

* The legacy of Napoleon Bonaparte both in France and Europe generally, and the policies of the Allies designed to counter this legacy.

Part of Napoleon's legacy was an orderly and unified Europe, albeit a Europe under the flag of France. French rule, lifestyle and military and political influences, were widespread in Europe. Napoleon's borders supported by his armies, covered most of the Continent.

The Allies of the United Kingdom, Austria, Russia, and Prussia, took action.

In March 1814, the Treaty of Chaumont formally bound together the alliance for twenty years after the overthrow of Napoleon to maintain order in post-Bonaparte Europe. By the end of March, the Allies had occupied France, restored Louis XVIII to power and exiled Napoleon. This culminated in the First Treaty of Paris in May of that year.

This treaty forced France into surrendering territories on the left bank of the Rhine and the whole of Belgium, plus some of their overseas colonies. Then this process was interrupted by the "100 Days" incident when Bonaparte escaped from Elba, but was later caught at Waterloo. His recapture culminated in the Second Treaty of Paris in November 1815. Under this treaty France had to have the borders it had in 1790. Thus she lost strategically important land and had to maintain an Allied garrison in France to prevent further trouble coupled with a large indemnity.

To maintain ~~the~~ the order restored by the Treaty of Chaumont, the Treaty of Vienna was signed in June 1815. Allied representatives and the French spokesman Tallyrand, signed the Treaty to sort out territorial disputes.

In November 1815, The Quadruple Alliance was formed. The peacemakers realised that a stable Europe needed a strong military force to maintain the agreement. Signed on the 20th November, the Alliance said that the Allies would maintain, by force, the agreements reached at

RESTORATION = STOLEN
RETURN FROM
AUSTRIA TO
MOS OF CROWN
↓
WEST RHINE LANDS
BECOME
W. PRUSSIA

Chamont, Vienna and Paris.

Finally, in September 1815, the Holy Alliance was formed by Russia's Tsar Alexander I. It was to promote Christian principles in government. It became accepted all over Europe except by Prince Regent of England, Pope Pius VII and the Sultan of Turkey - who couldn't sign being of an Islamic persuasion.

In total the combined effort of these four treaties ~~in~~ in conjunction with the force of the Quadruple Alliance maintained order and stability in Europe and put an end to France's, or rather, Napoleon's dreams of domination and conquest.

Russia was given Finland from Sweden. Also gained Bessarabia to strengthen her southern borders.

Austria took part of the Netherlands, but surrendered it to Holland to strengthen borders against France. (Austria gained parts of Italy as compensation)

T. of Paris

1. indemnity
2. Army of Occupation
3. Restoration of Monarchs
4. Loss of land

How successfully did the Cons. work
in Europe after 1815?

Europe 1815 - 48 Metternich's Europe

1. The policies of Metternich as seen in the peace settlements 1814-15
2. Metternich's use of the 'Holy Alliance'
3. Nationalism and liberalism in France 1815-48
 - (a) France - how did liberalism fare after the Restoration
 - (b) the reigns of Louis XVIII and Charles I
 - (c) the failure of the Bourbons and the ascendance of the middle-class
 - (d) increasing dis-enchantment with Louis Philippe - reasons.
 - (e) what was French foreign policy 1815-48?
4. Nationalism and liberalism in Italy 1815-48
 - (a) how Italy was affected by the peace settlements 1814-15. Was Italy any better off after 1815? Legacy of Napoleonic
 - (b) Outline of the difficult regimes in Italy - reasons for lack of cohesion
 - (c) 1820 revolutions in Italy - reasons for outbreak and subsequent failure - carbonari.
 - (d) Mazzini
 - (e) Revolutions of ~~1830~~ ^Y.
 - (f) Italy 1830-48 - were there any other attempts to unify and/or liberalise the country.
5. Nationalism and liberalism in Germany 1815-48
 - (a) Condition of Germany in 1815. Which was the greater force - liberalism or nationalism?
 - (b) barriers to unification within and outside Germany.
 - (c) the position of Prussia after 1815.
 - (d) attempts at reform in Germany 1815-20 and the attitude of the authorities.
 - (e) Revolutions of 1830.
 - (f) changes in Germany 1830-48
 - (g) importance of the years 1846-48
6. Nationalism and liberalism in the rest of Europe 1815-48
 - (a) Greek revolt - brief outline, liberalism, nationalism or what?
 - (b) Spain 1820-23.
 - (c) the Belgian War of Independence - reasons for Belgian dissatisfaction. The course of the war. Reasons for success
 - (d) attempts at reform in Russia 1815-48 and Russian territories especially Poland.
7. Summary of the period. Had the forces of liberalism and nationalism developed strength in those 30 years or had the conservatives maintained their position?

T E X T S

Europe since Napoleon p.p.96-7, 101, 130-5, 171

Europe 1815-1945 p.p.8-16, 56, 84-86

Europe 1830-1860 Hearden p.p.

Europe between revolutions p.p.

The Eastern Question 1815-1856

The origin of the Eastern Question goes back to the time of the Moslem invasion of Europe in the 8th. 1000 years later it was not Moslem expansion but contraction which was feared by European statesmen. During the 18th Austria switched from opposing Turkey to supporting them against Russia. The European Powers could not prevent internal unrest within the Ottoman Empire, which suffered from two main weaknesses. Firstly, local governors were taking more power into their own hands and away from the Sultan. Secondly, national and religious differences within the Empire became greater. Gradually during the 19th Balkan countries asserted their independence and European politicians lost control over the situation.

Greece

The Turks tolerated the Greek Orthodox Church and tolerated some independence, but early in the 19th. the Greeks began to assert themselves more vigorously. The first trouble began in the south of Greece in Janina, where the local Turkish governor, who was named Ali, tried to set up his own separate state. At the same time, Prince Ypsilanti who was the Greek governor of Moldavia and Wallachia, tried to break away from the Turkish Empire. He counted on Russian help, but Metternich persuaded Alexander not to intervene. Another reason for Ypsilanti's failure is that he had no popular support. Meanwhile in the south - the Morea - there was a general uprising and this marked the true beginning of the War of Independence. At one point the Turks were fighting against both Ali and the Greeks. Sending reinforcements was difficult for the Turks because the Greeks quickly gained control of the sea. By 1824, the Greeks were gaining the upper hand. In 1825 the Sultan turned to the Governor of Egypt for help this was Mehemet Ali. He was promised Syria and Morea if he provided help. His intervention was felt immediately, the Egyptian Army and Fleet had been trained by the French, and very soon the Greek situation became critical. Many volunteers from throughout Europe, including Lord Byron, volunteered to

help the Greeks. It became clear that the Greek Revolt would fail if they did not receive help from at least one European power. Metternich was against intervention because of the principle of legitimacy. His influence prevented Alexander I from sending help. Britain also was against intervention, to preserve the Turkish Empire and so prevent its expansion southwards. To Britain, Greek independence would be the beginning of the end of the Turkish Empire. The solution agreed among the powers was that the Greek problem should be isolated and that revolution should not be allowed to spread. The rulers were therefore acting against popular feeling in every country. Canning - the Foreign Secretary - was definitely against intervention, but in 1823, he was prepared to say that the Greeks had a case. When Nicholas I became Czar in 1825 he was not as restrained as Alexander and so Austria and Britain became more involved.

