#studyguide

HCC

French Revolution

#ourcommittees

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1- WELCOME LETTERS

A. Welcome letter from the Secretary General

Most distinguished participants,

It is with great enthusiasm and pride that I welcome you to the Final Model United Nations Conference 2025. I am honored to serve as your Secretary General for this year's conference; an event that aims to strengthen leadership, promote academic excellence, and foster meaningful diplomatic engagement.

Over the next three days, you will confront some of the world's most pressing global issues, step into the shoes of world leaders, and strive to find common ground amidst diversity. The FINALMUN25 team is here to support you every step of the way. We are committed to ensuring that every delegate feels heard, respected, and empowered throughout the conference. Whether this is your first MUN or your tenth, our goal is to provide a welcoming and inclusive space where you can thrive, grow, and form unforgettable memories.

FINALMUN25 is more than just a conference; it is where inspiration is born, where new friendships are formed, and where future changemakers take their first steps. We believe that every voice matters, and through your participation, you contribute to building a better, more understanding world.

On behalf of the entire Secretariat, I warmly welcome you to FINALMUN25. We are excited to witness the passion, creativity, and leadership you will bring to the committees.

Yours sincerely,
Eylül İdil Orhan
Secretary General

B. Welcome letter from the Director General

Dear everyone,

Welcome to FINALMUN 2025!

This conference means a lot to me, not just because it's our school's first-ever MUN, but because I get to be a part of it as the Director General. It feels a bit surreal, to be honest. When we started planning FINALMUN25 , we had one main goal in mind: creating a space where people could come together, challenge each other's ideas, and still enjoy every second of it. We wanted it to be something more than just formal sessions.

Every person who will join us, every delegate, chair, press member, and guest is part of something we've dreamed about for a long time. And if you're reading this, it means you're part of that dream now, too. As long as you respect the boundaries we've set and follow the spirit of our rules, I'm sure you'll have a great time , maybe even better than you expect.

I genuinely can't wait to see you all in action. You've already been welcomed with lots of excitement (and yes, maybe a bit of nerves, too), and I really hope this conference becomes a memory you'll smile at later on.

See you at FINALMUN25!

Yours sincerely,
Melek Güner
Director General

C. Welcome letter from the USG-Head of Crisis

My dear delegates,

As both your USG and the Head of Crisis of FNLMUN25, I welcome all of you to HCC: FRENCH REVOLUTION!

During the preparation of FNLMUN25, I worked with many people, but there are only a handful that I would like to thank. Firstly, I would like to thank Ömer Faruk Selçuk, the president-chair of the committee, for helping me out with the study guide, the creation of the committee, and for always being there for me. I'd also like to thank both my crisis teams separately, the Show Squad members for giving life to all my manic crises and never doubting me, all Behind the Crisis members, especially Göktuğ Korkmaz, for always answering all my questions regarding the academic background of the crises.

The French Revolution is one of the biggest events in World history as its impact shook the world. Its effect can be clearly seen in the World we live in today. I planned to structure this committee in a way that would allow delegates to represent the key characters of the revolution, living through the revolution during the sessions and participating in real-time, rather than just discussing it.

This committee means a lot to me, as from day one, I poured my soul into this committee and its study guide. With the complexity of the French Revolution's historical width mixed with the long procedures of a crisis committee, it took A LOT of time and effort.

Finally, I'd like to add that I have great hopes for this committee and trust all of you, my delegates, to put your very best effort to represent your characters and guide France through this bloody revolution.
Sincerely,

Çağla Özkayar
Head of Crisis/USG

D. Welcome letter from the President-Chair

Dearest delegates,

I'm Ömer Faruk Selçuk and I welcome you to FNLMUN'25. I'm going to be your President-Chair and Academic Assistant during the committee. Me and my USG/Head of Crisis are honoured to get the opportunity to work with you. I want to express that I am thankful for your participation and aspiration. The Historical Crisis Committee will be phenomenal with impressive delegates. We are addressing important issues of world history.

Our agenda is clearly pointing to the most important revolution and remarkable events in the past. First of all, I want to write my letter as your Academic Member. While working with distinguished USG, I feel myself really enthusiastic and avid. With Çağla Özkayar's energy, you don't need any caffeine or something else, she is really working with her passion and you feel comfortable with such a cooperator. That's why I need to thank her with all my sincerity. Also, I want to express my thanks to the Secretariat for all their works.

As your Academic Member, when I learned the agenda, it made me really excited because the French revolution is really important to know what it is and what it caused. Nowadays most people's knowledge is not enough to understand the words "citizen" and "national sentiment". You are really lucky to get closer with a topic like the French Revolution. Delegates, you shouldn't forget that your opinions and solutions can change the future and present world. I look forward to working with each of you during the conference and I believe that together, we will make fruitful progress in addressing these critical issues. Thanks for your hard work and choosing this committee.

As your President-Chair, I am going to represent your committee's procedure with all my passion. I will be your order with my Vice-Chair. We will lead you until the end of the conference with our best.

When I finalize my sentences, I am looking forward to working with you. We are expecting you to do your best and make this committee the best.

Sincerely,

ÖMER FARUK SELÇUK
President Chair/Academic Member

2. INTRODUCTION TO THE COMMITTEE

A. History of the crisis committees

Despite the United Nations not having formal crisis committees, crisis Committees have been part of Model United Nations conferences since the late 1990s, first being seen in large conferences in the United States. They later spread to Model United Nations organizations worldwide and have been rising in popularity recently. With their various topics reflecting the complexities of real-world crises that cannot be covered in the General Assembly committees, crisis committees allow delegates to make quick decisions, allowing them to develop their problem-solving and creative thinking skills.

B. Introduction to HCC committees

Historical Crisis Committees are basically the most famous among crisis committees in that case if you want to step into the MUN Conferences world, you need to know what it is. The HCC are a committee type which are different from General Assemblies. In MUN's world we have 3 type of MUN Conferences Committee's; Crisis Committee, General Assembly and Semi-Crisis Committees.

GA (General Assembly) Committees are part of the United Nations. GA Committees exist in real life. Countries delegates attend and proceed with the original UN procedure. Shortly, the General Assembly (GA) simulates the real UN General Assembly. That's why we call it a traditional committee instead of GA. It includes representatives from many countries, discusses global issues, and produces non-binding resolutions.

Crisis Committees are parts of just Model UN because in UN, the crisis are taken care of in specific Committees. For example, UNSC (United Nation Security Council), PO (Peacekeeping Operations) etc. Crisis Committees are mostly made of deeds and topics which inscribe history or humanity. Crisis committees have 2 types according to their agendas; FCC (Futuristic Crisis Committee), HCC (Historical Crisis Committee). Also, a committee can be

divided by cabinets because of agenda. We call these committees JCC (Joint Crisis Committee).

You delegates, you are going to have a Historical Crisis Committee. That means, you are going to discuss a topic which is substantial and significant for history and the world.

C. Committee Format and Structure

The committee has a duty which is to find solutions with debate and discussions. The discussions and debates are supervised by the chairboard. The chairboard organizes and takes care of the agenda and committee according to procedures. The procedures are the foundation of the committee.The committee put in order by procedure and ensured peaceful and fair debates and discussions.

There are a lot of types of procedures among Conferences. The United Nation uses “Rules of Procedure of the General Assembly” for their Committees. Some universities use their own procedure for their own MUN conferences. For example, Harvard University released their own rules of procedure and came into force for their GA Committees. Every year, they gather and organize their procedure. Nowadays, Harvard Procedure is used by a lot of Conferences for their GA Committees.

