevey, Switzerland, six years after the engagement.[ Four days later the bride joined the Greek Orthodox church taking, as was usual, a new Christian name; Anastasia.[ Henceforth she was officially styled HRH Princess Anastasia of Greece (also known as "Princess Christopher").

Shortly after their marriage, she developed cancer. Princess Anastasia died in London on 29 August 1923, leaving no children from this marriage. Prince Christopher did, however, have a stepson, William Bateman Leeds Jr (1902–1971), who had, in 1921, married Princess Xenia Georgievna Romanova of Russia. She was Christopher's niece through his elder sister, Marie of Greece, Grand Duchess George of Russia.

**Prince Christopher of Greece and Denmark** (10 August 1888 – 21 January 1940) was the son of a Hellenic king, belonging to a dynasty which mounted and lost the throne of Greece several times during his lifetime. Much of his life was spent living abroad.

He was born at Pavlovsk, Imperial Russia, son of George I of Greece and his queen, Olga, a Russian grand duchess by birth. He was the youngest of their eight children, being twenty years younger than their oldest child, Constantine. He was called "Christo" in the family. His older brothers were future King Constantine I, George, Nicholas and Andrew.

Christopher, like his siblings, was a polyglot, speaking Greek, English, Danish, Russian, French and Italian. The siblings spoke Greek to one another, and used English with their parents. The parents, however, spoke German to each other.

The Greek royal family maintained close relations with the Danish royal family, to which they also officially belonged. The Hellenic royal line was a cadet branch of the Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg dynasty which had mounted the throne of Denmark in 1863.

**More examples of some American commoners married into European royalty:**

- Alexandra von Fürstenberg (née Alexandra Natasha Miller)
- Lady Randolph Churchill (née Jennie Jerome)
- Mary Curzon, Baroness Curzon of Kedleston (née Mary Victoria Leiter)
- Grace Kelly, Princess of Monaco
- Helen Beresford, Baroness Decies (née Helen Gould)
- Elizabeth Wharton Drexel, Baroness Decies
- Audrey Emery, Princess Romanovskaya-Ilyinskaya
- Thelma Furness, Viscountess Furness (née Thelma Morgan)
- Anna Gould, comtesse de Castellane, duchesse de Sagan
- Alice Heine, duchesse de Richelieu, Princess of Monaco

- [Maria Consuelo Iznaga Clement](), Viscountess Mandeville
- [Marie-Chantal, Crown Princess of Greece]() (née Marie-Chantal Miller)
- [Mary Goelet](), Duchess of Roxburghe
- [Mary Elsie Moore](), Princess of Citivell-Cesi
- [Lee Radziwill]()
- [Wallis Simpson](), Duchess of Windsor
- [Winnaretta Singer](), Princesse Edmond de Polignac
- [Gladys Vanderbilt Széchenyi]()
- [Consuelo Vanderbilt](), Duchess of Marlborough
- [Clara Ward, Princesse de Caraman-Chimay]()
- [Ava Lowle Willing](), Baroness Ribblesdale
- [Frances Ellen Work](), Baroness Fermoy

These are some other American heiresses, living and past:

- [Aline Barnsdall]()
- [Amanda Hearst]()
- [Anne Hearst]()
- [Lydia Hearst-Shaw]()
- [Patty Hearst]()
- [Nicky Hilton]()
- [Paris Hilton]()
- [Brooke Hogan]()
- [Kate Macy Ladd]()
- [Jacqueline Kennedy Onassis]()
- [Gloria Vanderbilt]()
- [Grace Vanderbilt]()
- [Flora Payne Whitney]()
- [Gertrude Vanderbilt Whitney]()

# THE NEW ALMANACH DE GOTHA

On 16 March 1998, following a break of fifty-four years, the 1998 182nd Almanach de Gotha was released at a Book Launch held at Claridge's Hotel in London, with John Kennedy as its editor. In 1999 following the fall of communism the publishers of Almanach found a new 'raison d'etre', all across Europe aristocrats are trying to regain property sequestered by communist regimes, a new *Almanach de Gotha*, published in London, is helping them to prove that they are in fact who they claim to be, and thus restore them to the ancestral estates.

Thus far, three editions (in 2000, 2001 and 2004) have been published, with the aim of helping the aristocrats prove their identities, and restore to them their ancestral estates. The most accurate version remains however the copies from the German edition of the "Genealogisches Handbuch des Adels" 'section "Fuerstliche Haeuser". Available at Wilhem

Starke Verlag it is unfortunately only published in German and a reader must own at least 3 of the latest copies to be able to retrace the majority of European royal families.

The Imperial family of Austria used to demand at least 16 quartering (Every member of the family until the great-great- grandparents had to be noble and bear a coat of arms, which could then be divided into 16 on a hatchment) before a person could marry into the dynasty. Today they have dropped these standards, likewise the aristocracy of Europe is following, but still the *Almanach de Gotha* follows their pedigrees; and as ever in spite of the Almanach, the headship the Royal Family of Two Sicilies remains in dispute, as does that of France; and innumerable other noble houses.

A review in *The Economist* criticized the low editorial standards of Almanach of Gotha and attacked Volume II for a lack of genealogical accuracy.

Statement of Guy Stair Sainty[101], THE KENNEDY "ALMANACH DE GOTHA" VOLUME II, April 2001: *"The plump mustard colored volume purports to catalogue the genealogies of the Non-Sovereign Princely and Ducal House of Europe, attempting to be the successor to the original Almanach de Gotha that was last issued in 1944. In following the format of the original publication, including a selection of European Princely and Ducal families, the result is neither comprehensive nor, in individual cases, accurate. Those anxious for this information and who do not have access to other, superior sources, may find it useful, but will soon wonder at both the lacunae and some of the inclusions. If they have any expectation of finding therein accurate or comprehensive information, then they will be sadly disappointed. Here, however, they may find the dead are living and the living dead, the extinct are flourishing and the extant extinguished.... This publication is of interest as a curiosity, but as a useful source of reference it is more misleading than informative".*

## London publication, since 1998
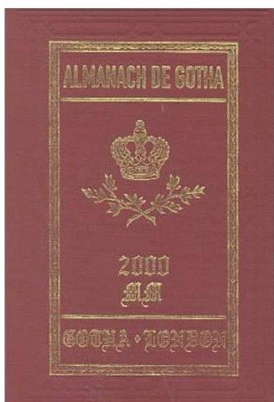
World War Two finally ended in 1945, the Soviets went on to occupy the old Duchy of Gotha they immediately stormed the factory where the presses were housed and within five short days, in a public display of protest, destroyed, by burning, most of the Imperial and Royal genealogical and heraldic archives, since the books contained detailed references to many Royal Houses of Europe which included the Romanov Dynasty former Imperial House of Russia, the attempt to obliterate history was made against these milestones, the fate of the entire archive still remains somewhat of a mystery, what was to the Soviets a classic symbol of a degenerate bourgeois European society, was in any case a substantial archive of Genealogy

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[101] **Guy Stair Sainty**, (born 7 December 1950) is an art dealer and author on royal genealogy and heraldry.

on European Royalty and Nobility, over 100,000 maps and 80,000 books survived and the remaining assets in Gotha were returned after reunification of Germany, whereas the genuine 'Gotha' has not been re-published or re-issued since 1944 being the date of its last genuine edition as stated by the family of Justus Perthes.

The original Almanach de Gotha was published continuously from 1763-1944 and became the most influential Royal Genealogical Reference book ever produced, its Committee of reigning kings and princes oversaw what was to become a unique and unrivalled work.

In 1989 the family of Justus Perthes re-established its right to the use of the name Almanach de Gotha. The family then sold these rights to a new company, Almanach de Gotha Limited, formed in London. Whereas it should be noted that the London based Almanach de Gotha Limited has no connection to Justus Perthes other than the purchase of rights to use the Almanach de Gotha name under license and as such their publication can not and should not be considered either a continuation of the Old Gotha or in fact an Original copy of the legendary Almanach de Gotha bearing the same name.

Justus Perthes considers this a new work and not a continuation of the series last published by his family in 1944 with the 181st edition. The new publishers launched with the 182nd edition on 16 March 1998 at Claridge's Hotel. It was written in English instead of French as the Editor felt that English was now the language of diplomacy. Charlotte Pike served as Editor of the 1998 edition only and John Kennedy as managing director and publisher. The new publishers also revived the Committee of Patrons under the presidency of King Juan Carlos I of Spain and chairmanship of former King Michael I of Romania.

The London publisher produced a further four editions of Volume I (1999, 2000, 2003 and 2004) based on the 1998 edition of Volume I which include Europe's and South America's reigning, formerly reigning, and mediatised princely houses, and a single edition of Volume II in 2001 edited by John Kennedy and Ghislain Crassard which include other non-sovereign princely and ducal houses of Europe.