By the Treaty of London 1827, Britain, France and Russia, wanted to set up a semi-independent Greece, but Austria and Prussia were against that. Then came the incident at Navarino Bay. This was the main naval base for Egyptian and Turkish ships and a combined squadron of British, French and Russian vessels, entered the Bay destroying the Egyptian-Turkish fleet.

After this Turkey would not accept the Treaty of London. Russia then declared war on Turkey in 1828 and the Russian Army reached the outskirts of Constantinople. A General European Conference then took place and the Greeks became independent through the Treaty of Adrianople (1829.) Under this treaty Greece became an independent state with Bavaria's Prince Otto as monarch. For Russia's part in the struggle, the Czar was awarded some islands at the mouth of the Danube, the Black Sea port of Poti, commercial concessions in Turkey and was allowed to garrison Moldavia and Wallachia for five years.

In 1831 Mehemet Ali annexed Syria and then marched on Turkey. In desperation the Turks turned to Russia and with Russian aid, they repelled the Egyptians.

1833 the Treaty of Unkiar-Skelessi was signed between Russia and Turkey: (1) The Russians agreed to protect the Ottoman Empire

2.

The Turks agreed to close the Straits whenever the Russians wanted. This treaty upset Britain and France in particular because it increased Russian influence in the Middle East. In 1839, the Turks attacked the Egyptians but were thrown back until Constantinople came under threat from the Egyptians. The Russians proposed that there should be a European conference to solve the differences between Egypt and Turkey. Britain welcomed this but the French rejected it because they feared their Egyptian allies would lose out in the negotiations.

In 1840 a combined British/Austrian fleet bombarded Beirut and then the British Fleet threatened Alexandria and Mehmet Ali capitulated. In 1841, Russia, Turkey, Britain, France and Austria signed the Straits Convention. Under this warships were not to enter the Dardanelles or the Bosphorus Straits. ~~in~~ in times of peace. Secondly, the Turkish Empire was to be preserved. The treaty meant that Russian influence in the Mediterranean was restricted and Palmerston, the Foreign Secretary regarded this as a success. However, the rot within the Ottoman Empire was not stopped but just temporarily slowed.

Thm 245-7

~~Reasons for intervention~~

How did the Great Powers become involved? Comment on the attitudes taken by Britain and Russia?

The Great Powers became involved when under the Treaty of London in 1827, Britain, France and Russia agreed to set up a semi-independent Greece. Also Russia's new leader - Czar Nicholas I - who was less-restrained than his father - diplomatically and dragged Austria into the War.

The British attitude was to safeguard the East as it was their overland route to India at most cost even if this meant siding the Turks. Thus they decided to isolate the revolt to Greece.

The Russians' attitude was to intervene as they wanted to expand their Empire.

OTTOMAN EMPIRE
BREAKUP - WHAT
SHOULD THEY DO?

GREECE
MEHMET ALI
DYNASTY

Lower VI

18th October 1985

BECAUSE 1815-56 EUROPEAN STATUS QUO - FOLLOW A LONG LINE
CONCERNED THAT THE STATUS QUO WOULD BE OUT OF THE POWER CENTRE
OVERURNED

* **Why** was the 'Eastern Question' a source of **constant concern** to European statesmen in the period 1815-1856?

The Eastern Question has its roots in the Muslim invasion of Eastern Europe in 8th Century. With this invasion, the large and powerful Ottoman Empire came into being; but, it was not the power of the Turkish Empire that Europe feared, but rather the lack of this potency. In the early 1820s, divides within the Empire seriously threatened its security and its stability. If the Turkish Empire collapsed, the European powers - Britain in particular - would lose their overland route to the Far East and India and the Russians would rapidly expand their empire southwards. Thus, the Eastern Question was a source of constant concern to European statesmen. Austria feared Balkan nationalism.

The threat to the Turkish Empire first arose in Janina in Southern Greece, when the Turkish Governor Ali attempted to seize control of his dominion. Simultaneously, in the Balkan States of Moldavia and Wallachia, the Greek Governor Prince Ypsilanti - counting on Russian support - attempted to 'break away' from Turkey. With an insurrection in the Greek province of Morea by Hellenic Nationalists, the events of the early 1820s culminated in the outbreak of the Greek War of Independence.

The hard-pressed forces of the Turkish Army tried desperately to crush revolts, armed insurrections and bands of nationalist guerrillas. By 1825, the Greeks appeared to have the advantage over the Ottoman Empire and the Turkish Sultan turned to Mehemet Ali of Egypt for help. In return for the territories of Syria and Morea, to be given to Egypt after the successful defeat of the Greeks, Mehemet Ali despatched his forces in support of Turkey. The mighty Egyptian Navy - well-equipped and French-trained - arrived in Greece with detachments of troops, and soon began to subdue the independence war.

To carry on their struggle for independence the Greeks clearly needed help from one or more of the European Powers. Czar Alexander I

✓ of Russia, who prepared to give this vital support to the Greeks, but Metternich persuaded him not to get involved with such a dangerous situation, which could lead to another major war. Nevertheless; support for Greece came unofficially from Europe as hundreds of volunteers set off to fight alongside the nationals in the civil war, just as their descendants would have done in 1936 in Spain - amongst the British volunteers was poet Lord Byron. In 1825, the death of Alexander made Nicholas I Russian Czar, and he was prepared to give support even if it meant defying Metternich and Europe. Consequently, the European Powers were forced into taking an active role in the Greek War, to prevent the expansion of hostilities. Russian encroachment

1827 saw the Treaty of London, under which the signatories of Britain, France and Russia agreed to work towards a semi-independent Greece. Then in September an Anglo-French naval force, ordered the Egyptian and Turkish fleets based at Navarino Bay, to return under escort to Egypt. After a refusal, a Russian fleet joined forces with the Anglo-French force in October and the overall commander - Vice-Admiral Codrington - decided to attack. Entering the bay his forces completely destroyed the Egyptian and Turkish fleets. After this incident Turkey refused to accept the Treaty of London and in 1828 she went to war with Russia.

The Russian Army swiftly forced the Turks to retreat to Constantinople and with his capital city at the hands of a foreign power, the Sultan of Turkey came to the conference table. In 1829 the Treaty of Adrianople granted Greece its independence with Bavaria's Prince Otto as its new leader. The peace in the Balkans was maintained by the Russians who kept garrisons in Moldavia and Wallachia until 1834.