All procedures that we mentioned above are only for GA Committees. If we talk about Crisis Committees, the procedure rules are upon their agendas or executives because Crisis Committees' purposes are finding solutions for current crises as soon as possible. That’s why the procedure can be regulated to be more suitable for the situations.

Procedure of the HCC: French Revolution: The French Revolution is a complex revolution that unfolded over several years. That will be discussed in 7 main parts, each symbolizing an era of the revolution. The eras will be discussed in this committee using the time travel format. The committee will start in the pre-revolution phase before 1789 and will finish its historical ending time in 1799. During each era of the revolution, there will be specific crises to be solved, new topics to be discussed. A single era is planned to take 1-2 sessions to complete, depending on the completion of the crises and the progression of the revolution. After a verdict is taken, the completion is certain;

The delegates will move on to the next era guided by their past actions during the earlier eras.

This format allows delegates to better understand how actions of the past can have effects on the historical events alongside showing them the French Revolution in a more explanatory way.

Delegation Structure and Representation: HCC: The French Revolution's delegation system is structured in a specific way that lets delegates step into real living people during the revolution to give them a realistic experience of living through a major revolution.

Each delegate will symbolize a specific individual who has lived throughout the French Revolution, leaving their mark on history.

Delegates are expected to step into the shoes of their respective character and represent their role fully, considering the historical context and their benefits while advocating for their role's interests during that period.

Throughout the conference, while defending their roles beliefs delegates may also work with other delegates to propose joint solutions and actions.

A brief explanation of the delegates' roles is given in the matrix section.

Crisis Management Mechanism: This committee's crisis management mechanism will mostly follow the same workflow as a regular historical crisis committee.

The committee consists of 2 rooms, the “front-room” and the “back-room”. The front-room is the committee room itself, the back-room is where the directives passed by the delegates in the front-room will be read by the crisis management team under the head of crisis to plan the upcoming crises.

Mainly, during each era of the revolution, there will be specific crises that will arise that are crucial to the committee's progress that must be solved during the era in which they arise. Delegates will have to either work together or by themselves to find a solution. The solutions found and the verdicts taken after these crises will need to be written in the directive format on paper and sent to the crisis management team by the admins. After the acceptance of the

directive, the committee will progress based on the solution of the passed directive.

The Closing of the Committee: During the end phase of the committee, delegates are expected to write and successfully pass a “convention paper.”

A convention paper is a formal document that simulates a treaty or an agreement. To finalize the committee's decisions by sealing the verdict of the French Revolution in a final agreement.

After reaching the point in the committee the crisis team will give a workshop on how to write a convention paper.

3. INTRODUCTION TO THE AGENDA ITEM:

The choice of agendas is made by carefully considering factors such as the conference's theme, its target audience, and its overall vision. As the academic supervisors of this committee, we selected this topic with great care, being fully conscious of its significance. The French Revolution agenda is a pivotal historical event that has significantly contributed to the governing systems and ideologies of numerous nations today. This event was so impactful that it essentially marked the close of one era and initiated the opening of the Modern Age (or the Near Age in some historical contexts).

In numerous history textbooks, the French Revolution is concisely summarized with a single sentence: "The Early Modern Age ended, and the Modern Age began." However, the French Revolution is, in reality, a revolution spanning 300 years. It is a narrative of a nation's gradual discovery of its intellect, conscience, and courage. It is the story of an idea that first originated in books and later manifested in the streets. Through the Reformation, humanity learned to focus on itself, leading to the cracking of the Church's walls. Reason attracted all the spotlights. Ultimately, the French Revolution served as a gateway to a fundamentally different Europe.

Following the closure of the Middle Ages in Europe, the Renaissance and Reformation movements brought about substantial shifts in societal thought, leading to a period in the 18th Century known as the Age of Enlightenment. Also within the same century, the revolt of the British Colonies in America

against England and their subsequent acquisition of independence constituted crucial factors, alongside the Age of Enlightenment, that significantly influenced the French Revolution. The scholastic thought that had dominated since the Middle Ages had lost its validity by the 18th Century. In contrast, reason emerged as the solution for every problem and became prominent as the key concept of the age of development and enlightenment.

This rationalism, which liberated people from narrow frameworks of thought, guided individuals towards methods of free thinking and inquiry, ultimately leading to the concept of liberty. The burgeoning idea of liberalism subsequently developed and expanded in opposition to the existing absolutist regime. The Revolution completely overthrew the entire governance of France, which ultimately led to the formation of a new system. This new order initially disseminated across the entirety of Europe, and subsequently, spread throughout the world.

With the Renaissance, trade in the Northern Mediterranean was no longer based on religion but on finance, and wealth became dependent not on money but on intellect. During this period, ideas and thoughts were forming and developing rapidly.

While the Renaissance did not eliminate religion in Europe, it effectively dethroned it. In 1513, Niccolò Machiavelli, in his work The Prince, touched a nerve in the thousand-year-old Christian order by arguing that politics was not a divine duty but a matter of understanding human nature, simultaneously opening the door to a new world.

4. COMMITTEE TIMELINE

A. Pre-Revolution (Before 1789)

The Ancient Régime: France was ruled by the Ancient Régime, also known as the Old Régime or the Former Régime, which was the social and political system established in the Kingdom of France from approximately the 15th century until the end of the 18th century under the late Valois and Bourbon dynasties. The administrative and social structures of the Ancient Régime were the result of years of state-building, legal acts, internal conflicts, and civil wars. They remained a mix of local privilege and historical differences until the French Revolution ended this system. Despite the concept of absolute monarchy

and the efforts of the kings to create a centralized state, Ancient Régime France remained a country of systemic irregularities. Administrative, legal, judicial, and religious divisions and priorities frequently overlapped.

Estates System: French society was structured on the roots of feudalism, in a system known as the Estates System or Estates of the Realm. The estate to which a person belonged was significant because it determined their rights and status in society. Usually, a person remained in the same estate for their lifetime, and any movement up in the estate system could take many generations.

-The First Estate comprised the entire clergy, traditionally divided into "higher" noble clergy and "lower", the non-noble clergy. In 1789, it numbered around 0.5% of the population in France.

-The Second Estate was the French nobility and rarely royalty, other than the monarch himself, who stood outside of the system of estates. It is the authoritative class that administered civil government and royal justice. It held approximately 1.5% of France's population.

-The Third Estate comprised all of those who were not members of the first and second estates. Making up 98% of France's population.Including wage laborers, peasant,s and the bourgeoisie. While the Third Estate comprised the vast majority of the people in French society, it lacked significant political and economic power.

In contrast, the clergy and nobility controlled the majority of the land in France and held all the critical positions in the government, including the military and the church.

One other critical difference between the estates of the realm was the burden of taxation. The nobles and clergy were largely exempt from taxation, except for a modest tax on land, while commoners paid disproportionately high direct taxes. In practice, this mainly meant the peasants, as many of the bourgeoisie obtained exemptions. The system was tremendously unfair in throwing a heavy tax burden on the poor and powerless.

Taxation Structure: France's taxation was a significant cause of the Revolution. The nation's taxation burden was carried almost entirely by the Third Estate. As contemporary writing and propaganda suggest, many taxpayers in the Ancien Régime felt frustrated by this lack of equality.

The taille was a direct land tax imposed on peasants and non-nobles, which became a key source of royal revenue. Certain groups were exempt from paying this tax: the clergy, the nobility except for non-noble lands they owned in pays d'état, royal officers, military personnel, magistrates, university professors and students, and some self-governing cities such as Paris.