The present Almanach has continued to include a greater number of the princely and ducal families, including more from Eastern Europe as well as the grandees and ducal families of Portugal and Spain, **making exception for female transmission.** Volume I includes a Calendar for the year (Feasts, Eclipses, Sunrise and Sunset, Religious Calendars and the Appearance of the Planets); Part I (Genealogies of the Sovereign Houses of Europe & South America); Part II (Genealogies of the Mediatized Princes and Princely Counts of Europe & The Holy Roman Empire); Diplomatic and Statistical Directory (Enumeration of All Main Civil Servants of the Principal States of the World including Diplomatic Representatives & Consuls and Statistics on the Various Countries), and; various appendices. Volume II contains a Calendar for the year (Feasts, Eclipses, Sunrise and Sunset, Religious Calendars and the Appearance of the Planets), and; Part III (Genealogies of the Non-Sovereign Princely & Ducal Houses of Europe).
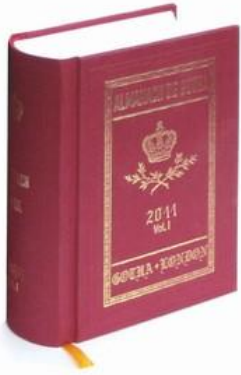
### New London Almanach de Gotha - Volume II

After a gap of eight years a new edition of Volume I was published in 2012 under the editorship of John James. A review in *The Times Literary Supplement*[102] praised the 2012 Volume I for a "punctilious itemization of titles, lineage and heraldry (aiming) for scholarship rather than sensation...Some family legends – such as the Ottoman boast of descent from a grandson of Noah – do not merit inclusion in a work with authoritative aspirations. Most quixotically of all, the title page displays the word 'Annual', although it has been eight years since the last edition appeared."

It is in the second and newest volume that one enters a realm of fully-fledged absurdity. The choice of families is largely arbitrary. Only seven of Britain's 24 non-royal dukedoms are chronicled, and those very patchily; most of the others are merely mentioned in the contents pages, while three of the grandest, Norfolk, Beaufort and Northumberland, are ignored altogether. Of Europe's 274 non-royal but princely or ducal families considered worthy of entry, about a hundred listed in the contents pages are then bizarrely revealed to be extinct or documented only in previous, pre-1944 editions. It is an almanac with a most random kind of calendar.

In terms of commonness, Italian princess is the most devalued. Some 84 Italian families pop into the book, about a sixth of them Sicilian. (This represents a considerable drop from earlier, more vainglorious times: in 1800 Sicily alone boasted more than 100 princely and ducal families.) The French come next, with about 40 families chosen, a quarter of which flaunt dukedoms of mostly martial Bonapartist creation (Berthier, Davout, Junot, MacMahon, Murat and Ney among them); roughly half of the rest are post-Revolutionary creations. The Germans are still doing well, with another 29 third-division princely families listed, to add to the 63 in the first volume. A good many Russian and Polish families are given princely documentation, though once again with some glaring omissions

The trouble with new Almanach de Gotha, is that it **was famous for not including many legitimate persons of noble birth**, on the basis that it could not, so this book was not always reliable with its given reference, Emperor Napoleon and his family were denied listing for many years, as well as King Zog I of Albania and various other persons of Rank and Title, were not included, so we can therefore discount that option, whereas concerning the Genealogisches Handbuch des Adels which was set up in 1951 to try and be the successor to the Almanach de Gotha, has made many reference mistakes in the past, whereas a lot of royal records and archives were burnt in the various bombing raids during the second world war and other documents burnt or stolen by the Red Army, so complete reference can not be totally verified always, but being listed in this book would of course hold same verification of

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[102] *The Times Literary Supplement* (or *TLS*, on the front page from 1969) is a weekly literary review published in London by News International, a subsidiary of News Corporation.

holding, bearing and enjoying such noble rank bearing in mind this book like the other is still an unofficial book holding no formal connections to the German government or authorities therein, Justus Perthes. The latter was also (perhaps even better known as a publisher of maps and atlases and known for accuracy). The Almanach de Gotha contained not only genealogical information, but also listings of officials of various European states, diplomats and consuls, and an abundance of statistical information about various countries' population and resources.

A review in ***The Economist*** criticized the low editorial standards and attacked Volume II for a lack of genealogical accuracy:

**Gothic Horror**
**New London Almanach de Gotha - Volume II**
**Dated: Jan 24th 2002**

*"FROM 1763 until the Russians stopped the presses when they swept into eastern Germany towards the end of the Second World War, the Almanach de Gotha published elaborate lists and potted genealogies of Europe's royal, semi-royal and leading ducal families. It was re launched in 1998-a cause for music-hall jollity, if not historical excitement. Once again snobs and sneerers alike could work out where the Kotchoubeys de Beauharnais, the Barbianos di Belgiojoso d'Este and the Batthyany Strattmanns now live, whom they have married, what they do, and even-reading between the blood lines-whether they still, ahem, count.*

*The sine qua non of any reference book, however frivolous, is accuracy. Unfortunately, the latest installment of the Almanach, which purports to document those families that aren't quite royal but are still pretty grand, is perhaps the most laughably sloppy product of its kind ever to have been published. It used, in the old days, to be in French. Now it is in English, albeit the English of someone apparently in desperate need of both a dictionary and a spell-check function on his PC. The book's very first page, addressing the Hamiltons of Abercorn, Ulster's only ducal family, contains no fewer than six howlers, starting on the third line, where a lymphad (a Viking ship common in west-coast Scottish coats of arms) becomes a "hymphad".*

*Bloopers and typos abound: "moddel", "marshall", "sollicitor", "baronett", "the Scotts Guards", "the Royal Human Society". Translations are quirky: try "annulated" for annulled, or "secret camerist" for chamberlain. Place-names are particularly wayward: witness "Marocco", "Varsaw", "Turquey" and "Tchechoslovaquia". The editor even manages to place the principality of Liechtenstein (misspelt, of course, without its first "e") in Germany.*

*If the Almanach's genealogical accuracy is of a similar standard, the matchmaking dowagers perusing its pages had better watch out. Their eyebrows might in any event twitch if they were to read on the Almanach's website that its editor, John Kennedy, was "a former member of the [British] royal household" who is "separated from his partner, Princess Lavinia of Yugoslavia". Eh? Mr Kennedy, formerly Jovan Gvozdenovic, is a sometime Conservative candidate for parliament who lobbied for Radovan Karadzic and*

*once worked for Prince Michael of Kent. Presumably he dated the lovely Lav, herself born out of wedlock to a Karageorgevic. Gosh!*

*But if you go by the number of families still carrying royal-sounding prefixes, it is the Germans, of course, who provide Europe, and the Almanach, with its princely ballast, thanks mostly to the Holy Roman Empire. Some 16 German families, excluding the Habsburgs and the Liechtensteins, are deemed top-flight royalty by virtue of being more or less sovereign at some relatively recent historical moment, and are therefore included in the first volume. Among them is the family of Reuss, all of whose males are, confusingly enough, called Heinrich, 35 of whom were born in the last century.*

*The second part of volume one catalogues "mediatised princely families": those which at some early point became subordinate to a greater royal house. There are 47 such families, whose members all call themselves princes and princesses. They have, it seems, survived quite well. They still overwhelmingly marry within caste; many still live in the ancestral schloss; they still have some cash; but few play much part in public life or politics.*

*It is in the second and newest volume that one enters a realm of fully-fledged absurdity. The choice of families is largely arbitrary. Only seven of Britain's 24 non-royal dukedoms are chronicled, and those very patchily; most of the others are merely mentioned in the contents pages, while three of the grandest, Norfolk, Beaufort and Northumberland, are ignored altogether. Of Europe's 274 non-royal but princely or ducal families considered worthy of entry, about a hundred listed in the contents pages are then bizarrely revealed to be extinct or documented only in previous, pre-1944 editions. It is an almanac with a most random kind of calendar.*

*How grand is a prince? In terms of commonness, Italian princes are the most devalued. Some 84 Italian families pop into the book, about a sixth of them Sicilian. (This represents a considerable drop from earlier, more vainglorious times: in 1800 Sicily alone boasted more than 100 princely and ducal families.) The French come next, with about 40 families chosen, a quarter of which flaunt dukedoms of mostly martial Bonapartist creation (Berthier, Davout, Junot, MacMahon, Murat and Ney among them); roughly half of the rest are post-Revolutionary creations. The Germans are still doing well, with another 29 third-division princely families listed, to add to the 63 in the first volume. A good many Russian and Polish families are given princely documentation, though once again with some glaring omissions.*

*To put it kindly, there are princes and princes. At a guess, there are probably more than 2,000 German ones-three times the number of hereditary British peers. Britain's royal house has less than a score of living princes and princesses. To the unwary Almanach-reader, they would appear to be outshone by the family of Beguin Billecocq Durazzo, who has a full score of members bearing a seemingly royal prefix. No matter that their title was acquired in 1929 from Albania's King Zog when grandpa was an insignificant French ambassador".*

The old Almanach de Gotha exists no longer, but it continues to exercise its fascination. It is simultaneously the emblem and the vestige of everything that down the centuries has made up the greatness, the strength and the charm of Europe.

# TODAY NOBILITY

The 20th century saw a large number of monarchies dismantled. Notable examples are Imperial China (1911, became the Republic of China and later the People's Republic of China); the Russian Empire (1917, became the Soviet Union); German Empire (1918, became a democratic republic); Austria-Hungary (1919), and the Ottoman Empire (fell apart as consequence of defeat in World War I, 1923). After the end of World War II several more joined the club: Bulgaria (1945); Yugoslavia (1945); Italy (1946); and Romania (1947). Greece and a few African and Asian states (Egypt, Iraq, Iran, Libya, Afghanistan, and Vietnam) became republics during the second half of the century.

Back in the days, monarchs would only marry off their royal offspring to other monarchs to form alliances and treaties between two nations. As a result, every royal member from different royal houses across Europe is all distant relative through birth or marriage.