In 1831, the first threat to a newly stabilised Ottoman Empire came as Egypt's Mehmet Ali staked his claim to Syria under Turkish and Egyptian agreements of 1825. After annexing Syria, Ali's forces marched on towards Turkey. The Turks sought help from their former enemy Russia, who then aided the Sultan by supporting his armies in repelling the Egyptian aggressors.

In 1833 the controversial Treaty of Unkar-Skelessi was signed by Turkey and Russia. Under this treaty the Russians agreed to

clarify?

protect the Ottoman Empire from external threats. The Turks, in return for this protection, agreed to seal off the 'Karadeniz Boğazi' or Bosphorus Straits whenever the Russians requested. This meant that the Russian Navy would have a safe haven in the Black Sea as no foreign vessels or warships could enter the Sea. The Treaty of Unkiar-Skelessi was received warmly in Constantinople, but not in London, Paris or Vienna; as it may have temporarily safeguarded the Ottoman Empire, but it had also given Russia much greater influence in the Eastern Mediterranean.

With its new found power Turkey, in 1839, attacked Egypt bringing a swift retaliation which forced Turkey to ~~withdraw~~ its Army to defend the much-beleaguered capital city of Constantinople. With Egyptian forces laying siege to Turkey's principal city, Russia proposed a conference to settle the differences between the two aggressors. Mehmet Ali refused to negotiate and in 1840, British and Austrian naval squadrons bombarded Beirut, then threatened to carry out a similar assault on Alexandria. Under this pressure, Ali surrendered and withdrew his forces. 1841 saw the signing of the Sevres Convention by Britain, Russia, Turkey and France which forbade any military vessels of any nation from entering the Dardanelles. Once again, the Ottoman Empire had been stabilised against collapsing under pressure of internal and external threats.

The Ottoman Empire, covering such a vast area, had a great many cultures contained within it. Amongst these cultures were two main religious groups - the Islamic ~~Church~~ and the Christian Churches. Within the Christian Church were yet two more divides that of the Roman Catholic and Orthodox Churches. This divide in the Christians of the Ottoman Empire became the source of yet more friction for the powers to worry over. The dispute between French and Russian religious interests soon grew political and drew Britain - a country alarmed at Russian expansion - into a major war.

In 1852 France proposed that they protected Roman Catholic religious interests in Turkey - such as Holy Places and religious centres in the Holy Land which fell under Turkish jurisdiction. At first Turkey did not accept French proposals and France increased diplomatic pressure. Then in April the 90-gun French warship 'Charlemagne' belligerently sailed into the Dardanelles and other naval vessels threatened to bombard Tripoli.

Under this pressure the Turkish Sultan granted the French a protectorate over Roman interests and by Christmas they were in control of the Church of the Nativity in Bethlehem. An outraged Czar Nicholas I, feeling that the Orthodox Church was at threat from French intervention, stationed troops along his borders with Moldavia and Wallachia as an act of defiance. In January 1853. In February a Russian Commission headed by Prince Menshikov was sent to Turkey, to ask the Sultan for similar rights for Russia as France had been granted. The Sultan under advice from British Ambassador Hamilton-Gordon, made concessions regarding the issue of Holy Places, but would not grant Russia a protectorate over the Orthodox Church in Turkey. Prince Menshikov left for Russia and the crisis began.

Sensing the growing tension the French Fleet left its base at Toulon and sailed to the island of Salamis in Greece in March 1853. On the 2nd of June, the Royal Navy's Malta Fleet arrived in Besika Bay at the Dardanelles in support an attempt to diffuse a potentially dangerous situation. Then the Russian Army crossed the River Pruth on the 2nd July and re-occupied the provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia. France, on the 22nd September, proposed to Britain that their respective fleets sail into the Dardanelles together as a gesture of deterrence.

On the 4th October, the Turks formally requested that the Russians withdraw from the occupied provinces or a state of war would exist between them. By the end of the month, the armed forces of Turkey and Russia were in open conflict.

January 1854 saw Britain bow to French pressure and a combined naval force sailed into the Dardanelles to avert further hostilities. Czar Nicholas I was presented with an Anglo-French request to end hostilities and withdraw his forces. The rejection of this request forced an Anglo-French declaration of war on Russia on 31st March, after diplomatic links with Russia, and Britain and France were severed with the withdrawal of ambassadors. By the 10th April the allied forces of Britain, France and Turkey had combined into one force of around 50,000 troops and in June they landed at the Black Sea port of Varna in Bulgaria.

During the Autumn, Russian troops were pulled-out of Moldavia and Wallachia to deny Allied forces a goal. The Allies were then

forced into withdrawing from their Alma beachhead and crossed to Crimea situated on the Kerch Peninsula. Here they saw their objective of capturing the Russian naval port of Sevastopol. On finding the Allies forced a defensive Russian Army to withdraw to Sevastopol at the Battle of Alma.

The Allies having dispersed the Russians, then instead of making a direct assault on Sevastopol, moved around the now fortified city, to the south in order to lay siege. Harassed by the infamous Russian Winter; suffering the pestilence of typhus and cholera, the Allied forces laid siege to Sevastopol for just over a year. Despite the horrific conditions the Allies successfully repelled Russian attacks at Balaclava on 25th October and at Inkermann on the 5th November.

1855 saw the addition of troops from Sardinia and Piedmont to Allied forces, the capture of Kerch Peninsula in May and on 9th September the city of Sevastopol fell into the hands of the Allies. The fall of Sevastopol marked the end of the Crimean War.

In February 1856, the final chapter in the 'Eastern Question' closed with the Treaty of Paris. Under the terms of this agreement, Russia lost the territories of southern Bessarabia and Kars, which they had acquired from Turkey by military means. The Black Sea was demilitarised and the Straits closed to warships while Turkey was at peace. The Danube was placed under international control and finally: the protectorate of the principalities (ie. Moldavia and Wallachia) and of the Church in Turkey was assumed by Europe as a whole, not by one nation, such as Russia.

Yet again, the Ottoman Empire had been stabilised by the direct involvement of the European Powers. Nevertheless, the independence and national identity of the Balkan States was a matter which plagued the Empire for some time and was only resolved after the First World War.

Woods 'Europe 1815-1945'

Thomson 'Europe Since Napoleon'

Pear's Cyclopaedia 92nd Edition - use this only to verify dates.

a much better effort this time.