Despite being exempt from the taille, nobles and peasants were required to give one-tenth of their income or produce to the Church as a payment known as the tithe. The Church itself was also obliged to contribute to the royalty through a payment called the "don gratuit" (free gift), which was collected from its officeholders and typically amounted to about one-twentieth of the value of the office.

France was divided into three types of provinces for taxation purposes:

-pays d'élection: These were the territories that had long been under royal control, and elected officials initially managed tax assessment and collection. Still, over time, these positions were sold to individuals. The taxes here were generally "personal," meaning they were levied on non-noble individuals.

-pays d'état: Were the regions with their own provincial estates or assemblies, local councils determined the tax rates. These taxes were typically "real," meaning they were charged on non-noble land, regardless of who owned it. Thus, nobles who held such lands had to pay taxes on them.

-pays d'imposition: Consisting of newly conquered territories. They often retained some of their local institutions, but royal administrators supervised taxation.

In the years leading up to the French Revolution, peasants faced multiple layers of taxation. They also paid an additional 5% property tax, known as the vingtième, in addition to the taille, to the state. Every individual was also subject to a capitation, a tax based on the number of people in a household and their social rank, ranging from peasants to princes.

Beyond state taxes, peasants also owed various dues to their landlords. These could be paid in labor, such as a portion of crops, or in money. Peasants also had to pay rent in cash and other fees based on their agricultural production, as well as charges for using the lords' facilities, such as mills, wine presses, and bakeries.

This system was clearly unfair for France's common folk, who could least afford to pay, but also were shouldering most of the nation's tax burden while the privileged First and Second Estates paid little or nothing, despite their comparatively greater wealth.

Reign of Louis XIV: Louis XIV, also known as the "Sun King," reigned over France from 1643 until 1715. In 1661, the royal treasury was on the verge of bankruptcy. With his finance minister, Colbert, he was able to reduce the national debt through more efficient taxation methods. Although his tax reform proved difficult, satisfying results were achieved.

However, the gains were insufficient to support his policies. During his reign, France fought many wars, with three of them being major. Warfare defined his foreign policies, which he saw as the ideal way to enhance his glory. He concentrated on preparing for war, including reforms that enlarged and modernized the French military.

To centralize his power, Louis understood that he needed to diminish the influence of the nobility. He accomplished this in part by settling nobles at his court at Versailles, where he could monitor their daily lives. While this strategy was effective, it also proved to be quite expensive, mainly due to the nobles' extravagant and luxurious lifestyles.

Louis needed more money to support the reorganized and enlarged army, the Versailles, and the growing civil administration. Only the lowest classes, mainly peasants, paid direct taxes, as many of the bourgeoisie obtained exemptions. Louis was willing to tax the nobles, but only towards the end of his reign, under the extreme stress of war, was he able to impose direct taxes on the aristocratic states for the first time ever in France. This was a step toward equality before the law and sound public finance before the revolution, but in time, so many concessions and exemptions were won by nobles and bourgeois that soon the reform lost much of its value.

The powerful position of France during Louis XIV's reign came at a financial cost that his reform could not balance. In the end, notable foreign, military, and domestic expenses led to a bankrupt France being left to his grand-grandson, Louis XV

Reign of Louis XV: Louis XV succeeded to the throne after his great-grandfather, Louis XIV, at the age of five. Until he reached the age in 1723, France was ruled by Philippe II d'Orléans, Duke of Orléans, as Regent of France. Cardinal Fleury was his chief minister from 1726 until he died in 1743. Fleury's ruling was the most peaceful and prosperous period during the reign of Louis XV. Following the financial and social disruptions that occurred at the end of Louis XIV's reign, Fleury helped stabilize the French currency and

balance the budget. He worked towards peace by attempting to maintain an alliance with England and by seeking a peace treaty with Spain.
After Fleury's death, Louis struggled to maintain his policies. He supported a fiscal equality plan, which included taxing a twentieth of all revenues, affecting all classes. This tax was against traditional exemptions of the aristocracy and clergy, and it led to protests. The clergy and parliaments opposed it, and in 1751, the king exempted the clergy. Ultimately, it became just an increase in the existing taille, maintaining the privilege of the aristocracy and marking another setback in the taxation struggle.
Louis's greatest failure was his foreign policy. As a result of lost wars, he was forced to return the Austrian Netherlands territory. He also yielded New France in North America to Spain and Great Britain at the end of the Seven Years' War in 1763. Although he incorporated new territories into the kingdom of France, the loss of colonies, as well as the weakening of France's influence in foreign lands, demonstrated that France was no longer a major European colonial power.

The wars he lost weakened the treasury, ineffective reforms were implemented, and religious feuds weakened the monarchy, leaving it in a state of economic crisis for his grandson, Louis XVI.

B. Beginning of the Revolution (1789)

"What Is the Third Estate?" by Emmanuel-Joseph Sieyès (1 January 1789): At the very beginning of January 1789, Abbé Emmanuel-Joseph Sieyès published a pamphlet titled "What Is the Third Estate?" In it, he argued that the Third Estate, composed of commoners, represented the true nation because it performed nearly all practical work and sustained the country. However, in the political system of the Ancient Régime, this estate had little to no real power or recognition. Sieyès asked three key questions:

- What is the Third Estate? Everything.

- What has it been until now? Nothing.

- What does it want to be? Something.

In the pamphlet, Sieyès called for the Third Estate to have equal representation along with the clergy and nobility, advocating for voting by head

rather than by order. He also asserted that sovereignty belonged to the nation rather than to the king or the privileged estates.

These ideas instilled a strong sense of identity and purpose among commoners just months before the Estates-General convened. His work became a political manifesto for the Third Estate and provided the intellectual basis for its decision to declare itself the National Assembly in June 1789.

In this way, Sieyès's pamphlet transformed calls for reform into a revolutionary movement, challenging the structure of the Ancient Régime and shaping the early political direction of the Revolution.

The gathering of the Estates General (January-June 1789): On January 24, 1789, King Louis XVI announced that the Estates-General would meet at Versailles on May 5. This was the first time the assembly had been called in 175 years, since 1614. The Estates-General consisted of representatives from three social classes: the First Estate, representing the clergy; the Second Estate, representing the nobility; and the Third Estate, representing the common people.

The king called this meeting to find a solution to the severe financial crisis France was facing. Years of war and royal spending had left the country heavily in debt. The tax system was viewed as unfair because nobles and clergy were mostly exempt from taxes, while the majority of the burden fell on peasants and townspeople. Previous finance ministers had tried to reform the system, but failed due to the privileged classes being unwilling to give up their exemptions. The king hoped that by bringing all three estates together, the Estates-General could reach a conclusion on new taxes and financial solutions.

In preparation for the meeting, each community across France was asked to elect representatives and write "cahiers de doléances," which were lists of grievances and requests. In these documents, many called for fair taxation, equal rights before the law, and limits on royal authority. For the Third Estate, which comprised the vast majority of the population, this process created a new sense of unity and confidence.

When the Estates-General opened at Versailles on May 5, 1789, the ceremony was grand and formal. However, unlike what the king hoped for, the meeting quickly grew tense due to disagreements regarding the method of counting votes. In the traditional system, each estate had one collective vote,

which allowed the clergy and nobility to easily outvote the Third Estate. Because of thi,s the representatives of the commoners argued that voting should be done by head, meaning each deputy would have one vote. The nobles and most of the clergy wanted to keep the old system, while the Third Estate refused to continue until all three groups voted together as a single assembly. This question became the central issue of the early sessions.