Over the past centuries, monarchies have had an unwritten rule that required the monarch and those in the line of succession to marry a spouse from a royal or at least noble family. In most cases, royal families arranged marriages to strengthen the power or influence of the royal house by making strategic alliances, and they did not take an individual's personal feelings or preferences into consideration. This attitude started to change a few decades ago, with more and more monarchs deciding to marry for love regardless of the status of their spouse, and allowing their heirs to do the same.

As a result, commoners joined the royal circle and had to become familiar with the arcane rites and mystique that have always surrounded kings and queens, as well as the stress of living their lives in public and being the subject of relentless attention from the media.

While many of the current kings and queens fell in love with a royal or noble spouse, some decided to marry a commoner despite the prevailing royal preference for equal marriages. Some of the commoners who married into the current generation of rulers - Grand Duchess Maria Teresa of Luxembourg, Queen Sonja of Norway, and Empress Michiko of Japan. Other commoners - Queen Silvia of Sweden, Queen Rania of Jordan, and Lalla Salma of Morocco.

To look at the example of women who married into royal houses as commoners, we can see clearly that, regardless of their origins, the right person must be at the right place at the right time. Success or failure depends very much on the present circumstances of the monarchy, the monarchy's background and history, the attitude of the royal house and the public, and the traits of the future spouse.

There are twelve monarchies in Europe today; ten of these are states whose head of state (a monarch) inherits his or her office, and usually keeps it for life or until they abdicate. The head of state in the State of the Vatican City, the pope, is elected at the papal conclave. The joint heads of state of Andorra are the elected President of France and the appointed Bishop of Urgell. At the dawn of the 20th century, France, Switzerland and San Marino were the only European nations to have a republican form of government. The ascent of republicanism to the political mainstream started only at the beginning of the 20th century, facilitated by the

toppling of various European monarchies through war or revolution; as at the beginning of the 21ˢᵗ century, most of the states in Europe are republics with either a directly or indirectly elected head of state.

Europe's monarchies are: the Principality of Andorra (technically a semi-elective diarchy), the Kingdom of Belgium, the Kingdom of Denmark, the Principality of Liechtenstein, the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg, the Principality of Monaco, the Kingdom of the Netherlands, the Kingdom of Norway, the Kingdom of Spain, the Kingdom of Sweden, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the State of the Vatican City (elective monarchy, styled a theocracy).

## THE POPE AND THE QUEEN ON EQUAL FOOTING?

The oldest still surviving hierarchies are those of the nobility, the Church and the military. What is perhaps not commonly known is how they correspond with each other. Below is an outline of the correspondence between the catholic hierarchy of the Holy Roman Catholic Church and that of the nobility.

All noblemen are dependent on a Prince or Monarch for their noble rank. Catholic priests have since time immemorial held rank equivalent to that of an untitled nobleman, it is from a nobiliary standpoint interesting to reflect upon the Lateran Pacts of 1929 5 between the Holy See and Italy. The Vatican City State is recognized as a sovereign country and the Supreme Pontiff as its Sovereign, in this capacity equal to the King of Italy. Article 21 of the "Conciliation Treaty "states that "All Cardinals shall enjoy, in Italy, the honours due to Princes of the Blood

This means that the two top levels of the noble hierarchy are defined, and they correspond to equal ranks of the priesthood. The other steps follow by extrapolation in the only way possible.

Catholic Hierarchy          Noble hierarchy

Pope                        Monarch
Cardinal                    Prince
Archbishop                  Duke/Marquis
Bishop / Aux. Bishop        Count/Baron
Monsignore/Priest           Noble

Of course a number of details may be argued. It should however be noted that other codification exists as well. In the Almanach de Gotha, all Cardinals are listed as having the rank of Prince. In his book "The Holy See and the International Order", that most distinguished diplomat of the Holy See H.E. Archbishop Hyginus Eugene Cardinale has devoted part of a chapter to "Armorial bearings, attire and titles of Catholic priests".

It should further be noted that the nobiliary hierarchy is usually regarded as logarithmic. The step between noble and Baron is often regarded as greater than that between Baron and Count, etc. I am not competent to judge if this is also the case with the catholic hierarchy of the Church, but it will be evident that for a number of reasons it is only possibly to make approximations when trying to bring the rank systems above in harmony with each other.

Popes have granted a number of nobiliary titles to deserving subjects during the course of the centuries. According to the Lateran Pacts of 1929, in the Concordat Art 42, "Italy shall admit the recognition of titles of nobility conferred by the Supreme Pontiff, even after 1870, and of those that shall be conferred in the future". In 1947 the Constitution of the Italian Republic abolished the use of nobiliary titles, in the sense that they are placed outside the legal system of the Republic.



Benito Mussolini[103] reads his credentials prior to signing the Lateran Treaty on behalf of King Victor Emmanuel III. Cardinal Gasparri (seated) signed on behalf of Pope Pius XI. (February 11th, 1929)

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[103] **Benito Amilcare Andrea Mussolini** (29 July 1883 – 28 April 1945) was an Italian politician who led the National Fascist Party, ruling the country from 1922 to his ousting in 1943. Mussolini was one of the key figures in the creation of fascism. Mussolini was Dictator of Italy from 1930 to 1943, after he destroyed all political opposition through his secret police and outlawed labor strikes.

**Papal nobility**

Throughout Italy, various influential families came to positions of power through the election of a family member as Pope or were elevated into the ranks of nobility through ecclesiastic promotion. These families freely intermarried with aristocratic nobility.

Like other noble families, those with both papal power and money were able to purchase comunes[104] or other tracts of land and elevate family patriarchs and other relatives to noble titles. Hereditary patriarchs were appointed *Duke, Marquis* and even *Prince* of various 16th- and 17th-century *principalities*.

Popes commonly elevated members of prominent families to the position of Cardinal[105]; especially second and third sons who would not otherwise inherit hereditary titles. Popes also elevated their own family members - especially nephews - to the special position of Cardinal-Nephew. Prominent families could purchase curial offices for their sons and regularly did, hoping that the son would rise through Church ranks to become a Bishop or a Cardinal, from which position they could dispense further titles and positions of authority to other family members.

The period was famous for papal nepotism[106] and many families, such as the Barberini and Pamphili, benefited greatly from having a papal relative. Families that had previously been limited to agricultural or mercantile ventures found themselves, sometimes within only one or two generations, elevated to the social circles of Italian nobility when a relative was elected to the papal throne.

Modern Italy is dotted with the fruits of their success - various family *palazzi* (palaces) remain standing today as a testament to their sometimes meteoric rise to power.

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[104] In Italy, the **comune** (plural **comuni**) is a basic administrative division in Italy, roughly equivalent to a township or municipality in the English language.

[105] A **cardinal** is a senior ecclesiastical official, usually an ordained bishop, and ecclesiastical prince of the Catholic Church. Cardinals are collectively known as the College of Cardinals, which as a body elects a new pope

[106] Nepotism is favoritism granted to relatives regardless of merit.[1] The word nepotism is from the Latin word nepos, nepotis (m. "nephew"), from which modern Romanian nepot and Italian nipote and Catalan nebot, "nephew" or "grandchild" are also descended.

## Pope Sixtus IV – Della Rovena Family

**Pope Sixtus IV** (21 July 1414 – 12 August 1484), born Francesco **della Rovere**, was Pope from 1471 to 1484. His accomplishments as Pope included the establishment of the Sistine Chapel[107]; the group of artists that he brought together introduced the Early Renaissance into Rome with the first masterpiece of the city's new artistic age, the Vatican Archives. Sixtus also furthered the agenda of the Spanish Inquisition and annulled the decrees of the Council of Constance[108]. He was famed for his nepotism and was personally involved in the infamous Pazzi Conspiracy.[109]

Like a number of Popes, Sixtus IV adhered to the system of nepotism. In the fresco by Melozzo[110] da Forlì he is accompanied by his Della Rovere and Riario nephews, not all of whom were made cardinals: the protonotary[111] apostolic Pietro Riario (on his right), the future

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[107] **Sistine Chapel** (Italian: *Cappella Sistina*) is the best-known chapel in the Apostolic Palace, the official residence of the Pope in the Vatican City. It is famous for its architecture and its decoration that was frescoed throughout by Renaissance artists including Michelangelo, Sandro Botticelli, Pietro Perugino, Pinturicchio and others. Under the patronage of Pope Julius II, Michelangelo painted 1,100 m² (12,000 sq ft) of the chapel ceiling between 1508 and 1512. The ceiling, and especially *The Last Judgment* (1535–1541), is widely believed to be Michelangelo's crowning achievement in painting.

[108] The **Council of Constance** is the 16th ecumenical council recognized by the Roman Catholic Church, held from 1414 to 1418. The council ended the Three-Popes Controversy, by deposing or accepting the resignation of the remaining Papal claimants and electing Pope Martin V. The Council also condemned and executed Jan Hus and ruled on issues of national sovereignty, the rights of pagans, and just war in response to a conflict between the Kingdom of Poland and the Order of the Teutonic Knights. The Council is important for its relationship to ecclesial Conciliarism and Papal supremacy.

[109] The **Pazzi family** is a noble Tuscan family, particularly notable in the medieval and Renaissance periods. They gave up their titles so that members could be elected to public office. Their main trade, during the 15th century was banking. They are linked to the "Pazzi conspiracy"—to assassinate Giuliano de' Medici and simultaneously attempt murder of his brother, Lorenzo de' Medici on 26 April 1478. Andrea de' Pazzi was also the patron of the chapter house for the Franciscan community at Florence's Santa Croce church, often known as the Pazzi Chapel. After the conspiracy, the remaining Pazzi were rehabilitated and returned to Florence although they suffered the indignity of not being allowed to serve in government or take part in some of the more prestigious religious festivals.