(C)

Italian Unification

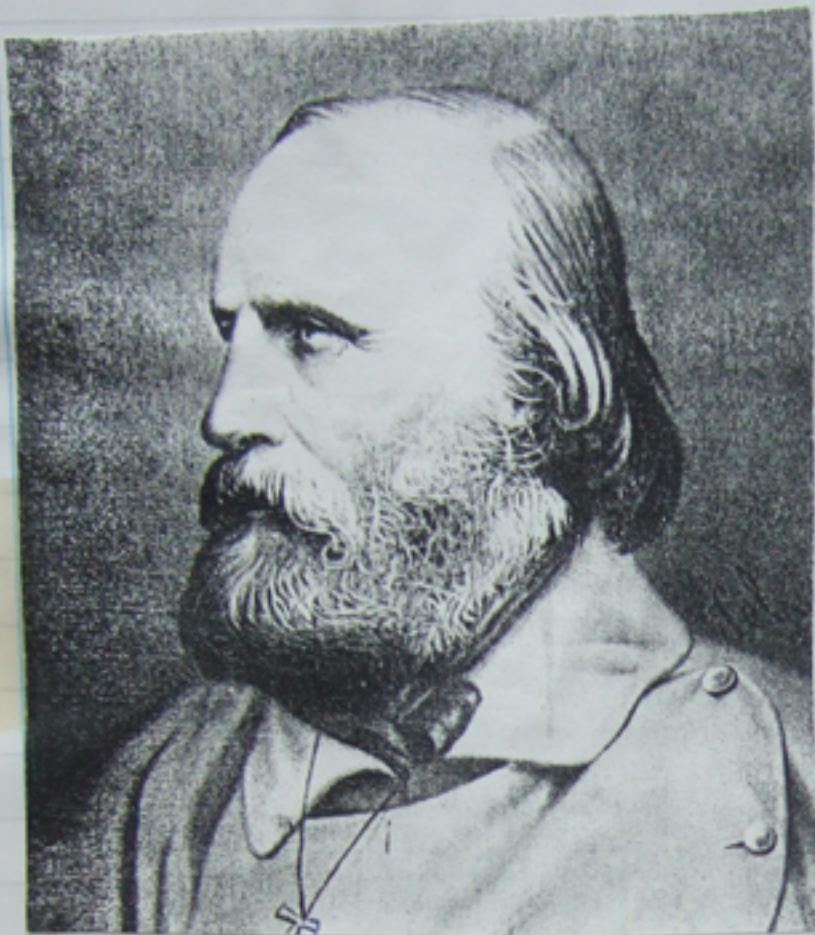
- prologue

There were a number of heroes in the struggle for Unification such as: Mazzini, Cavour, Garibaldi, Victor-Emmanuel and Crispi. But apart from this heroic aspect, there was another side to the movement.

1. In 1859, 1866 and 1870 success was primarily due to outside forces. Even Garibaldi's "Thousand" needed the tacit support of the Powers.
2. The rest of the population was never entirely whole-hearted except in plebiscites and those only confirmed fait accompli.
3. The rest of the country had to accept the imposition of Piedmontese way of life. It was a Piedmontese parliamentary, economical and social system, and also the Piedmontese idea of "a free church in a free state".
(In 1870 Piedmont had only 20 yrs of experience of parliamentary government and the rest of the country even less. The most recently liberated areas had strong regional characters and that was reflected in the compromises which took place in national government.)
4. The opposition of the Papacy. The government attempted reconciliation but Pius IX and his successors refused to compromise. This problem was not resolved until 1929.

Italy's international position was weakened because of these internal differences and Italy remained the weakest of the Great Powers.

THE MEN BEHIND UNIFICATION



Giuseppe GARIBOLDI
(1807 - 1882)

Self-styled guerrilla-leader of Italian nationalism. Learned his skills in a brief-torn South America.
1848 - "Home Republic"
1859 - Independence War
1860 - "The Thousand" → invasion of S. Italy
1861 - Retires from active service.
Without Garibaldi S. Italy would not have been included in the Union and popular support non-existent



Count Camillo Benso di CAOUR
(1810 - 1861)

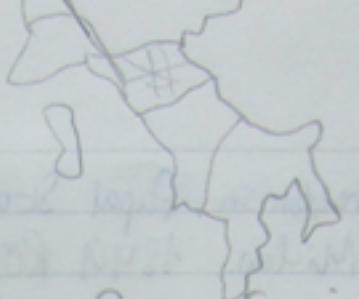
Tough industrialist and Prime Minister of Piedmont/Kingdom of Sardinia.
1851 - voted in as Prime Minister. Reforms political, social + military brought in.
1854 - sends 25,000 troops to Crimea cf. Austria - not involved.
1858 - Plombières Summit with N3
1859 - Independence War
- resigns as P.M. (Villafranca)
1860 - (re-elected) checks Garibaldi's exploits in South
1861 - 1st Italian Nat. Parliament.
- the PM of Italy
- Dies of Cholera(?)

7th November 1985

Unification of
Italy

Honor II

- 1 The vote constituting the Kingdom of Northern Italy were the plebiscites held in Tuscany, Modena, Parma and ~~Modo~~ Romagna, which were in favour of annexation to Piedmont to create the Kingdom. ✓
- 2 The name of the 'historical old capital' is Rome ✓
- 3 Victor-Emmanuel reigned over the Kingdom of Piedmont ✓
- 4 The people chose him to rule as he was the only head of state that they could trust and he was ruler of Piedmont who were the authority in these states. ✓
- 5 The country responsible for Italian 'oppression' in the early nineteenth century was Austria, who used merciful troops, regional 'police' forces and petty dictators to oppress the Italians. ✓
- 6 France helped the Italians to ' vindicate their country's cause' as they felt challenged by Austrian supremacy in Central Europe and also wanted a stable and allied Italy, as they shared a common border. ✓
- 7 Local squabbles in Italy prevented unification in the early nineteenth-century, as many states wanted to remain independent. There was also a traditional divide between the affluent North and destitute South of Italy which again hindered Italian unity. ✓



ITALY

→ Unification

* A geographical expression - not unif since Roman Empire

Nap invasion 1797 → Sardinia 1802

P 1. Austria expelled

A 2. Pope loses power } Italy is One Nation - Napoleon
L 3. Tax + admin system unif. } another Nat aspir

Congress of Vienna splits up Italy-

1. Lomb + Venet under Austria.

2. Piedmont - Nic. Fm restored

3. Kingdom of 2 Sicilies - Ferd I (poorly + worst run)

4. Papal States under Pope

Other minor states run by petty dictators under Austrian influence or French puppets. e.g. Parma - Nap's widow

1815-20 VEI

1820-31 CF

1831-49 CA 1820 led a revolt against Ferd I wanted restoration of old Const 1812.

1849 - VEII Ferd went to Cof Trapani for help. Austrian Army crushes revolt for him + another in Piedmont. VE abdicated Charles Felix takes over.

1831 - further risings. Hopes of French help but Louis Philippe frightened of Metternich.

Again Austrian Army moves in - showed that Austria had to go.