By the beginning of June 1789, the Estates-General had reached a complete standstill. The Third Estate kept insisting that all three estates meet together and vote individually by head rather than by estate. The nobility and most of the clergy continued to oppose this proposal in an effort to maintain their traditional privileges. As a result, the assembly was unable to continue its work.

The National Assembly and The Tennis Court Oath (June 1789):

After weeks of delays, on June 17, 1789, the deputies of the Third Estate, guided by Sieyès, declared themselves the National Assembly, claiming that they alone represented the people of France and rejecting the old system based on social hierarchy. It announced the principle that political power came from the nation as a whole, not from the king or the privileged estates. A small number of parish priests soon joined the Third Estate, showing that even within the clergy, there was growing support for reform. Afterwards, the newly declared National Assembly elected Jean-Sylvain Bailly as its first president.

Three days later, on June 20, the deputies of the new National Assembly arrived at their usual meeting hall, finding the doors locked and guarded by the orders of Louis XVI. At the suggestion of Dr. Joseph-Ignace Guillotin, they moved to a nearby indoor tennis court. There, they made a solemn promise known as the Tennis Court Oath. Every deputy present swore not to disband until they had given France a new constitution that would guarantee the rights of citizens and limit the power of the monarchy.

The king responded on June 23 by holding a formal session in which he declared the actions of the National Assembly illegal and ordered the three estates to deliberate separately. The deputies of the Third Estate refused to leave the hall, where Mirabeau famously declared, “We are here by the will of the people, and we shall not leave except by the force of bayonets.” Over the next few days, public pressure in Paris grew, and more members of the clergy and

some nobles crossed over to join the National Assembly. Faced with this increasing unity and fearing disorder, Louis XVI finally gave in.

On June 27, 1789, the king instructed all remaining deputies to join the National Assembly, bringing the Estates-General to an official end. This transformation marked the symbolic beginning of the French Revolution, as political authority was no longer seen as coming from the monarch but from the true nation itself.

The Dismissal of Jacques Necker (July 11, 1789): Following the formation of the National Assembly, the pressure rose, causing the royal court to become increasingly divided on how to respond to the matter. Jacques Necker, the king's widely respected finance minister, had long advocated for moderate reforms and urged King Louis XVI to recognize the Assembly's authority rather than confront it. His cautious and conciliatory approach earned him admiration from the public, but he was unpopular with the conservative nobles surrounding the king, who accused him of fostering revolution.

On July 11, 1789, Louis XVI, primarily due to pressure from the royalist and conservative factions at court, abruptly dismissed Necker from his position and ordered him to leave France. The news of Necker's dismissal reached Paris two days later, prompting widespread outrage. Many saw Necker as a symbol of honest government and reform, and his dismissal convinced the populace that the king was preparing to use force against the National Assembly.

As protesters began to gather throughout the city, tension escalated quickly. Necker's dismissal became the immediate trigger for the Paris uprising, culminating in the Storming of the Bastille on July 14, 1789.

Storming of the Bastille: In the morning of July 14, 1789, the city of Paris woke up in a state of alarm. The supporters of the Third Estate in France, now organized under the control of the Bourgeois Militia of Paris (Future Revolutionary France’s National Guard), had earlier stormed the Hôtel des Invalides with the intention of gathering the weaponry stored there, without facing significant opposition. The commandant at the Invalides had, in the past few days, taken the precaution of transferring approximately 250 barrels of gunpowder to the Bastille for safer storage.

At this time, the Bastille held only seven prisoners, and its practical importance had greatly diminished, even if it had long been regarded as a symbol of royal authority. During the tensions of July 1789, it remained a potent symbol of royal suppression as it housed political prisoners. The fortress was costly to maintain and no longer served a significant military or administrative purpose. Therefore, the idea to demolish the structure and replace it with a public square had been planned shortly before the disturbances began.

The crowd gathered outside of the Bastille, on the same day, around mid-morning, demanding the surrender of the prison, the removal of the cannon, and the release of arms and gunpowder. Two representatives from the crowd outside were invited into the fortress to negotiate with the governor, Bernard-René de Launay, and so negotiations began. Another representative was admitted around noon with demands. The negotiations continued for several hours, and the crowd grew, becoming impatient. Around approximately 1:30 p.m., the crowd surged into the undefended outer courtyard. A small group of men climbed onto the roof next to the gate leading to the inner courtyard and broke the chains of the drawbridge.

Soldiers from the fortress called for the crowd to withdraw, but during all the noise and confusion, their shouts were misunderstood as signals to advance. Gunfire erupted, and the crowd quickly turned into a mob. As the firing continued, the risk of mutual destruction became clear. Although Royal Army troops were encamped nearby, they did not intervene. Governor de Launay ordered a cease-fire at 5 p.m. Shortly afterward, a letter outlining his terms was given to the crowd. Despite his demands being refused, de Launay still complied, realizing that with limited food and water supplies, his troops wouldn't be able to hold out much longer. He opened the gates to the inner courtyard around 5:30 p.m. As the conquering crowd swept in to liberate the fortress, Governor de Launay was captured and decapitated.

This way, the Bastille, which once stood mighty as a symbol of monarchy, was demolished. The king learned of the storming only the next morning through the Duke of La Rochefoucauld.

August Decrees: The August 4 session of the National Constituent Assembly was a landmark event that brought about the end of French feudalism. Held during the Great Fear uprisings, liberal deputies from the Breton Club proposed reforms to calm the peasantry. What began as a limited measure quickly turned

into a dramatic display of unity, as some noble and clerical deputies voluntarily surrendered their privileges and feudal rights.

The Assembly formalized these decisions in the August Decrees, which ended aristocratic rights, noble exemptions, and feudal authority. The decrees were celebrated as the legal end of feudalism and the establishment of equality before the law.

However, their effect in the countryside was uneven. Many feudal rights required payment for abolition, which most peasants could not afford. While the decrees symbolized a decisive break with the Ancient Regime, they brought only partial relief to those who had inspired them.

Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen: On August 26, 1789, the National Constituent Assembly adopted the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen. The Declaration consisted of seventeen articles, each expressing different principles that challenged the foundations of the Ancient Régime. Emerging from the depths of the Enlightenment, the Declaration represented the political vision, founded on liberty, equality, and the sovereignty of the people. The Foundations of the Declaration are rooted in the spirit of secular law, a law theory that does not rely on religious beliefs or authority. Instead, it is based on reason and human nature. It supports a universal set of rights that applies to everyone, regardless of their class or status. And it claims that the goal of the government, led by elected representatives, is to recognize and protect these rights.

The drafting of the Declaration was influenced by American independence. Thomas Jefferson, the author of the U.S. Declaration of Independence, was serving as the American ambassador in France at that time and worked closely with Marquis de Lafayette in developing ideas for a French bill of rights.

Despite its universal language, the Declaration's rights initially applied only to men. In the Declaration, political participation was restricted to those defined as active citizens, who were at least twenty-five years old, French men who paid taxes and were not servants. This excluded the majority of the population, including women, servants, slaves, etc. This indicates that approximately 4.3 million of France's 29 million inhabitants qualify as active

citizens. The rest were considered passive citizens, entitled to civil rights but not to political ones.

Exclusions during the Revolution sparked debates on equality, especially regarding women's rights. After the March on Versailles in 1789, reformers demanded political recognition. In 1791, Olympe de Gouges published the Declaration of the Rights of Woman, highlighting women's exclusion from the ideals of equality that the Revolution promoted. (This part is explained separately.)

The March On Versailles: The Women's March on Versailles was a event that marked a major change in the relationship between the monarchy and the people.