110 Melozzo da Forlì (c. 1438 – 1494-11-08) was an Italian Renaissance painter and architect. His fresco paintings are notable for the use of foreshortening. He was the most important member of the Forlì painting school.
[111] In the Roman Catholic Church, **protonotary apostolic** (Latin *protonotarius apostolicus*) is the title for a member of the highest non-episcopal college of prelates in the Roman Curia or, outside of Rome, an honorary prelate on whom the pope has conferred this title and its special privileges.

Pope Julius II standing before him, and Girolamo Riario and Giovanni della Rovere behind the kneeling Platina, author of the first humanist history of the Popes. His nephew Pietro Riario also benefited from his nepotism. Pietro became one of the richest men in Rome and was entrusted with Sixtus IV's foreign policy. However, Pietro died prematurely in 1474, and his role passed to Giuliano della Rovere.

*(Sixtus IV, Pope (1471-84), before: Francesco della Rovere; 1414-1484.-"Pope Sixtus IV appoints Platina as prefect of the library". (that is Bartolomeo Sacchi, 1421-1481, administrator of the papal library since 1475).- Fresco, 1477, by Melozzo da Forli (1438-1494); former Vatican library; transferred onto canvas)*

The secular fortunes of the Della Rovere began when Sixtus invested his nephew Giovanni with the lordship of Senigallia and arranged his marriage to the daughter of Federico III da Montefeltro[112], duke of Urbino; from this union came a line of Della Rovere dukes of Urbino that lasted until the line expired in 1631. Six of the thirty-four cardinals that he created were his nephews. (McBrien, *Lives of the Popes*, p. 265).

In his territorial aggrandizement of the Papal States, Sixtus IV's niece's son Cardinal Raffaele Riario, for whom the Palazzo della Cancelleria[113] was constructed, was a leader in the failed "Pazzi conspiracy" of 1478 to assassinate both Lorenzo de' Medici[114] and his brother Giuliano

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[112] **Federico da Montefeltro**, also known as **Federico III da Montefeltro** (7 June 1422 – 10 September 1482), was one of the most successful condottieri of the Italian Renaissance, and lord of Urbino from 1444 (as Duke from 1474) until his death. In Urbino he commissioned the construction of a great library, perhaps the largest of Italy after the Vatican, with his own team of scribes in his scriptorium, and assembled around him a large humanistic court in the Ducal Palace of Urbin

[113] The **Palazzo della Cancelleria** (Italian for "Palace of the Chancellery", meaning the Papal Chancellery) is a Renaissance palace in Rome, Italy, situated between the present Corso Vittorio Emanuele II and the Campo de' Fiori, in the rione of Parione. It was built between 1489–1513 by an unknown architect as a palace for Cardinal Raffaele Riario, <u>Camerlengo of the Holy Roman Church</u>, and is regarded as the earliest Renaissance palace in Rome. The palazzo houses the Papal Chancellery, and is an <u>exclave</u> of the Vatican, not subject to Italian sovereignty. It is designated as a World Heritage Site as part of a group of buildings, the Properties of the Holy See.

[114] **Lorenzo de' Medici** (1 January 1449 – 9 April 1492) was an Italian statesman and de facto ruler of the Florentine Republic during the Italian Renaissance. Known as **Lorenzo the Magnificent** (*Lorenzo il Magnifico*) by contemporary Florentines, he was a diplomat, politician and patron of scholars, artists, and poets. Perhaps what he is most known for is his contribution to the art world, giving large amounts of money to artists so they could create master works of art. His life coincided with the high point of the mature phase Italian

and replace them in Florence with Sixtus IV's other nephew, Girolamo Riario. Francesco Salviati, Archbishop of Pisa and a main organizer of the plot, was hanged on the walls of the Florentine Palazzo della Signoria[115]. To this, Sixtus IV replied with an interdict[116] and two years' of war with Florence. He also encouraged the Venetians to attack Ferrara, which he wished to obtain for another nephew. The angered Italian princes allied to force Sixtus IV to make peace, to his great annoyance.

## Pope Urban VIII –The Barberini Family



The Barberini were a family of the Italian nobility that rose to prominence in 17th century Rome. Their influence peaked with the election of Cardinal Maffeo Barberini to the papal throne in 1623, as Pope Urban VIII. Their urban palace, the Palazzo Barberini, (completed in 1633 by Bernini), today houses Italy's *Galleria Nazionale d'Arte Antica* (National Gallery of Ancient Art).

The Barberini family was originally a family of minor nobility from the Tuscan town of Barberino Val d'Elsa, who settled in Florence during the early part of the 11th century.

Pope Urban VIII (baptized 5 April 1568 – 29 July 1644), born **Maffeo Barberini**. On 6 August 1623, at the papal conclave following the death of Pope Gregory XV, he was chosen as Gregory's successor and took the name Urban VIII. He was pope from 1623 to 1644. He was the last pope to expand the papal territory by force of arms, and was a prominent patron of the arts and reformer of Church missions. However, the massive debts incurred during his papacy greatly weakened his successors, who were unable to maintain the papacy's

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Renaissance and his death coincided with the end of the Golden Age of Florence  The fragile peace he helped maintain between the various Italian states collapsed with his death. Lorenzo de' Medici is buried in the Medici Chapel in Florence.

[115] The **Palazzo Vecchio** "Old Palace") is the town hall of Florence, Italy. This massive, Romanesque, crenellated fortress-palace is among the most impressive town halls of Tuscany. Overlooking the Piazza della Signoria with its copy of Michelangelo's David statue as well the gallery of statues in the adjacent Loggia dei Lanzi, it is one of the most significant public places in Italy. Originally called the *Palazzo della Signoria*, after the Signoria of Florence, the ruling body of the Republic of Florence, it was also given several other names: *Palazzo del Popolo*, *Palazzo dei Priori*, and *Palazzo Ducale*, in accordance with the varying use of the palace during its long history. The building acquired its current name when the Medici duke's residence was moved across the Arno to the Palazzo Pitti.

[116] In Roman Catholic canon law, an **interdict** is an ecclesiastical censure that excludes from certain rites of the Church individuals or groups, who nonetheless do not cease to be members of the Church-

longstanding political and military influence in Europe. He was also involved in a controversy with Galileo[117] and his theory on heliocentrism[118] during his reign.

Urban's papacy covered twenty-one years of the Thirty Years' War[119] and was an eventful one even by the standards of the day. He canonized Elizabeth of Portugal, Andrew Corsini and Conrad of Piacenza, and issued the Papal bulls of canonization for Ignatius Loyola and Francis Xavier who had been canonized by his predecessor, Pope Gregory.

Despite an early friendship and encouragement for his teachings, Urban was responsible for summoning Galileo to Rome in 1633 to recant his work.

Urban practiced nepotism on a grand scale; various members of his family were enormously enriched by him, so that it seemed to contemporaries as if were establishing a Barberini dynasty. He elevated his brother Antonio Marcello Barberini (Antonio the Elder) and then his nephews Francesco Barberini and Antonio Barberini (Antonio the Younger) to Cardinal. He also bestowed upon their brother, Taddeo Barberini, the titles *Prince of Palestrina*, Gonfalonier of the Church, Prefect of Rome and *Commander of Sant'Angelo*. Historian Leopold von Ranke[120] estimated that during his reign, Urban's immediate family amassed 105 million scudi[121] in personal wealth. (*History of the popes; their church and state (Volume III)* by Leopold von Ranke (Wellesley College Library, reprint; 2009)

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[117] **Galileo Galilei** (15 February 1564 – 8 January 1642), was an Italian physicist, mathematician, astronomer, and philosopher who played a major role in the Scientific Revolution. His achievements include improvements to the telescope and consequent astronomical observations and support for Copernicanism. Galileo has been called the "father of modern observational astronomy",[6] the "father of modern physics",the "father of science", and "the Father of Modern Science"

[118] **Heliocentrism**, or **heliocentricism**, is the astronomical model in which the Earth and planets revolve around a stationary Sun at the center of the Solar System.

[119] The **Thirty Years' War** (1618–1648) was a series of wars principally fought in Central Europe, involving most of the countries of Europe. It was one of the longest and most destructive conflicts in European history, and one of the longest continuous wars in modern history.

[120] **Leopold von Ranke** (21 December 1795 – 23 May 1886) was a German positivist historian[1] and a founder of modern source-based history.Ranke set the standards for much of later historical writing, introducing such ideas as reliance on primary sources (Empiricism), an emphasis on narrative history and especially international politics (*Aussenpolitik*).

[121] The **scudo** (pl. *scudi*) was the name for a number of coins used in Italy until the 19th century. The name, like that of the French écu and the Spanish and Portuguese escudo, was derived from the Latin *scutum* ("shield"). From the 16th century, the name was used in Italy for large silver coins. Sizes varied depending on the issuing country.

## Pope Innocent X - The Pamphili Family

The **Pamphili** (often with the final *long i* orthography, **Pamphilj**) are one of the papal families deeply entrenched in Roman Catholic Church, Roman and Italian politics of the 16th and 17th centuries. Later, the Pamphili family line merged with the Doria and *Landi* family lines to form the Doria-Pamphili-Landi family line.