Opinion divided among factions:-

1. Republicans - Giuseppe Mazzini - 'Prophet of Unification' 1831 sets up 60,000 strong Young Italy Movt. Wanted Austria expulsion thru Italian effort only. Criticises Carbonari for bad organisation

2. Federations - Gioberti - peace from Piedmont. Wanted unif. League headed by Pope.

3. Piedmont supporters - Piedmont Army capable of taking on Austria. 1831 Charles Albert comes Piedmont + reorganises Army.

1848 - Jan revolt in Sicily - Ferd II grants a const. Demand for

freedom in Papal States. Revolts in Tuscany + Piedmont. "Tobacco Riots" in Milan. 1849 ROME REPUBLIC (Mazzini + Garib - PRA crushed it)

1852 Cavour becomes PM of Piedmont. Introduces econ. reforms removes away Church power + increases military capacity.
limited aims - a united N. Italy under Piedmontese rule
(sends 25,000 troops to Crimea in 1854)

1856 - Congress of Paris. Cavour presses for:

1. Condemnation of Naples régime + Papal States, &
2. Diplomatic isolation of Austria.

- establishes rapport with Napoleon III. attracted by idea

a weak Austria. N3 does nothing much though.

1858 - Orsini murder attempt on N3 gets him up

" - PLOMBIÈRES-JULY (Cavour + N3)

- plan to attack Austria in N. Italy. Result: Lomb + Venet plus others annexed to Piedmont to create a united Northern Italy. France would supply 200,000 men to help Piedmont 100,000 in war. In return France receive Savoy + Nice.

- Austria had to look the aggressor though before France could step in publicly.

1859 - Austria introduces conscription to Lombardy + Venetia.

Calls for peace conf. at Plombières Park breaks out. N3 moves above + Austria seize chance threatening Cavour with ultimatum.

JUNE 1859 - War breaks out

- 1st big clash at Magenta pushes Austria back to Lake
Guarda → clash at Solferino 17,000 french perish + Austrian retreats
to Quadrilateral.

5TH JULY 1859 - VILLAFRANCA. Damned by losses + prospect of
losing Q. N3 pulls out meeting Franz Joseph at Villafranca.

- Piedmont gets Lombardy but all else stays same.

- N3 drops Nicel/Savoy cession in return for Piedmont
paying war expenses.

Cavour resigns furiously - war did trigger all for Italy

Revolution in Tuscany, Parma + Modena force annexation to Piedmont
Pribiscites in 1860. States annexed by Mayoring and Savoy/Nice ceded.

The South.

Crispi in Sicily leading an independence move, secretly supported + supplied by Cavour.

1860 - Garibaldi decides to help Crispi by invading Sicily after upset over Nice ceding (a Nice-man himself.)

MAY - Set sail in 2 steamers with 1,089 Redshirts from Genoa.

- island fell within ^{FEW} weeks thanks to local partisans out for revenge + with Crispis men - defeat of 23,000 Neopolitan troops.

- crosses to mainland with 4,000 men. joins army of 100,000 and captures Naples within 3 weeks of landing.

Garib's next target Rome. Cavour realised attack on Rome would bring RC France + Austria in to intervene for Popes safety. Thus, the Piedmontese Army invaded the Papal States to stop Garibaldi. Plebs held + states join the N. + other plebs in South make Italy united except ROME + VENETIA.

(JAN 1861 - 1st Italian Parliament in Turin
(Cavour dies soon after)

Garib handed over congrants to Nic Eman II.

1862 - Garib attempts to invade Rome. Pied Army defeats him.

France agrees to pull garrison out of Rome as long as Italy protects Pope. (Capuchin moved to Florence).

1866 T. of Prague concludes Austro-Prussian War. N3 gets Austria to cede Venetia.

① 1867. - Garib launches another attack on Rome. French Army returns, repels him + decides to stay.

* 1870 - FP war makes French Army leave + Italian Army annexes Rome + holds pleb. Farou → Rome becomes Capital.

Pope given Vatican, Lateran, Castel Gandolfo plus £3.3m income

ITALY AFTER 1918.

Why did the authorities fail in the post war years?

The decline in authority was a long process culminating in the Fascist take-over.

This fragility was due to:-

1. Limited democracy for 1912. There was a ruling elite consisting of 2% of the electorate.

Socialism, after 1890, and the Catholic opposition were engaged in extra-parliamentary activities. This attitude helped undermine the government's position.

Between 1900 and 1914 the dominant political figure was Giolitti. He realised that the groups should be integrated into the parliamentary democracy. However, he used corrupt methods to achieve this and so offended Democrats who identified parliament with him.

So Parliament was

too liberal for the Catholics
too bourgeois for Socialists
too corrupt for Democrats

PARLIAMENTARY
DEBACLE

Italy's entry to the war was an attempt to frustrate internal unrest. In the pre-war period revolutionary syndicalists and anarchists had been very active in the North.

A division arose over intervention in the war and this eventually led to the triumph of the Fascists. Some say Fascism dates from 1915 i.e. the year Italy declared war.

WWI

Intervention

Popolari There were two groups of Socialists, those favoured Italian participation in the war (including Mussolini) and those who opposed - the pacifists. Mussolini, and others who agreed with him, argued that the war would bring more democracy through a revolution. So there were demonstrations in the streets in favour of war and when war was declared it appeared that the Interventionists had forced the government's hand. This encouraged those who believed in extra Parliamentary activities.

Splits in
Socialist
Party

Poor provisions for the army and poor leadership led to defeats which, at home, were blamed on internal subversion i.e. on the socialists who opposed the war. As matters continued to go badly for the army so the Interventionists became more vociferous in their demands to ban the Socialists. This, plus a fear of a communist revolution, led the Right and the Democrats becoming more critical of Parliament.

ANTI-LEFT
CAMPAIGN

2. Other effects. During the war industrialists were brought into the government (e.g. arms manufacturers) and they made profits for their own firms. Private interests dominated.

BIG BUSY
DOMINATED

3. Factory workers in the North were subject to military discipline during the war and industrialists wanted this regime to continue post war. The industrialists were associated with the state so consequently workers grew to dislike the state.