At this time fear of starvation was constant among the poorer classes of the Third Estate. Rumors spread that merchants and nobles were stocking wheat and other essential foods for profit. These Rumors caused deep anxiety among commoners, who thought that they were being intentionally starved while the upper classes lived in luxury.

On the morning of October 5, 1789, women in the Paris marketplaces gathered in anger over the high price and scarcity of bread, a crisis that had bothered the city for months. What began as a protest for food quickly grew into a larger revolutionary act, combining the demands of hungry citizens with the political goals of those seeking liberal reforms and a constitutional monarchy for France.

The march wasn't as spontaneous as it seemed. It had been discussed and encouraged by revolutionary speakers at the Palais-Royal in the days leading up to October 5. The main trigger came from reports of a royal banquet held at Versailles on October 1. Newspapers described the event as an extravagant feast, which enraged the people of Paris, who were struggling to buy bread.

By the evening, the crowd reached Versailles and surrounded the palace. Some of the demonstrators broke into the royal residence, and although guards quickly suppressed the fighting, tension remained high outside. The commander of the National Guard, Marquis de Lafayette, arrived with his troops to restore order. He persuaded the King to meet and address the crowd, which helped calm the marchers.

However, the situation had already changed irreversibly. The crowd demanded that the royal family return to Paris, and on October 6. Their arrival in Paris symbolized the transfer of power from Versailles to the people. The monarchs

were now effectively confined within the Tuileries Palace, under the watch of the National Guard.

The consequences of the march were far-reaching. The monarchist faction within the National Assembly lost its remaining influence, while figures such as Maximilien Robespierre gained growing public prominence, and Lafayette's position became unstable, as his attempt to mediate between the monarchy and the revolution tied his reputation to the fate of the king. As for the women of Paris, the march became a pivotal moment of revolutionary participation and a lasting symbol of civic courage.

C. Start of the reform and tension (1790-1791)

The Civil Constitution of the Clergy: The Civil Constitution of the Clergy, passed by the National Constituent Assembly on July 12, 1790. It was a major attempt to reform and control the Catholic Church in France. It aimed to align the Church within the revolutionary principles.

This reform followed a series of measures taken by the Assembly against the traditional privileges of the Church, including the abolition of feudal privileges, the confiscation and sale of Church lands, and the suppression of the tithe tax. These steps had already weakened the Church's economic power and independence, preparing the way for a complete reorganization of itself.

Under the Civil Constitution, the state took control over many aspects of religious life. It became responsible for the payment of clerical salaries and for overseeing education and charity works, functions that had previously been the responsibility of the church. Bishops and parish priests were to be elected by citizens, and their appointments would no longer require the approval of the Pope.

The reorganization of the church followed the new administrative divisions of France, reflecting the Revolution's broader aim to standardize governance across the nation.

Although the Constitution was presented as a rational reform, it provoked deep opposition. The requirement that clergy swear an oath of loyalty to the nation and the Constitution divided both the Church and society. Many priests and bishops refused, becoming known as refractory clergy, while those who accepted were called constitutional clergy.

The Civil Constitution of the Clergy thus transformed the French Church into a state institution but also created one of the Revolution's deepest internal conflicts, setting religious faith and Revolution in lasting opposition.

Vatican's Response to The Civil Constitution of the Clergy: The situation surrounding the Civil Constitution of the Clergy escalated further in 1791 when the Vatican officially responded to the revolutionary reforms in France.
Pope Pius VI was naturally hostile to the Revolution and the destruction of the traditional religious and social order. For several months, Pius VI remained silent in public, hoping to avoid an open confrontation. In private meetings with his cardinals, the Pope denounced the Revolution, condemning in particular the August 4 decrees, which had abolished the Church's feudal rights, and the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen, which he regarded as heretical for placing human authority above divine law.

However, by March 1791, as the Civil Constitution was being enforced and priests were required to swear an oath of loyalty to the nation, the Pope issued a formal and scathing condemnation of the Civil Constitution, rejecting it as an unlawful intrusion of the state into the Church's spiritual domain.
About a month later, on April 13, 1791, in response, Pope Pius VI issued the papal encyclical *"Charitas*," which described the revolutionaries as engaging in a war against the Catholic religion. In the document, he declared that King Louis XVI had signed the Civil Constitution only under pressure and pronounced that any constitutional bishops and priests who accepted the oath would be suspended from their clerical offices unless they publicly renounced it.

The Pope's condemnation deepened the growing division within France, forcing clergy and believers to choose between loyalty to the papacy and commitment to the Revolution.

Constitution of 1791: One of the stated goals of the National Assembly was to write a constitution. A twelve-member Constitutional Committee was assembled on July 14, 1789, to draft most of the articles of the Constitution. Many proposals for redefining the French state were considered, and the main early controversies surrounded the level of power to be granted to the king of France and the structure of the assembly.
Another body, the Committee of Revisions, was created in September 1790. Because the National Assembly acted both as a legislature and a constitutional

convention, this committee was established to determine whether its decrees were constitutional articles or ordinary statutes.
The committees led to the Constitution of 1791. Louis XVI accepted a new constitution in September 1791. It abolished many institutions deemed harmful to liberty and the equality of rights. The National Assembly served as the legislative body, while the king and royal ministers formed the executive branch, and the judiciary was declared independent of both. On a local level, previous feudal divisions were formally abolished, and France was reorganized into new administrative units following the principle of centralisation, causing the establishment of the Constitutional Monarchy.
With this, the National Assembly was changed, and the French Legislative Assembly, the first legislature of constitutional Franc,e was established.

Flight to Varennes: On October 6, thousands of people gathered at the Palace of Versailles, demanding that the royal family be brought to Paris, which they were the following day. When Louis appeared to be unable to act, Marie instead met with advisors and ambassadors, asking for aid from other European monarchs. Louis ignored his advisors and refused to resign, while Marie refused the support of La Fayette and Mirabeau. Marie pressed on with the plan for the escape, which her husband eventually agreed with.
In the summer of 1791, they secretly fled from Paris to the supposedly loyal troops in the east. They escaped only as far as the small town of Varennes, where they were arrested after having been recognized at their previous stop. After the capture of the entire royal family, they were escorted back to Paris. Upon their return, Georges Danton initially called for the king's execution but later retracted this demand, instead requesting his abdication.

D. The Revolutionary Wars (1792)

During the French Revolution, European monarchs closely monitored the developments in France. They considered whether to intervene in support of Louis XVI or take advantage of the chaos in France. Many European Monarchs, such as the Holy Roman Emperor Leopold II, brother to the French Queen Marie Antoinette, initially looked on the Revolution calmly. But they became disturbed as the Revolution became more radical.

By the end of 1791, the start of 1792, a pro-war faction known as the Girondins had come to power in Paris. Their leader at the time, Jacques-Pierre Brissot, called for a "global campaign" to spread the enlightened gains of the Revolution across Europe by force of arms. On April 20, 1792, the French National Convention formally declared war on Austria, marking the beginning of the Revolutionary Wars.

Brissot and his supporters promised a swift and decisive campaign, claiming that France's soldiers would easily defeat the enslaved armies of despotic Europe. However, the reality was far different. In the opening days of the war, French troops were quickly left motionless by professional Austrian forces in the battles of Quiévrain and Marquain. The inexperienced and undisciplined soldiers, demoralized by defeat, even lynched their commander, Théobald Dillon.

The situation worsened when the commander of the French armies, the Marquis de Lafayette, abandoned his post to travel toward the United States and was captured by Austrian forces. In May 1792, Prussia entered the war as Austria's ally, forming the First Coalition against France. An invasion force was soon assembled along the Rhine River under the command of Duke Charles William Ferdinand of Brunswick.