The Pamphili surname originated in Gubbio and went to Rome under the pontificate of Pope Innocent VIII (1484–1492). Pope Innocent VIII (1432 – 25 July 1492), born **Giovanni Battista Cybo** (or **Cibo**), was Pope from 1484 until his death in 1492.

The peak of Pamphili power came with the election of **Giovanni Battista Pamphili as Pope Innocent X,** (6 May 1574 – 7 January 1655) who reigned from 1644–1655. Like the reign of his predecessor Pope Urban VIII (of the equally papal Barberini family) Innocent X's rule was littered with examples of nepotism and other Pamphili family members did exceptionally well from the Innocent X papacy.

**Following family members were created cardinals:**

- Camillo Pamphili (1644), his nephew and son of Olimpia Maidalchini, the Pope's sister-in-law and close adviser. He later renounced his cardinality to marry Olimpia Aldobrandini, widow of Paolo Borghese
- Francesco Maidalchini (1647), nephew of Olimpia Maidalchini.
- Camillo Astalli (1650 as *Camillo Astalli-Pamphili*) a cousin of Olimpia Maidalchini whom the Pope had adopted as a Cardinal-Nephew. He was later deprived of this title due to his unloyalty towards Innocent X
- Benedetto Pamphili, son of Camillo Pamphili and Olimpia Aldobrandini, created by Innocent XI in 1681.

Like other Italian noble families, the Pamphili bought property (palazzo or "palaces" and other estates) and created self-styled principalities. Family members regularly had regal titles bestowed upon them by family patriarchs or matriarchs. Olimpia Maidalchini, received the honorific title of *Princess of San Martino,* effectively turning the small enclave of San Martino into a principality in its own right. After he left the cardinality to marry, Camillo Pamphili was given the titles *Prince of San Martino* and *Prince of Valmontone* (he bought the Valmontone *comune* in 1634 from the Barberini family).

**The Pope and the British Queen are the most powerful monarchs in the world.**

Journalist Joan Veon[122] states that the Pope and the British Queen are the most powerful monarchs in the world (From Joan Veon Wednesday publication, May 21, 2008).

"In a world of very powerful political and corporate leaders, two of the most unlikely people share equal footing- -the pope and the queen. While it seems unlikely that they would share monarchial lineage, status as a head of state, and head of a world religion--but they do. The question is, "Do they share the same goals?"

**Monarchial Lineage**

While most of us recognize and know of the royal lineage of the British royal family, most are not familiar with the fact that the Papacy is considered to be the oldest monarchy in the world by the world's oldest authority on royalty, *The Almanach de Gotha*. This makes the Pope a King and the Cardinals of the Church equal to the sons of Kings.

**The Almanach de Gotha**

In 1999, the new *Almanach de Gotha* was published for the first time since World War II as a result of the reunification of Germany and the restoration of rights to the historic title. From 1763 to1944, *The Gotha* was the ultimate authority on the reigning and formerly reigning houses of Europe. It has been described as one of the most important books for recognizing and knowing those who are truly royal. If your name is not in this book, you aren't royal! *The Almanach* primarily focuses on families whose ancestry can be traced back to the Holy Roman Empire (936-1804 A.D.).

In Part One of *The Almanach*, it lists monarchial families by country. Besides Albania, Belgium, Great Britain, Greece, Monaco, and Norway, to name a few, the Holy See is listed among the "Reigning Sovereign Houses".

**The Almanach describes the monarchy and lineage of the Holy See as follows**:

The Holy See--also called the Papal See or sometimes the Holy Apostolic See is the See of Saint Peter of Bethsaida in Galilee, Prince of the Apostles, personally established in Rome in the first century of Christianity having received from Jesus Christ the *suprema potestas pontificia* to be transmitted to his Successors. Besides its dignity of Patriarch of the West, the Universal Primacy of the Petrine See within the Church founded by Christ, as well as its sovereignty have been recognized from earliest times, also before the fall of the Roman Empire. The successors of Saint Peter form the uninterrupted line of Popes until today. The

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[122] Joan M. Veon, Executive Director The Women's International Media Group, Inc. Wednesday, May 21, 2008

Incumbent of the Holy See is usually considered by Christian sovereign families as the "Father of the Family of Kings"; also since His Holiness represents the oldest Monarchy in Europe.

This information puts the Vatican in a whole new light, even though there is no direct blood line back to Peter since Pope's are elected. The Pope is considered equal with royalty and answers to no one on earth

**British Royalty - A Comparison**
When we talk about someone who is "royal", we must ask ourselves what royalty is. For example, in Britain, those who are dukes and lords today basically did the king's business five to nine hundred years ago, and, in return, the king granted them titles, lands, and castles that have made them exceedingly rich and powerful.

**Royal Orders**
Britain's queen gives gifts (knighthoods) to those whom she wishes to honor and also on the recommendation of the Prime Minister. The Order of the Garter is the most famous and most coveted Order of Knighthood. Others that rank next to it are the Order of the Thistle (the Scottish equivalent to the Order of the Garter) and the Order of Bath (Presidents Ronald Reagan and George Bush and Generals Dwight Eisenhower and George S. Patton have received this award).

**Catholic Orders**
Similarly, the Catholic Church bestows the same kind of gifts through Pontifical Orders of Knighthood and Orders of Merit, besides countless Cross and Medals. Pontifical Orders of Knighthood are in the personal gift of the Pope.

The Kennedy family received several such titles of recognition. "When Joseph P. Kennedy attended Pius XII's coronation in early 1939 he was created a Knight Grand Cross of the Order of Pius IX, which still conferred hereditary nobility by male primogeniture on its grantee and his successors."That same Pope created his wife, Rose" a papal countess." When John Kennedy Jr. died, the hereditary noble rank inherited from his grandfather in 1969.

**Head of State**
While we are told that the queen, who comes from the world's second oldest monarchy, is not a head of state, her titles suggest otherwise. The sovereign not only appoints the Prime Minister and dissolves Parliament but upon the death of her father George VI, Elizabeth II, became "Supreme Governor of the Church of England, Supreme Commander of the Armed Forces, and Head of the Executive, the Legislature, and the Judiciary. All government is, carried out in her name: its ministers are her ministers".

The Vatican is a recognized country and has observer status at the United Nations, making the pope a head of state. As such, the Vatican sends its Ambassador to the United Nations and has actively participated in all of the deliberations and mega-conferences. Other than dissenting

on pro-life issues, the Vatican is in full agreement with the goals and objectives of the United Nations which call for the transfer of national sovereignty to the international level, thus confirming speculation that its structure is configured to hold and host a world governmental system.

At a 1999 World Federalist Association conference, its senior vice-president, Dr. John Logue, a practicing Catholic stated, "We must work as hard as we can to build a world commonwealth, a United Nations world commonwealth, which has the power to enact, interpret, and enforce world law limited world law on individuals on you and on me." He also explained "that Pope Pious XII and John XXIII agree" with the doctrines of the World Federalists for world government.

## Leader of a world religion

As part of the titles which are bestowed on the king or queen of England, "Defender of Faith" is one of them as a result of the break by King Henry VIII with the Roman Catholic Church. For years, Prince Charles has made it clear that he wants to be the "Defender of Faiths". Most recently The London Daily Mail confirmed his wishes to have every religion participate in his Coronation. Charles who is a New Ager and pro-Muslim appears to be uniting the eastern religions.

In 1995 the Pope issue an encyclical, "'That They All May Be One' which is dedicated to the search for unity among Christian churches." In commenting on it, Cardinal Edward Cassidy said: "The pope sees the Catholic position on primacy as an essential point of faith...[he] made it clear he would not accept a symbolic papacy without teeth and that Rome would have to hold the primary place among Christians."

# GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS ON EUROPEAN NOBILITY



**Nobility** is a social class which possesses more acknowledged privileges or eminence than members of most other classes in a society, membership therein typically being hereditary. The privileges associated with nobility may constitute substantial advantages over or relative to non-nobles, or may be largely honorary (e.g. precedence), and vary from country to country and era to era. Traditionally membership in the nobility has been regulated or acknowledged by the government. There is often a variety of ranks within the noble class. Legal recognition of nobility is more common in monarchies, but nobility also existed in such republics as the Dutch Provinces, Genoa and Venice, and remains part of the legal social structure of some non-hereditary regimes, e.g. San Marino and Vatican City in Europe. Hereditary titles often distinguish nobles from non-nobles, although in many nations most of the nobility have been un-titled, and a hereditary title need not indicate nobility.

Almost every title of nobility (Kaiser, K"nig, Herzog, Fürst, Landgraf, Graf, Edelmann, Ritter, and others) appears as a surname of many common German families and thus does not indicate any nobility. This is also true for surnames derived from geographical names, such as towns or countries (Berner, Württem- berger). Even the fact that an ancestral surname is identical to the name of a noble family does not necessarily indicate ancestral nobility, because for almost every noble surname, there are some or even many non-noble families with the same or a similar name (von Bülow and Bülow, von Adelmann and Adelmann etc.). In most cases they are not related.

After ruling out such conclusions, there are still a large number of cases relying on family tradition. None of these families has written documentation for its claims, however some refer to papers which were formerly in the possession of the family, but were lost by a fire or some other event or were discarded in order to conceal the illegitimate descent of an ancestor.

In addition to this nonexistence of documents, the verification of such claims is impeded by the missing knowledge about the exact place of origin of the emigrant.