WORKERS
DISCONTENT

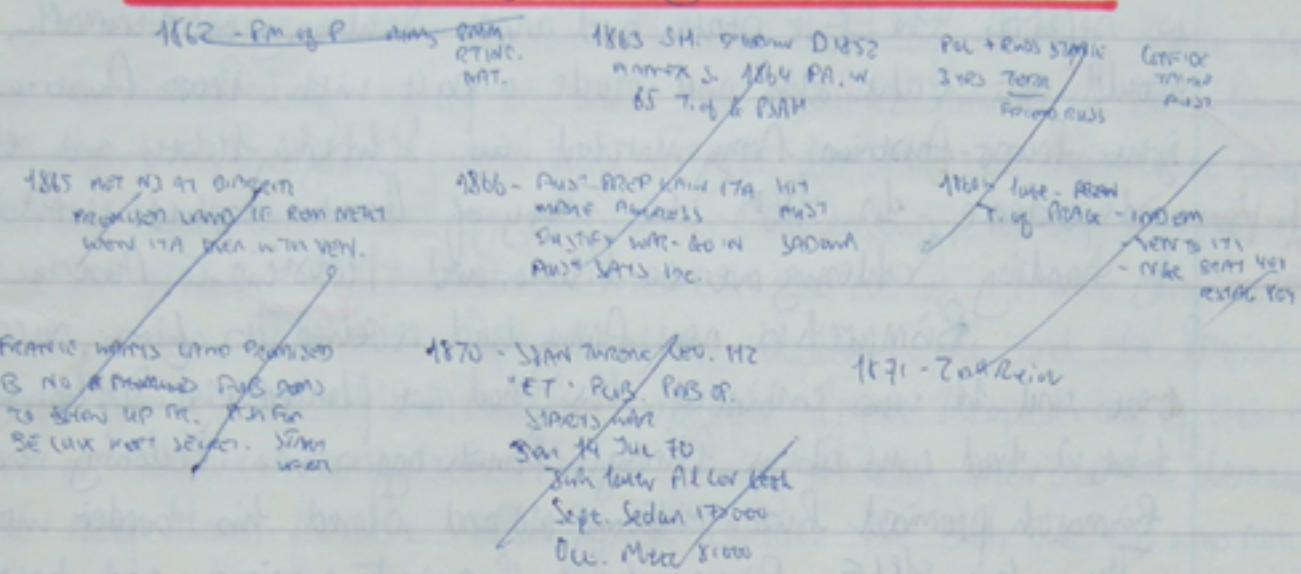
By 1919 the main problem was the restoration of Parliament's authority. This was in the face of increasing polarisation between socialists and anti-socialists. Both used extra-Parliamentary activities. The treatment of Italy, by her allies, at the peace conference brought an appeal for national unity from the Government. Then came the campaign of D'Annunzio in Fiume.

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The socialists became very powerful in the industrial north and those who opposed them appealed, without success, to the central government. These people became alienated then from Rome.

In the elections in 1919 the Popolari (centre Catholics) had 100 seats and the socialists 156. These two groups would not help the government or co-operate with each other. At this time Mussolini was distrusted by both Left and Right so he founded his own party in March 1919, the Fascists.

How valid is the judgement that Bismarck improvised rather than planned the Unification of Germany



In 1862 Prince Otto von Bismarck became Minister President of Prussia. He had been previously consigned as a dangerous Conservative and in effect 'exiled' from Prussia, by making him envoy to Russia or to France. But when Prussia needed a strong, new leader he fitted the bill perfectly. Bismarck was a firm believer in Realpolitik and a devout ~~Pru~~^{as king} ~~Prussian Nationalist~~. When he became leader of Prussia, with William as ~~constitutional~~ ruler, he saw a Germany divided into 39 separate states and many merely "puppets" of Austria.

11/25 ✓ He set out to preserve the Prussian military monarchy, to counter the threat of Radicals in Prussia and increase their international standing. In 1848, the Germans - and indeed the Prussians - had suffered a humiliating defeat at the hands of Austria, and both Bismarck and William pledged this would not happen again. Thus they made sweeping military reforms and appointed two new hardline generals - Von Roon and Von Moltke - to run the Army. But in 1862 the ~~Germans~~, or rather Prussian parliament refused to pass his Military Budget. Thus Bismarck angered at this attempt by Liberals and Progressives to thwart him, closed Parliament and came

into conflict with the Constitution. Biomarck needed something which would put him in a good light and restore faith in him.

This came in 1863 when the Schleswig-Holstein Question came to light. In 1852 these two states had been given over to Denmark to control, but Denmark had other ideas. and in 1863 the Danes attempted to separate the two states and annex Schleswig to Denmark. Bismarck would not take this and made a pact with Prussia. In 1864, a joint Pruss-Austrian Army marched into Schleswig-Holstein and restored semi-Westphalian independence. In 1865 the Treaty of Berlin resolved territorial disputes or opportunities by handing Schleswig over to Prussia, and Holstein to Austria.

Bismarck's new Army had received its first, successful test and he was contented. He had not planned the Schleswig-Holstein War, it had come about through Danish aggression. Following revolts in Poland, Bismarck promised Russia military aid and closed his border with Poland.

Thus by 1865, Bismarck had gained territory and befriended Russia, he now felt confident enough to rid Germany of Austrian influence.

In 1865 therefore, he met Napoleon III at Biarritz. He outlined his plans and forced France into neutrality with the promise of disputed Rhine territory. After bringing France round to his way of thinking, he won Italy over with the conversion of Venetia. Thus, the Fad planned his actions very efficiently placing Austria in a weak military and diplomatic position.

In 1866 when the Austrians mobilised to counter the threat of Italian nationalism, it seemed to the outside world like an act of war against Prussia. Because of this "naked aggression" it was justified, in the eyes of the world, when Prussia attacked Austria.

Bismarck's first act was to hit the Austrian satellites in southern Germany to neutralise potential enemies. After these actions in Hanover, Hesse-Cassel and Saxony, the Prussian Army poured over the Austrian border. Within a matter of weeks, the Austrians were defeated at Sadowa with the loss of 44,000 men.

The Austro-Prussian War ended with the Treaty of Prague. This treaty forced Austria to pay a huge indemnity and cede Venetia to the

Italians. When this treaty the NAC or North German Confederation was formed. It
This soon became the confederation of the North German states with one pledge
of military support from the South. It soon became dominated by Prussia.

In the Upper House or "Bundesrat" they held 40% of the seats, and
in the Lower House or "Reichstag" a staggering 80%.

With the war over and the NAC controlling Germany, France called
for Rhine territory agreed on under the Biarritz Summit of 1865. Bismarck
though was indignant, publishing French demands to humiliate them.
When they later asked for Belgium or Luxembourg, demands were kept secret
but not granted. This marked the start in the rise of Franco-Prussian relations.

In 1870, the Spanish throne became vacant and the Prussian
royal family - the Hohenzollerns - suggested Prince Leopold - one of their sons -
as a suitable candidate. France fearing Prussian encirclement demanded
he step down for the ~~the~~ Spanish throne. He did, but this was not
enough for France. They demanded a guarantee that he did not take up the
~~candidate~~ Spanish throne and a public apology from Bismarck and William. The
Napoleon III sent his demands in the infamous "Emperor Telegram". Bismarck was
incensed, and after editing the telegram to put the French in a bad
light, he published it. The public and edited "Emperor Telegram" brought
public cries for war. Bismarck had not planned for a war with France
like he had for the Austrian conflict. Yet we will had to follow the
concessions.