Progress was slow, slowed by Brunswick's cautious nature and a severe outbreak of dysentery among Prussian troops. On July 25, the Duke of Brunswick issued the Brunswick Manifesto, threatening to destroy Paris if any harm befell the royal family. The manifesto caused panic and fury in the capital. Blaming the king for the crisis, on August 10, 1792, thousands of Parisians stormed the Tuileries Palace, massacred the Swiss Guards, and imprisoned Louis XVI and his family.

These events transformed the war into a revolutionary crusade. What began as a conflict with Austria quickly became a struggle for France's survival and the future of the Revolution itself.

E. Reign of Terror (1793-1794)

The Reign of Terror (September 5, 1793 – July 28, 1794) was a violent period in the First French Republic. It lasted for ten months following the French Revolution, during which the Jacobins seized power. This era was characterized by the trial of counter-revolutionaries and a series of mass executions that occurred in Paris.

The Reign of Terror started because of both the people's worries and the beliefs of the revolutionary leaders. Early on, the French people were very scared, thinking that the rich nobles and foreign nations wanted to starve them and bring back the old government. These worries led to violent moments, like the attack on Foullon in 1789, the Great Fear events, and the September Killings of 1792.

By 1793, fighting in wars, money problems, hunger, and fights inside the country (like the War in the Vendée) made the people's fear grow stronger. In this situation, the Committee of Public Safety, led by Robespierre, started a plan to get rid of "enemies of the revolution" to protect it. Robespierre believed that goodness and terror worked together: terror without goodness would be cruel, but goodness without terror would not work.

The Weapons of Terror: The authority of the Reign of Terror was the Committee of Public Safety. Although it was first established (in April 1793) to supervise the government's work, it quickly took over the power of the National Convention and became the real government of the country. From September 1793 onwards, the 12 members (all but one stayed until the Terror ended) had almost limitless authority.

Beneath the Committee were local groups, known among the people as "supervision committees." These committees could arrest anyone they considered "suspicious." A serious reason was not needed to be counted as suspicious; simply supporting the King, having Catholic feelings, hiding goods, or even calling someone "mister" instead of "citizen" was enough. Arrested people could be taken to the Revolutionary Tribunal (Court). In this court, there was no decision other than acquittal (being found innocent) or execution, and trials lasted no more than three days. Over time, being found innocent became almost impossible.

Furthermore, revolutionary armies were created to spread the Terror's effect to the countryside. These armies were often joined by Jacobin representatives who had the power to carry out "revolutionary justice" right on the spot.

Bloody Week: This period marks the time when the most intense killings and executions of the Reign of Terror took place. This same period caused an increase in different ideas against the Jacobins' understanding of Virtue, and thus, it has been sadly recorded in history.

After the Committee of Public Safety fully took power, executions began to happen one after the other. The first targets were the nobles from the old government: Marie Antoinette (October 16, 1793) was executed, followed by the Duke of Orléans (Philippe Égalité) and Madame Elizabeth (King Louis XVI's sister). Next, generals who were blamed for defeats (Custine, Houchard) and former political leaders (the Girondins) were sent to the guillotine.
Members of the Feuillants group (Barnave, Bailly), and important figures like the scientist Lavoisier, Olympe de Gouges (a writer), and Malesherbes met the same fate. Robespierre and his allies strengthened their power by removing their rivals one by one during this process.
The Hébertists, who were very extreme on the left side, were accused of a "foreign conspiracy" because of their radical views and were executed in March 1794.

After that, the Indulgents (the merciful group) on the right side were targeted. This group, led by Danton and Desmoulins, argued for the Terror to end and for a general pardon. Desmoulins' pamphlet, Le Vieux Cordelier, gained a lot of attention but was quickly banned. Finally, Danton, Desmoulins, and their friends were sent to the guillotine on April 5, 1794. In this way, Robespierre became the absolute ruler of the Terror regime, having destroyed all his opponents from both the right and the left.

The law that was created on June 10, 1794 (the Law of 22 Prairial), pushed the Terror to its most cruel point. This law, which was presented by Georges Couthon, a member of the Committee of Public Safety, caused these things to happen:
-People who were accused could be judged based only on a report or tip, without any real proof.
-The right to hire a lawyer and question witnesses was taken away.

These new rules made trials much faster. Because of this, 1,400 people were sent to the guillotine in Paris between June 10 and July 27. This time became known in history as the "Great Terror."

However, during this same time, the fights inside France had been stopped, and foreign dangers had become smaller after the Victory of Fleurus. Even so, Robespierre kept the Terror going. He scared the members of the Convention by talking about "enemy lists" but never saying who was on them.
In the end, the Convention turned against Robespierre. On July 27, 1794 (9 Thermidor), he was arrested, and the next day, he was sent to the guillotine with

21 of his supporters. When Robespierre fell, the Jacobins lost their power, and the Reign of Terror officially came to an end.

F. The Directory Era (1795-1798)

With the end of the Terror Reign and after the overthrow of Robespierre, a new constitution was issued. This constitution came into force under the name of “Constitution de l'an III" With the end of the Terror Reign and after the overthrow of Robespierre, a new constitution was issued. This constitution came into force under the name of “Constitution de l'an III". According to this constitution, legislative power was to be given to two assemblies: Conseil des Cinq-Cents (The Council of Five Hundred) and the Conseil des Anciens (Council of Elders).

The Council of Five Hundred (Conseil des Cinq-Cents) was the lower house of the legislature of the French First Republic, under the Constitution of the Year III. Council of Five Hundred (Conseil des Cinq-Cents) was the lower house of the Council of Five Hundred (Conseil des Cinq-Cents) was the lower house of the legislature of the French First Republic, under the Constitution of the Year III. It operated between October 31, the Council of Five Hundred (Conseil des Cinq-Cents) was the lower house of the legislature of the French First Republic, under the Constitution of the Year III. It operated between October 31, 1795 and November 9, 1799 during the French Revolution. In addition to functioning as a legislative body, the Council of Five Hundred also proposed the list from which the Ancients would elect the five Rulers who would have joint executive authority. The Council of Five Hundred had its own distinctive official uniform with a robe, cape, and hat, just like the Council of Elders and Rulers. Under the Thermidorian constitution, the Council of Five Hundred would be the imagination of the Republic, while the Council of Ancients would be the mind.

The Council of Elders is the council that takes over the administration with the Council of Five Hundred and makes decisions to approve or reject the proposed laws of the commission of five hundred. Article 82 of the law, Council of Elders is the council that takes over the administration with the Council of Five Hundred and makes decisions to approve council of elders is the council that takes over the administration with the council of five hundred and makes

decisions to approve or reject the proposed laws of the Commission of Five Hundred."

It was not a bicameral system in the contemporary sense, as both councils represented the same population, and there was no chamber representing local communities; instead, there were two chambers intended to act as a check against the Revolution's excesses (both against each other and in relation to the executive): the Council of Five Hundred proposed legislation, while the Council of Elders decided upon it. Power was shared with the Executive Directory.

Babeuf Plot(1796): The Conspiracy of the Equals was an organization founded by François-Noël Babeuf and three associates, aiming to overthrow the Directory government and establish a new republic based on property equality. The organization expanded as a result of the societal economic crisis and the losses sustained in the war.

Upon learning of this plot, the government decided to execute Babeuf and his three companions. Upon hearing this verdict, Babeuf attempted to commit suicide but was prevented. Following these events, the Conspiracy of the Equals incited an uprising among members of the army loyal to the organization. Subsequently, 30 individuals from the army were executed by firing squad by the government.