American descendants of European noble or royal families have also formed associations in a land where the attraction to the mystique of nobility has always been strong. Proof of this attraction is the avid interest a large segment of the American public exhibits in following the activities of the royal families throughout the world, especially that of England, as well as the cordial reception American society offers to many members of the titled European nobility who visit the country.

The Association of the German Nobility in North American, the Polish Nobility Association, and the Russian Nobility Association in America are examples of groups in this category.

**Royal Family**
A **royal family** is the extended family of a king or queen regnant. The term **imperial family** appropriately describes the extended family of an emperor or empress, while the terms "ducal family", "grand ducal family" or "princely family" are more appropriate to describe the relatives of a reigning duke, grand duke, or prince, however in common parlance members of any family which reigns by hereditary right are often referred to as royalty or "royals". It is also customary in some circles to refer to the extended relations of a deposed monarch and his or her descendants as a royal family.

**Members of a royal family**
A royal family typically includes the spouse of the reigning monarch, surviving spouses of a deceased monarch, the children, grandchildren, brothers, sisters, and cousins of the reigning monarch, as well as their spouses. In some cases, royal family membership may extend to great grandchildren and more distant descendants of a monarch. In certain monarchies where voluntary abdication[123] is the norm, such as the Netherlands, a royal family may also include one or more former monarchs. There is often a distinction between persons of the blood royal and those that marry into the royal family. In certain instances, such as in Canada, the royal family is defined by who holds the titles Majesty and Royal Highness. Under most systems, only persons in the first category are dynasts, that is, potential successors to the throne (unless the member of the latter category is also in line to the throne in their own right, a frequent occurrence in royal families which frequently intermarry). This is not always observed; some monarchies have operated by the principle of *jure uxoris*.

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[123] **Abdication** occurs when a monarch, such as a king (or queen) or emperor (or empress) renounces his or her office.

*jure uxoris* is a Latin term that means "by right of his wife" or "in right of a wife". It is commonly used to refer to a title held by a man whose wife holds it in her own right. In other words, he acquired the title simply by being her husband.

The husband of an heiress became the possessor of her lands and titles *jure uxoris*, "by right of (his) wife". In the Middle Ages, this was invariably true even for queens regnant and princesses regnant. Accordingly, the husband of the reigning female monarch became monarch. This was a very common situation in the Kingdom of Jerusalem that existed during the Crusades; so many monarchs acceded to the throne after marrying the queen heir: Fulk, King of Jerusalem, Guy of Lusignan, Conrad of Montferrat, Henry II, Count of Champagne and Amalric II of Jerusalem.

On the other hand, during the crisis in the Kingdom of Hungary after the death in the fourteenth century of the King Louis I of Hungary, Sigismund of Luxembourg married Mary of Hungary, the daughter of the dead monarch, obtaining the crown through his wife. After the death of Sigismund the same occurred, the Duke Albert II of Habsburg married the King's daughter Elizabeth of Luxembourg, and through her he inherited the throne of Hungary.

In some cases, the king thus ascended, remained king even after the death of the wife, and in some cases left the kingdom to their own heirs who were not issue of the wife in question (cf. Władysław II Jagiełło of Poland, who ascended as husband of King Jadwiga). In the event of a divorce between a reigning female monarch and her husband, the husband would remain the monarch and the wife could lose her status. One example of this is when Marie of Boulogne and Matthew I of Boulogne were divorced in 1170. Marie ceased to be Countess, while Matthew I continued to reign until 1173.

In later times, the woman remained the monarch, but the husband had some power; for example, when Queen Mary Tudor became married to King Philip or when their ancestors, Isabella and Ferdinand shared crowns, and thus too, when Maria Theresa was queen regnant of Hungary and Bohemia, but her husband Francis was Holy Roman Emperor. This, however, is an imperfect example as Francis was elected to the title (the Imperial title was legally an elected rather than inherited title, though it often remained in the same dynastic house for long periods) and women were barred from the imperial title.

In Britain, because women were excluded from the House of Lords until the present reign, certain offices could be exercised *jure uxoris*. For example, in 1780, when Lady Priscilla Bertie was allowed to inherit the title Baroness Willougby de Eresby which was abeyant[124] between her and her sister, she was also recognized as the representative of the position of Lord Great

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[124] **Abeyance** is a state of expectancy in respect of property, titles or office, when the right to them is not vested in any one person, but awaits the appearance or determination of the true owner. In law, the term abeyance can only be applied to such future estates as have not yet vested or possibly may not vest. For example, an estate is granted to A for life, with remainder to the heir of B. During B's lifetime, the remainder is in abeyance, for until the death of B it is uncertain who is B's heir. Similarly the freehold of a benefice, on the death of the incumbent, is said to be in abeyance until the next incumbent takes possession.

Chamberlain, which was likewise abeyant; however, her husband Sir Peter Gwydyr acted on her behalf in that office instead.

**Maria I** (17 December 1734 – 20 March 1816) was Queen of Portugal, Brazil, and the Algarve. Known as **Maria the Pious** (in Portugal), or **Maria the Mad** (in Brazil), she was the first undisputed Queen regnant of Portugal. Her reign would be a noteworthy one. With Napoleon's European conquests, her court, then under the direction of Prince Dom João, the Prince Regent, moved to the then Portuguese colony of Brazil. Later on, Brazil would be elevated from the rank of a colony to that of a Kingdom, the Kingdom of Brazil, with the consequential formation of the United Kingdom of Portugal, Brazil and the Algarves.

In Portugal, there was a specific condition for a male consort to become a king *jure uxoris*: fathering a royal heir. Queen Maria I already had children by her husband when she became Queen, so he became King Peter III of Portugal (Pedro III ᵒʳ Peter III, 5 July 1717 – 25 May 1786) became King of the Kingdom of Portugal and the Algarves by the accession of his wife and niece Queen Maria I in 1777, and co-reigned alongside her until his death.

(Above picture: Maria Francisca Isabel, Princess of Brazil; Francisco Vieira de Matos, 1753)

Dona **Maria II** (4 April 1819 – 15 November 1853) "the Educator" (or "the Good Mother" (Portuguese: *"a Boa Mãe"*), was Queen regnant of the Kingdom of Portugal and the Algarves from 1826 to 1828 and again from 1834 to 1853. She was a member of the House of Braganza.

On 26 January 1835 Maria married, at the age of fifteen, Auguste, Duke of Leuchtenberg, son of Eugène de Beauharnais, and grandson of Empress Josephine. However, he died only two months later on 28 March 1835.

On 1 January 1836, she married the cultured and able Prince Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha. He received the title of King consort in 1837, in accordance with Portuguese custom, upon the birth of their first child Peter, an heir to the throne. Ferdinand became monarch *jure uxoris* the next year (in 1837), as soon as their first child was born, and he reigned as Ferdinand II, together with his wife. Queen Maria's first husband, Auguste of Beauharnais, was not monarch *jure uxoris*, because he died before he could father an heir.

(Above picture: *Dona Maria II* ; 4 April 1819 – 15 November 1853- by Sir Thomas Lawrence. 1829)

In Spain, the Royal Family has allowed husbands of princesses to become a "duke consort". The title is normally acquired through-marriage and will be lost in a divorce. Such as when Jaime de Marichalar divorced Infanta Elena; he also lost his title. The current Infanta Cristina, Duchess of Palma de Mallorca's husband is Duke Consort of Palma de Mallorca.

*Jure uxoris* monarchs are not to be confused with king consort, who were merely consorts of their wives, not co-rulers.

In addition certain relatives of the monarch (by blood or marriage) possess special privileges and are subject to certain statutes, conventions, or special common law. The precise functions of a royal family vary depending on whether the polity in question is an absolute monarchy, a constitutional monarchy, or somewhere in between. In certain monarchies, such as that found in Saudi Arabia or Kuwait, or in political systems where the monarch actually exercises executive power, such as in Jordan, it is not uncommon for the members of a royal family to hold important government posts or military commands. In most constitutional monarchies, however, members of a royal family perform certain public, social, or ceremonial functions, but refrain from any involvement in electoral politics or the actual governance of the country.

The specific composition of royal families varies from country to country, as do the titles and royal and noble styles held by members of the family. The composition of the royal family may be regulated by statute enacted by the legislature (e.g. Spain, the Netherlands, and Japan since 1947), the Sovereign's prerogative and common law tradition (e.g. the United Kingdom), or a private house law (e.g., Liechtenstein, the former ruling houses of Bavaria,Prussia, Hanover, etc.). Public statutes, constitutional provisions, or conventions may also regulate the marriages, names, and personal titles of royal family members. The members of a royal family may or may not have a surname or dynastic name.

In a constitutional monarchy, when the monarch dies, there is always a law or tradition of succession to the throne that either specifies a formula for identifying the precise order of succession among family members in line to the throne or specifies a process by which a family member is chosen to inherit the crown. Usually in the former case the exact line of hereditary succession among royal individuals may be identified at any given moment during prior reigns (e.g. United Kingdom, Sark, Nizari Ismailis, Japan, Balobedus, Sweden, Benin) whereas in the latter case the next sovereign may be selected (or changed) only during the reign or shortly after the demise of the immediately preceding monarch (e.g. Cambodia, Kwa Zulu Natal, Buganda, Saudi Arabia, Swaziland, Yorubaland). Some monarchies employ a mix of these selection processes (Malaysia, Monaco, Tonga, Jordan, Morocco), providing for both an identifiable line of succession as well as authority for the monarch, dynasty or other institution to alter the line in specific instances without changing the general law of succession.