Thus on the 19th July 1870, France and Prussia went to war. 3 weeks
later Prussia had took Alsace-Lorraine. In September 173,000 French
soldiers surrendered at Sedan, and in October 81,000 at Metz.

Thus the war ended and the Germans proclaimed the new
German Empire at Versailles. He had not planned the unification but
had planned on smaller issues - eg. ousting Austria - but in doing so
he had improvised the forging of one German nation and Empire, through
Prussian military might and Realpolitik. *It would have been better to put
this sentence at the beginning of your essay.*

a bit short.

BISMARCK.

GOLO MANN "HISTORY OF GERMANY".

Bismarck's nature had many facets. Where the forces of history were concerned he was a very modest man. He often said that the individual could do little, that one must wait until things happened and that they always happened differently from the way they imagined. But then again he was impatient, arrogant and inclined to bluff both at the time and retrospectively. In his memoirs, speeches and conversations, he liked to arrange things as though he had planned and foreseen everything, whereas in fact he seized opportunities as they came.

What one man does in politics depends on what another does. When Bismarck became a Minister he probably wanted roughly the following; that Prussia remain Prussia and become more powerful and that his class should rule in Prussia as before. A necessary minimum of concessions should be made to the middle classes provided this could be done by a compromise acceptable to the ruling class. Let Germany be divided between Prussia and Austria if possible - if not, there were other possibilities. Bismarck saw the possible when it appeared and rejected the impossible.

He was ready to understand the interests of the other side and to propose realistic barter. If that failed and if the issue were of vital importance to Prussia, well, then it must be decided by force of arms. There was no third possibility.

Bismarck's genius consisted of sound common sense, courage and ruthlessness; in addition he worked harder at politics than most people.

E. LIPSOM "EUROPE IN THE 19TH CENTURY".

The history of Bismarck during the quarter-century in which he controlled the destinies of Germany and made her the strongest military power in Europe, is the record of statesmanship directed with sagacity, insight, and ruthlessness towards the attainment of a single objective. His purpose was to end the dualism which had been the bane of the German political system by driving Austria out of the Confederation and he steadily worked to accomplish this by war instead of by peaceable means. The conflict with France did not constitute the essence of his original design.

He favoured public criticism of the government by an independent representative assembly and by the press.

He had no scruples in adopting any means which conduced to the end he had in view; and if free institutions and a free press were obstacles in his path he would not hesitate to trample on the former and stifle the latter.

H. HEARDER "EUROPE IN THE 19TH CENTURY".

Bismarck was convinced that a basic change in central Europe could be carried out after the military defeat of Austria. He did not believe that Austria could be talked into renouncing her authority.

He believed his ends could be achieved only through blood and iron, but he did not intend more blood to flow than he considered strictly necessary. He knew that his opportunities and ability were great, but he knew, too, that even they had their limitations. If his wars were more consciously planned than most, they were also short and localised.

Aug 1914 - Aug 1918
Germany - France Ceded Alsace-Lorraine

SIXTH FORM GUIDELINES.

Germany under Bismarck.

Domestic Policy.

1. The constitution of the Empire. Significance of the position of Prussia.
2. What was Bismarck's internal policy?
3. Opposition to Bismarck (a) the Kulturkampf - religious or political opposition. How did it begin? What happened during the quarrel? How did it end? (b) the growth of Socialism within Germany.
4. Linked with (b) above - the Industrial Revolution in Germany. Social and economic changes 1870-1890.
5. The accession of William II.
6. An assessment of Bismarck as Imperial Chancellor.

Foreign Policy.

1. Results of the struggle for unification - relationship with France, Austria, Russia, Italy, Britain in 1871.
2. Bismarck's aims abroad.
3. His policy for achieving those aims.
4. The system of Alliances 1871-78.
5. The Congress of Berlin.
6. Alliances after C. of B. 1879-1890.
7. Assess Bismarck's career in the light of his Foreign Policy. What did he hope to achieve in 1871? What had he achieved by 1890? Would you say he was mainly successful or mainly a failure.

THE UNIFICATION OF GERMANY

Early Career - Bismarck (1815-98)

1847- became a deputy in the Prussian Assembly

1851-58 represented Prussia in the Bundestag, the Assembly of the German Confederation.

1859-62 Prussian Envoy to Russia, at St. Petersburg

1862 Prussian Envoy in Paris

1862 became Prime Minister and Minister for Foreign Affairs under King William I. of Prussia. He aimed to build up the Prussian Army and strengthen the king's personal rule.

Schleswig-Holstein, 1863-44

In the dispute over the duchies of Schleswig-Holstein he joined with Austria to champion the German Confederation against Denmark.

Austro-Prussian forces defeated the Danes and Prussia took over Schleswig. Austria took over Holstein.

The Austro-Prussian War, 1866

Bismarck persuaded France to remain neutral and won over Italy with the promise of Venetia. Prussian forces defeated the Austrians at Sadowa, and Prussia took over leadership of Germany. The North German Confederation was formed under Prussia. The South German States remained independent.

The Franco-Prussian War, 1870

The dispute over the succession to the Spanish throne together with Bismarck's alteration and publication of the Tirs Telegram brought war with France, who was isolated from Austria and Italy by Bismarck's diplomacy. French forces were crushed at Sedan and surrounded at Metz.

The German Empire, 1871

By the Treaty of Frankfurt (May 1871) France ceded Alsace-

Lorraine to Germany and agreed to pay an indemnity. The South German States joined the northern group under Prussia and the King of Prussia became Emperor of the new German Empire, with Bismarck as Chancellor (January 1871)

(8-38) ~~so much - now~~ also

named as follows ~~the president of the Reichstag~~ ~~and the Reichstag~~ ~~now begins~~

selected as president of the Reichstag ~~and the Reichstag~~
and as first minister ~~now begins~~

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~~now begins~~

~~it-odd, work - possible~~

but bring ~~now begins~~ to work ~~now begins~~ and work ~~now begins~~
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~~odd, odd work - result~~

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~~odd, odd work - result~~

GERMANY AFTER 1815

The peace settlement of 1815 accepted some of the changes which Napoleon had made in Germany during the French occupation. Whereas Italy had been called a geographical expression, the term applied to Germany was "divinely ordained confusion". When the French invaded Germany, there were 200 separate states and even that was an improvement on the 300 that had existed a century previously. Austria was the most influential state in Germany.

In the west the French had some influence over neighbouring states. The Austrian Archduke as Holy Roman Emperor, ruled Germany. In one way Napoleon can be called the creator of modern Germany. Firstly, he reduced the number of states from 200 to 39 and that automatically strengthened the survivors. In 1806 the Holy Roman Empire was abolished by Napoleon and in Germany a Confederation of States was set up dependent on France.