In 1796, the year of Babeuf's Conspiracy, there was a major economic crisis, and anti-republican factions, such as the royalists and the Jacobins, sought to regain influence. The economic crisis was accompanied by numerous plots, corruption, and famine. As these difficulties accumulated, both the government and the populace began to lose hope.

During this critical time, Napoleon took command of the Italian Campaigns between 1796 and 1797 and secured major military victories. Following these campaigns, the Treaty of Campo Formio (1797) enabled France to acquire significant territories. This achievement constituted the Directory's greatest success in foreign policy.

18 Fructidor Coup: In the Directory elections of 1797, royalist supporters gained entry into the Directory. François Barbé-Marbois was elected as the President of the Council of Elders, and Jean-Charles Pichegru, who was widely considered sympathetic to the monarchy and its restoration, was elected as the President of the Council of Five Hundred.

After General Napoleon Bonaparte provided documentation of Pichegru's activities, the republican Directors accused the entire council of conspiring against the Republic. At dawn on September 4, 1797, martial law was declared in Paris, and a decree was issued stating that anyone supporting royalism or the re-establishment of the 1793 Constitution would be executed without trial.

22 Floréal (loi du 22 floréal an VI): At this date, the Directory cancelled the election of the Jacobin deputies who had succeeded in the polls. Roberts interprets this event as a sign that the Directory regime was losing public support. During the same period, Napoleon was getting ready for his Egyptian Campaign.

30 Prairial: Due to military defeats and the economic collapse, a coup d'état occurred within the Directory. Sieyès and certain generals restructured the government. According to Roberts, this development set the stage for Napoleon's return in November 1799.

G. End of the Revolution (1799)

Weakening Directory and Military Growth: However, it remained weak in many ways. Its biggest problem was that its two councils acted independently of each other. Also, its desire "not to live on the extremes" meant it followed a policy that was "neither full democracy nor full monarchy," which shook the trust and satisfaction of the public.

Going through a major economic crisis, the Directory made wrong decisions that further lowered the public's morale. Farming activities in the country were not working well, and people could not find bread. Hyperinflation appeared, and the unemployment rate was constantly rising; the currency they used, called the assignat, was worth less than the paper it was printed on. Against this situation, the Directory faced rising grain prices, which led to public uprisings.

This unhappiness among the public continued throughout the Directory period, and constant revolts happened. Similarly, coups d'état involving both the Jacobins and the royalists took place. The Directory failed to achieve a

moderate government. As a solution to the economic crisis, it used policies that favored the rich middle class (bourgeoisie). This made the public even angrier.

Comeback of Napoleon: As a result of the coups, the Jacobins and royalists slowly began to take control of the Directory's rule. This meant that the Directory constantly tried to keep itself alive by dissolving its own assembly. This caused it to lose its legal right to rule in the eyes of the public. Trust in the Directory had completely broken down.

In addition to all this, wars were still going on, and they kept suffering defeats in the wars against the coalitions in Europe. When they did win some battles, they tried to keep themselves standing by bringing the power of the army under their own control.

In these wars, Napoleon Bonaparte achieved great success in the Italian campaigns and gained the title of "national hero." Because the Directory did not want this situation to get out of control, they tried to get rid of Napoleon. Napoleon was sent to Egypt. The Directory wanted to have Napoleon killed under the pretense of the Egyptian campaign, but the plan failed. Napoleon secretly returned to France from Egypt and intended to use the government's political weakness for his own gain.

18 Brumaire: When Napoleon returned to France, he was welcomed as a hero, and the public's excitement played a major role in his rise to power. Upon his return, Napoleon knew about Sieyès' plans for a coup.

Although Abbé Sieyès was one of the five members of the Directory, he believed that the Directory was not good enough to govern France. He planned to gather people who thought like him and organize a coup. When Napoleon heard about this plan, he supported it.

After Napoleon returned to France, he and Abbé Sieyès made plans for the coup. On November 9, 1799, Lucien Bonaparte told the Consuls a lie: he said that the Jacobins were planning a coup and were close to carrying it out. This lie made the Consuls worry about their safety and convinced them to move to Saint-Cloud. Napoleon was then put in charge of protecting the two Consuls, and he was given authority over all local soldiers.

Following this, three of the Consuls resigned. Soon after, the Council of Five Hundred was dissolved, and a new constitution was put into effect, which

replaced the Directory with a system led by three Consuls. Sieyès, Ducos, and Napoleon were appointed as the three Consuls. However, Napoleon quickly declared himself the First Consul, taking all the power for himself.

5. TIPS FOR DELEGATES

A. Matrix

Abbé Maury: Born Jean-Sifrein Maury, titled Abbé Maury, was a French cardinal and an archbishop of Paris. In 1789, he was elected by the clergy to be their deputy in the States-General. He opposed the union of the three estates into a single legislative body, the nationalization of Church property, and the Civil Constitution of the Clergy, which sought to reorganize the Church under state authority.

Antoine Barnave: Born Antoine Pierre Joseph Marie Barnave, Antoine Barnave was a skilled speaker in the National Assembly and played a key role in the early successes of the Revolution. However, his opposition to abolishing slavery in France's colonies distanced him from his radical peers. As he lost influence within the Jacobin Club, he shifted towards supporting a constitutional monarchy, even corresponding with Queen Marie Antoinette. This correspondence, discovered in 1792, resulted in his arrest and execution the following year.

Bertrand Barère: Bertrand Barère de Vieuzac was a French revolutionary and member of the Committee of Public Safety. He was known for his powerful speeches during the Reign of Terror and supported harsh measures against the Revolution's enemies. He survived Robespierre’s fall and later worked under the Directory and Napoleon.

Camille Desmoulins: Born Lucie-Simplice-Camille-Benoît Desmoulins, Camille Desmoulins, was one of the most prominent journalists during the French Revolution. A fervent republican, he played an important role in the Storming of the Bastille, when he called the people to arms. Although initially a radical, Desmoulins criticized the excessive violence of the Reign of Terror, leading to his execution on 5 April 1794.

Charlotte Corday: Marie-Anne Charlotte de Corday d'Armont, simply Charlotte Corday played a prominent role in the French Revolution when she assassinated radical activist Jean-Paul Marat in his bathtub on 13 July 1793. Despite her aristocratic background, Corday was an avowed republican who believed Marat and his Jacobin allies were corrupting the Revolution's soul. Following her execution on 17 July and she became a revolutionary martyr named “Angel of Assassination”.

Comte de Mirabeau: Born Honoré Gabriel Riqueti, Comte de Mirabeau was a French orator and nobleman who rose to prominence as a leader during the early stages of the French Revolution. Mirabeau advocated for the establishment of a constitutional monarchy modeled after Great Britain. Despite this moderate position, Mirabeau enjoyed immense popularity and was even a leading member of the Jacobin Club, although he would eventually disapprove of the radical direction the Jacobins took under the influence of Maximilien Robespierre.

Emmanuel-Joseph Sieyès: Emmanuel-Joseph Sieyès, commonly known as Abbé Sieyès, was a French clergyman and political writer who became a leading voice in the Third Estate during the French Revolution. Sieyès played an instrumental role in both the opening and closing events of the Revolution and sought a government that reflected the Third Estate, which he believed was the true nation.

Georges Danton: Georges-Jacques Danton was a French lawyer who became a prominent leader of the French Revolution. Danton played a major role in the overthrow of the French monarchy and the subsequent establishment of the First French Republic. He eventually took a moderate stance and opposed the Reign of Terror, leading to his execution on 5 April 1794.