# GENEALOGIES OF NOBLE FAMILIS AS A SOURCE FOR SOCIAL SCIENCE

Revolution filled the air at the end of the 1800s and beginning of the 1900s, destroying many ancient monarchies. The majority of the revolting nations replaced their thrones with communist governments. You may be surprised to know that while democracy plods on from day to day, the heads of the Royal families deposed, continue to use their titles, claim their thrones, and interact with other ex-royals on a regular basis. In the case of a regnant head of state, such questions may be referring to the realm of assumption. Where a monarchy, whose last sovereign is deceased, has been replaced by a republican state, and where traditional cultural and dynastic institutions, such orders of knighthood, etc., are concerned.

The massive undertaking named the "Almanach de Gotha" was a directory of Europe's nobility first published in 1763 at the ducal court of Friedrich III of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld, which included the city of Gotha. It recorded the ruling houses of Europe and their branches, and those they had ennobled and was the primary source book for royal reference. Until 1918, an aristocrat wishing to marry and have their progeny carry their title had to marry a woman of similar rank. It is even now a fascinating archive of great historical importance. However, when the Soviets occupied Gotha in 1945, they made a public spectacle of destroying all archives of the Almanach to protest all it stood for.

**The general opinion is to consider as authentic nobles only those who are effectively registered. But that is not exact, as these registers were partial and incomplete in the past as they are today and, no doubt, will be tomorrow**. We must remember that each ruling Sovereign House obliged its subjects of noble *status* to submit to certain regulations regarding the recognition of their noble titles, and were only confirmed if they fulfilled certain conditions, which were usually not very economically or ideologically favorable for the person concerned. This meant, that the payment or otherwise of the tax became the discriminating factor to recognize a title, despite the full right to it, and therefore it was frequent that persons were excluded from the lists, which are still published by private associations.

## The Congress of Vienna at no point decide exactly which House had been mediatized

The Congress of Vienna was charged with bringing some sort of order to Europe after the fall and exile of Napoleon. One result od the details of the negotiation was the German Federal Act (Deutschen Bundesakte) of 8 June 1815, which dealt with the Mediatized houses in Article 14. In this, the Mediatized Houses were counted among the highest nobility with the right of equality with the reigning houses (Ebenbürtigkeit), the Heads of the Mediatized Houses were the first vassals [Standesherren] of those States in which their former territories were located, they were exempt from military service, given civil and penal jurisdiction at the lowest level, etc., but always within the framework of the laws of the new State and under the supervision of the government of the new State. Many of the Mediatized Houses protested violently

against the terms of this Article, but they were powerless to prevent it. **At no point, though, did the Congress of Vienna decide exactly *which* Houses had been mediatized, and thus deserving of these higher privileges, leaving that up to the discretion of the individual States.**

"The list of Houses the German Diet considered to have been Mediatized seems fairly odd when compared to historical events in the Holy Roman Empire and in the Confederation of the Rhine, but since the decisions as to which Prince or Count was to be recognized as a Standesherr was left up to the individual States, there was no reason for the States to be overly concerned about what had happened before. The major change for these mediatized houses was that they now had a new predicate (Durchlaucht or Erlaucht) by which they should be addressed. Even these honors were lightly given, as on 12 June 1845 the German Diet extended the recognition of "Erlaucht" to **the Count of Bentinck, who was not even a Standesherr in any of the German States** (though Oldenburg later made the Count of Bentinck a Standesherr).

These divisions of genealogical section of the *Almanach de Gotha* (Part I the Sovereign houses, Part II the non-Sovereign Princely houses including those Standesherren who were Princes, and Part III the Standesherren Counts of the German States) continued until the Franco-Prussian War and the King of Prussia naming himself "Emperor of Germany" (1871). A pan-German triumphalism appeared in the German States, and the editors of the *Almanach de Gotha* followed along. In a fairly nasty bit of Germanic chauvinism, the 1876 *Almanach de Gotha* combined Parts II and III into a single Part II". (Reference: <u>Reitwiesner, William Addams</u>[125] , January 1998. <u>"Mediatizations"</u>. Retrieved 2011-04-19).

**Law of succession and the Almanach de Gotha**
The succession to the throne is regulated not only through descent, but also by Parliamentary statute. The order of succession is the sequence of members of the Royal Family in the order in which they stand in line to the throne.

Several individuals may claim dynastic headship, depending on application as example of Romanov House Law. First, one must determine whether there is a surviving male dynast: if so, he is the legitimate claimant under Romanov House Law. If not, semi-salic succession takes over, and the title passes to the last surviving male dynast's closest female relative. In that case, we must assess who the last surviving male dynast was: This may have been Vladimir Cyrillovich, or, depending on one's view of the validity of his father's or grandfather's marriage, Nicholas Romanovich. Finally, we must assess who the last surviving male dynast's closest female relative is: this may be Maria Vladimirovna, or, depending on one's view of her

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[125] **William Addams Reitwiesner** (March 8, 1954 – November 12, 2010) was a genealogist who traced the ancestry of United States political figures, European royalty and celebrities.

father's marriage, Nicholas Romanovich; semi-salic succession may instead pivot from, for instance, Nicholas II, or Vladimir Cyrillovich's cousin, Prince Rostislav.

The Russian laws governing membership in the imperial house, succession to the throne and other dynastic subjects are contained in the Fundamental State Laws of the Russian Empire and the Statute of the Imperial Family (codification of 1906, as amended through 1911).

From time to time, female dynasts renounced their succession rights upon marriage into a foreign dynasty. One example was Grand Duchess Anastasia Mikhailovna, who renounced upon her marriage in 1879 to the Grand Duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin. Another example was Grand Duchess Olga Nikolaevna, who renounced upon her 1846 marriage to the future King of Wurttemberg. A dynast was allowed to renounce his succession rights under Article 37. Article 38 specified that such a renunciation was valid *only* upon its being announced publicly and given legal effect. There is no provision allowing a dynast to renounce the succession rights of his minor children. Thus, a common view held among specialists was that the instrument of abdication signed by Emperor Nicholas II in March 1917 was partially illegal: not in respect of his own abdication but to the extent it also purported to effect a renunciation of the succession rights of his minor son, the Grand Duke-Tsesarevich Alexei. According to this view, the position of head of the dynasty passed in March 1917 to Alexei (murdered in July 1918) rather than to Nicholas II's brother, Grand Duke Michael Alexandrovich (murdered in June 1918).

**Royal House Resolution**

The Head of a Royal House might look up the Almanach of Gotha and grant or deny agreement on the basis of the Almanach. This would still be in his discretion as Head of House. But are there any cases of personal dynastic status decided on basis of directly applying the Almanach?

A person's dynastic status is determined by their birth, so unless some glaring error occurred it is hardly likely anyone is going to rely on the Almanach de Gotha to decide "who" they were. Publishers of the Almanach de Gotha rely upon information that is submitted to them, and as such could only refer back to that information or send a person back to whoever sent the information to seek clarification; but again, they probably had their reasons for the omission and certainly are not willingly to make a correction.

The Almanach provided detailed facts and statistics on nations of the world, including their reigning and formerly reigning houses, those of Europe being more complete than those of other continents. It also named the highest incumbent officers of state, members of the diplomatic corps, and Europe's upper nobility with their families. Although at its most extensive the Almanach de Gotha numbered more than 1200 pages, fewer than half of which were dedicated to monarchical or aristocratic data.

How does one define whether a marriage had been morganatic or dynastic? By prenuptial agreement? By prior agreement, or lack thereof, of the Head of House? Or in some other manner? The Royal House would still be in his discretion as Head of House.

## Gotha is naturally limited due to publication parameters

Not to diminish its authority, the Gotha is naturally limited due to publication parameters. The genealogies that appear in the multiple series typically list the known living members of the family (at time of publication) and trace the family's ancestry back two, three, or even four generations and often include a short summary on the family's noble origin and development, including a description of their coat-of-arms. Since the Gotha series first appeared in 1763, clearly other secondary sources must be consulted to trace the genealogy back further, if the family's (noble) origin predated 1763. On the other hand, unless someone has already conducted successful research to trace the family's ancestry and chosen to publish their findings, another secondary source (i.e. published family history) may not yet exist, so that searching for primary sources like church records becomes required.

Complicating the task of tracking down church records is the incompleteness of some articles in the secondary sources, including the Gotha. The missing information is typically the nuts and bolts of genealogical data: dates and places, and sometimes, even names. Confirming the accuracy of the secondary sources can consequently be a very difficult task: where to look for a birth, marriage, or death record, or other primary sources? An example of the best case in the Gotha would be the article on the von Rechberg und Rothenlwen zu Hochrechberg family. Less than genealogically helpful is the contribution on the Someda di Chiaromonte ; lack of dates and places, and for the last listed individual, a name.

It is from these examples and from our experience that we conclude that the noble families with a more detailed article in the Gotha are likely the ones who have been more diligent about keeping family records and documents and who validate the popular understanding of noble families: their genealogies are well documented. Conversely, those articles with incomplete/missing information prove that if you discover a descent from a noble family, for example a Germanic one, you are not guaranteed a genealogical goldmine that leads to a family tree already fully researched, which extends back 600-650 years to the Late Middle Ages. Admittedly, to find your family in one of the Gotha series will certainly establish the family history and heritage. The proven genealogical connection is lacking. The task of discovering the primary records to prove the genealogical connection can makes noble genealogy research as difficult as tracing a commoner ancestry.