Jacques Necker: Jacques Necker was a Swiss banker and statesman who served as the finance minister to King Louis XVI of France. He served in the king's ministry three separate times, tasked with navigating France through its dire financial crisis. Initially popular amongst the ordinary people, Necker played a significant role in the outset of the French Revolution.

Jacques-Pierre Brissot: Jacques-Pierre Brissot rose to prominence during the Revolution with his newspaper Le Patriote Français and was elected to the Legislative Assembly in 1791. He advocated for war with Europe, believing it essential for France to secure its revolutionary gains. As a leader of the

moderate Girondins, he aimed to spare King Louis XVI's life and decentralize power from Paris, but both efforts failed. After the Girondins' fall on June 2, 1793, Brissot was arrested and executed on October 31, 1793.

Jean-Sylvain Bailly: Jean-Sylvain Bailly was a notable figure in both astronomy and the political landscape of revolutionary France. He led the famous proceedings in the Tennis Court, being the first to take the Tennis Court Oaths. He served as the mayor of Paris from 1789 to 1791 and was ultimately guillotined during the Reign of Terror.

Jean-Paul Marat: Jean-Paul Marat was a radical French journalist, politician and prominent member of the National Convention who gained popularity for his editorial work advocating for strong measures against the aristocracy. He criticized moderate revolutionaries and called for the execution of counterrevolutionaries. As a, he was supported by Parisians in protests. In April 1793, he was acquitted by a Revolutionary tribunal. However, in July, he was assassinated, making him a martyr for the people's cause.

Jean Chouan: Born Jean Couttereau, Jean Chouan was a counter-revolutionary and the leader of The Owls. He became a key figure in the anti-republican resistance in western France. The nickname "Chouan," meaning owl in the local dialect, was allegedly used as a code name during guerrilla operations. The name is said to come from the fact that he could do a good impression of an owl. Even though Chouan died in 1794, the owl movement persisted until 1800.

Joachim Murat: Joachim-Napoléon Murat was a French Army officer and statesman who served under General Napoleon during the French Revolutionary and Napoleonic Wars. He supported the revolutionary government against internal uprisings and foreign coalitions, demonstrating particular skill in cavalry tactics.

Joseph Fouché: Joseph Fouché duke d'Otrante**,** was a French statesman, revolutionary, and Minister of Police under First Consul Napoleon Bonaparte. He was particularly known for the ferocity with which he suppressed the Lyon insurrection during the Revolution in 1793 and for being a highly competent minister of police under the Directory, the Consulate, and the Empire.

King Louis XVI: Born Louis Auguste de France, Louis XVI was the last king of France before the monarchy was abolished during the French Revolution. An

indecisive king, his attempts to reform and navigate France through the crises of the 1780s failed, leading to the Revolution, the destruction of the monarchy, and finally his death by guillotine on 21 January 1793.

Lazare Carnot: Born Lazare Nicolas Marguerite, Lazare Comte Carnot, was a French mathematician, physicist, military officer, and politician. As a member of the Committee of Public Safety, he played a major role in reorganizing the French army during the Revolutionary Wars. He introduced mass conscription, improved military discipline, and helped lead France to major victories against foreign enemies. After his strategic planning transformed the revolutionary armies into a powerful force, he came to be known as the "Organizer of Victory."

Louis Antoine de Saint-Just: Louis Antoine Léon de Saint-Just was a radical Jacobin and close ally of Maximilien Robespierre. He got elected to the National Convention in September 1792. Being known as the "Archangel of Terror," he played a significant role during the Reign of Terror and was an effective military commissar. He was guillotined on 28 July 1794.

Louis Philippe II, Duke of Orléans: Born Louis Philippe Joseph d'Orléans, Louis Philippe II, Duke of Orléans, was a member of the French royal family who adopted a supportive stance toward the early stages of the French Revolution. Known for his opposition to certain policies of King Louis XVI, he aligned himself with liberal and constitutional ideas, becoming a symbolic figure among reformers. Despite his earlier efforts for the revolution, he was arrested and guillotined during the Reign of Terror.

Madame Roland: Born Jeanne Marie Philipon, Madame Roland, was a prominent figure within the Girondin faction during the French Revolution. As the wife of Jean-Marie Roland, Minister of the Interior, she played an active role in drafting political correspondence for Girondin opposition to the radical policies of the Jacobins. Following the fall of the Girondins in 1793, Madame Roland was executed by guillotine

Madame Olympe de Gouges: Born Marie Gouze, Madame Olympe de Gouges was a French social reformer and writer. She challenged conventional views on women's roles in society. She is best known for her "Declaration of the Rights of Woman and the Female Citizen," which she wrote on women's rights. Associated with the moderate Girondins, her critiques of Robespierre and the

Revolutionary government during the Reign of Terror led to her execution by guillotine in 1793.

Marquis de La Fayette: Born Marie-Joseph Paul Yves Roch Gilbert du Motier de La Fayette, Marquis de La Fayette was a French aristocrat and military officer who played a key role in both the American and French revolutions. A proponent of republican ideals, he helped draft the Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen and navigated France through challenging times. His contributions to both revolutions earned him the nickname "the Hero of the Two Worlds."

Maximilien Robespierre: Born Maximilien François Marie Isidore de Robespierre, Maximilien Robespierre was one of the most crucial figures of the French Revolution. He was a French lawyer who became one of the primary leaders of the French Revolution. From his initial rise to stardom in the Jacobin Club, Robespierre went on to dominate the powerful Committee of Public Safety and oversee the Reign of Terror. He was overthrown and guillotined on 28 July 1794.

Napoleon Bonaparte: Napoleon Bonaparte was born to a family of minor Corsican nobility. Napoleon rose to prominence in the French army during the French Revolutionary Wars, leading military campaigns in Italy and Egypt, becoming one of the key figures of the French Revolution. He seized control of the French Republic in the Coup of 18 Brumaire of 1799 and crowned himself Emperor of the French in 1804.

Pierre Vergniaud: Pierre Victurnien Vergniaud was a French lawyer and politician who served as a leading deputy of the Girondin faction during the French Revolution. He supported the declaration of war against Austria and the establishment of the French Republic, but opposed the radical policies. Following the political ascendancy of the Jacobins, he was arrested and executed by guillotine in October 1793.

B. Recommendations from the USG and the President-Chair

- Firstly, finish reading the study guide before detailed research to have an understanding of the main points of the topic. After your reading session, take notes to summarize. This summary helps you deduce your opinions. These

opinions should be integrated into your representative character's politics. These opinions are really important for your speeches.

- Take notes on the major historical events during the period the committee takes in. The committee's flow will be connected to some of the key events in the Revolution's timeline.

-You need to know the details of important events such as wars because when you write directives(will be explained in a workshop) you need to think that you are the person who lived that action. These details will be concerned during assessments of directives.

- Almost all of your actions in the committee will have consequences. This should be kept in mind during your speeches and especially when writing your directives

-We will start the committee with the period before the year 1789. Furthermore, since the history has already been written, your actions and events are more or less pre-planned. This determined future of yours can change due to spontaneous events. In other words, anything can happen at any moment. We request that you remain cool-headed and find careful solutions to these spontaneous events as they occur.

-We are going to make a workshop for you, but do you think if it's not enough for you, we recommend that you get prepared for the procedure of Crisis Committees.

-As a Representative, we allow you to form alliances with characters who share your political views. You may also choose to act individually, based on your own preference. Our suggestion to you is to form alliances and create a productive debate among these groups.

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