### Structure of the Almanach de Gotha
As it was the practice of the diplomatic corps to employ official titles, adhere to local precedence[126] and etiquette, and to tender congratulations and condolences to members

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[126] An **order of precedence** is a sequential hierarchy of nominal importance of items.

of the dynasty of the nation to which they were assigned, the almanac included a *Calendrier des Diplomates* ("Diplomats' Calendar") section, which detailed major national holidays, anniversaries, ceremonies and royal birthdates.

Following World War I and the fall of many royal houses, there were fewer regulatory authorities to authenticate use of titles; however the *Almanach de Gotha* continued the practice of strict verification of information, requesting certified copies of letters patent, genealogies confirmed by competent authorities, documents, decrees and references for titles claimed. Europe's middle and lower nobility (families whose principal title ranked below that of prince or duke—except mediatized families, listed in a section of their own) were not included in the almanac. Nor were the grandees or ducal families of Portugal and Spain (where titles, being habitually transmissible through both male and female lines, were often inherited by relatives of non-patrilineal lineage). Families of some Italian and East European nations (e.g., Russia, Romania), where the princely title was claimed by many, were also incomplete. **Yet the reigning, formerly reigning and noble families included in the almanac numbered in the hundreds by the time it ceased publication in 1944**.

In 1890 the almanac renamed II A to section II, and II B to section III. Dynasties ruling non-European nations were located in section I B. Families which became extinct were listed for the final time in the year following death of the last member, male or female, and subsequent editions referred readers to that volume.

Families which ceased to be included for other reasons, such as lack of proof that the family still had legitimate descendants or discovery that it did not hold a valid princely or ducal title, were henceforth excluded but added, along with dates of previous insertion, to a list following the last section of each *Annuaire Genealogique* (Genealogical Yearbook), which page was entitled *Liste des Maisons authrefois publiees dans la 3e partie de l'Almanach de Gotha* ("List of Houses previously published in the 3rd section of the *Almanach de Gotha*.")

From 1927, the almanac ceased to include all families in each year's edition, henceforth rotating entries every few years. Where titles and style (manner of address)s (such as Serene Highness) had ceased to be recognized by national governments (e.g. Germany, Austria, Czechoslovakia), the almanac provided associated dates and details, but continued to attribute such titles and styles to individuals and families, consistent with its practice since the French revolution; deposed sovereigns and dynasties continued to be accorded their former titles and rank, but dates of deposition were noted and titles exclusively associated with sovereignty (e.g. emperor, queen, grand duke, crown princess) were not accorded to those who had not borne them during the monarchy. Titles of pretence[127] sovereign rank were accorded to members of formerly reigning dynasties as reported by heads of their houses, otherwise self-

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[127] (A **pretender** is one who claims entitlement to an unavailable position of honor or rank. Most often it refers to a former monarch, or descendant thereof, whose throne is occupied or claimed by a rival, or has been abolished)

assumed titles were not used. The almanac included an explicit disclaimer announcing that known biographical details, such as birthdates and divorces, would not be suppressed.

## German speaking nobility

It was not possible to register all German-speaking nobility completely in the *"Gotha'sche"* books, as the registration of the Austrian noble families in the *"Gotha"* had different editorial specifications. This was explained with the so called "systematized nobility" which allowed the conferment of nobility under certain conditions. This was especially the case after a long period of military service, particularly if the applicant participated in battles and had received high awards.

This led to a sharp rise in the Austrian military nobility, a form of nobility that did not exist in Germany and therefore entry into the *"Gotha"* was denied to these families. Because of this, in the 19th and 20th century several attempts were made by Austria to register the Austro-Hungarian nobility genealogically (Frank-Dörfering 1989: 16; Fritsch 1968: 122.).

## Different time Genealogies

In 1870 the first volume of the "Genealogical Pocket Book of Knights and Nobility" was released. Publishing 19 volumes until ceasing 1894.  The year 1905 saw the first volume of a new series, the "Genealogisches Taschenbuch der Adeligen Häuser Österreichs" ("Genealogical Pocket Book of the Noble Houses of Austria").

This genealogical series had the aim to publish those genealogies which were not included in the *"Gotha'sche"* pocket books (Genealogisches Taschenbuchs der Adeligen Häuser Österreichs 1905: III-VI.). Five volumes were published until 1912/13, later the production had to be stopped due to economic problems. In 1926 another attempt was made to register the Austrian nobility methodically; the *"Wiener Genealogisches Taschenbuch"* ("Viennese Genealogical Pocket Book") initially aimed at Publishing the genealogies of all Austrian noble families. It planned to enlarge the circle of genealogies being published to include families from the other territories under rule by the Danube Monarchy (Wiener Genealogischen Taschenbuch 1926: III.). But even this third attempt was not realized due to difficult political circumstances created after the occupation of Austria by the German Empire.

Finally, other European countries that possessed or still have genealogic series should be noted, namely Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Italy, the Netherlands, Portugal, Russia, Sweden, Spain and Hungary (Fritsch 1968: 175- 185).

## Missing Information

Data about the scholastic and university education are mainly incomplete for both sexes; the *Gotha'sche* paperbacks abandon a listing of the women's education and occupational functions nearly completely, so that a social positioning of the women with the help of the data included in the genealogical manuals is hardly possible. It is not until the beginning of the 20th century that more information about the education and occupations of the female nobility is presented in the genealogical manuals. In addition, the reconstruction of the number of members of a family is rather difficult due to a specific criterion for the

Gotha'schen pocket books or manuals, that state that a person, who has been listed dead without living descendants, will be deleted.

## Data Preparation

Currently, both genealogical handbooks serve as a register of evidence of belonging to the aristocracy. Historical or social sources for research are not the primary task of these publications. As a result of specific criterion of the publication, members of a family are quickly deleted after their death, especially the females.

For scientific research it is therefore necessary to obtain the various publications of a family as a basis to reconstruct all the members of that family. In order to be able to use a sufficient data stock for a longitudinal analysis about the social positions of all members of a noble family it is necessary to make use of historical family stories.

The families selected in the Almanach de Gotha belong to dynasties that have had their family records published, so that the database in these cases is mainly very advantageous. In the case of those individuals still alive today, however, the database turns out to be fragmented. In particular, information on the education level up to university of the spouses that have married into the families is rather incomplete.

Consequently, it is impossible to present reliable results for this particular area of research.

## Family compilation

Family histories were compiled by different noble families, especially since the 19th century. Those families who had lost their properties and their regional anchoring in the course of the Second World War frequently published family stories.

In such cases, the family stories often function as a reflection of their noble self-conception; moreover they can remind the future generations of their noble traditions. During the second half of the 20th century the content of the family stories changed considerably. It was no longer characteristic to be a book of memories which shaped the family histories where the focus lay on the description of general historical processes and on the specific role of each individual, but it became the major task of contemporary family stories to adapt to the actual stage of research and to provide an update whenever corrections were made concerning genealogical Information.

One crucial problem that occurs when personal data is published in genealogical paperbacks or in family stories is that the data is made available by the same families or persons who are featured in these publications and this data has to be cleared according to the standards of privacy legislation. The editorial team for the genealogical manuals calls for documented evidence in cases of uncertainty, but they still have to accept compromises in order to publish the manuals continuously, thus some facts are not always presented accurately. However, scientific research can minimize the resulting problems of falsified data by triangulating different sources. On the one hand, one has to determine if there is a family story for a certain family, then this family history could then be used as a further data source. Furthermore, one can find members of noble families mentioned in different biographical reference books, thus falsifications in the assessment can be avoided.

**Information covered by the Gotha'sche Pocket Books**

In the Gotha'schen Genealogical paperbacks and in the various Austrian nobility manuals the following data for each person were published:

- first name and surname
- date of birth, death and marriage
- information about higher education
- information about all held occupational positions
- information about the ownership of the estates
- membership in honorary organizations, especially membership in the
*"Malteser"* or *"Johanniter"* order.

In cases of spouses marrying into a family, the aforementioned data was described only briefly as it was possible to find the data in the family of origin. This was at least true for marriages within one's social class, and until the beginning of the 20th century the majority of noble matrimonies were of this kind.

The tradition of the *"Gotha"* genealogical pocket books was continued after the Second World War by the *"Genealogisches Handbuch des Adels"* ("Genealogical Compendium of Nobility"), which has been published since 1951 and now has 145 volumes. Moreover a genealogical compendium of the Bavarian nobility was published. Here, those noble families are listed who are registered in the 1821 established Bavarian register for nobility. As of 2006 there were 26 volumes of this series published. Even nowadays it is common practice among the nobility to classify an individual into his or her familial and historic context using genealogical information about his or her origin. In contrast to the *"Gotha'sche"* pocket books, later editions of both the aforementioned books provided more detailed information about the women marrying into a family, including the occupation of the wife's father. This turned out to be a precious supplement to the already existing information because this new data allowed conclusions to be drawn about the social position of the family of the woman. In contrast to the *"Gotha'sche"* pocket books the families have to apply for a repletion of their genealogies and nowadays the families have to pay a contribution for the publication of their genealogy (€50,- per page) (Ehrenkrook 1951: IIX-XV; Franke 2004: 327-328. Hohenlohe Schillingsfürst 1950: 5-9).

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