Secondly, the French occupation created and provoked a spirit of national feeling and that lead to anti-French sentiment, however this national fervour did not survive into the 1810s. The Quadruple Alliance allowed the Confederation of 39 States to continue. Those leaders who had been deposed by Napoleon were compensated, Austrian leadership was restored and Prussia was enlarged. The "Diet" sat at Frankfurt, it was made up of delegates from the 39 States, it could not pass legislation. There were several obstacles to German Unification:

1. The influence of Austria. Austria's policy was to keep Germany weak.
2. Exhaustion after the Napoleonic struggle.
3. Discord among the rulers. Some wanted to exclude Austria others didn't.
4. Only the intelligencia were concerned with unification, there was no popular movement for unity.
5. The difference between Republicans and Royalists
Dominating Germany after 1815 was Metternich. He was opposed to any movement which would diminish Austria's influence. Metternich continually complained about the German universities which he accused of

being subversive. In 1817 a festival was held in Wartburg to celebrate the Battle of Leipzig and the tercentenary of Martin Luther's defiance of the Pope. There was some anti-Austrian reaction during the festival. Two years later a writer called Kotzebue was murdered by a student, he may have been an Austrian spy. The incident was used by Metternich to bring in some repressive laws called "The Carlsbad Decrees". Censorship of all publications and stricter supervision of the universities.

Friedrich-Wilhelm III of Prussia tried to live up to a promise he had made during the struggle against Napoleon and grant some sort of constitution. Metternich realised that many German liberals looked to Prussia for leadership, so he forced the Prussian King to go back on his word. So for a generation after 1815 there was no serious outbreak of trouble in Germany, yet there was one development which had more significance in the long-term:-

Der Zollverein - the Customs Union

British exports were finding a large market on the Continent which threatened Prussian exports. Affected by this, Prussia set about breaking down internal barriers to ensure easier sale of her goods. In 1818 the government removed all provincial customs barriers, declaring a uniform tariff against the rest of the world. By 1826 several of the states under Prussia's control had joined the system, and soon a North German area of free-trade had grown up. Two other unions between Baden and Württemberg, and Hanover and Saxony, appeared. The merging of the unions in 1834 created "der Zollverein" covering 17 states and 26m people. As Austria refused to join, Prussia emerged as Germany's dominating state and economic leader.

The system of agriculture in Germany was one of small farms in the west and large estates in Prussia. Despite economic reforms, Germany continued to be an agrarian economy. In the mid-1840s the potato crop in Germany was largely destroyed by disease. Between 1844 and 1847 the average price of food rose by 50%. The price of potatoes and rye doubled.

Those employed in the domestic system got into debt and turned to begging or crime. About 500,000 emigrated to America. In 1847 there were hunger riots all over Germany and in Berlin the Army had to be called out to disperse rioters.

In 1840 Frederick William IV became King of Prussia. He was not as much under Metternich's influence. In 1847 he reacted to demands from Liberals and agreed to calling a united Diet in Berlin, however he told the meeting that he would go no further with constitutionalism and the Diet broke-up without achieving anything. The high food prices and middle-class unrest in 1848 led to the organising of an All-German Parliament in Frankfurt at the end of March. This was the Norparliament and it set about organising elections in Germany. When news of Metternich's dismissal reached Berlin there was a riot and Frederick William promised the rioters a constitution. The delegates were already being elected to the Norparliament and Frederick William declared that Prussia was to be merged into Germany.

In May 1848 the Frankfurt Parliament wanted a united Germany. It should have acted promptly while Austria and Prussia were unable to prevent it. Time was wasted in abstract debates.

Difficulties

What were to be the boundaries of a united Germany?

Who was to be the leader of the new Germany?

Decisions

To exclude Austria from Germany

To ask Frederick William to become head of the German Empire

As in Italy the revolutions of 1848-9 in Germany came to nothing. Pressure from the Russians and the Austrians forced the Prussians to make an agreement with the Austrians at Olmütz, which re-established Austrian predominance in the German Confederation (1850). During the 1850s relations between Austria and Prussia were lukewarm. In 1851 Bismarck was appointed Prussian representative in Frankfurt. In 1859

the Austrians were annoyed by Prussia's failure to mobilise to draw French forces away from Italy. German nationalists were impressed by the success of the Italians and in September 1859 a Nationalverein was formed by those seeking unification. In 1858 Frederick William was declared incapable of ruling and was replaced as Regent by his brother William.

William was determined that Prussia would not suffer another humiliation similar to that at Olmütz, so he determined to strengthen the Prussian Army. In mid-1859 when the Prussians had fought about driving the French, they found that their mobilisation plans were very slow and inefficient and that helped to underline the need for military reform. William appointed new men to the Cabinet in 1858, General von Rothen was made Minister for War, and General von Moltke was made Chief of the General Staff. Bismarck was appointed Prussian Ambassador in St. Petersburg, partly to get him out of the way, because he was considered by some to be a dangerous conservative.

Von Rothen wanted to extend conscription to improve the Army, but the Liberals in Parliament forced him to withdraw the plan, however they allowed the government to get additional money for the Army. Then in 1862, when more Liberals and Progressives were elected they refused to pass the Military Budget, it look as though William was going to be defeated and that meant that Parliament would take power away from the King.

By 1862 Bismarck had realised that there could be no return to the "old days" after the events of 1848. Thus, he believed that change was necessary. Learning from Louis Napoleon of France, he saw how to harness liberal ideas and majority rule to serve an authoritarian state. To counter Radicals in the towns, he manipulated the Conservative countryside. Also he learnt to use resounding foreign policy to distract the people at home. But his main aim was to preserve the Prussian monarchy.

When Bismarck became Minister President of Prussia, he decided to rule without the consent of Parliament. The Parliament protested that it was unconstitutional to govern without a budget and so

- 1 Change
- 2 Creation of State
3. Freedom
4. Government

The Schleswig-Holstein Question

Study the cartoon taken from Punch in 1866 which illustrates the bitterness between Austria and Prussia over the Schleswig-Holstein affair. Then answer the questions which follow.



- | | | | |
|--|-----|--|-----|
| 1 Who ruled Schleswig and Holstein before they came into Prussian hands? | (1) | 5 What is the significance of the bag marked Venetia? | (3) |
| 2 On what pretext did Austria and Prussia take over Schleswig and Holstein? | (2) | 6 Why is the Austrian figure portrayed as being on the verge of drawing his sword? | (2) |
| 3 Why is Prussia clinging to Schleswig and Holstein in 1866 and rejecting the claims of Austria? | (4) | 7 What is the significance of the card game which has been played on the drum? | (4) |
| 4 Why is Napoleon III pictured in the background of a quarrel between Austria and Prussia? | (3) | | |

Bismarck closed Parliament. There were many protests and William saw himself as another Louis XVI. The situation was saved by foreign affairs. There had been an attempt to settle the Schleswig-Holstein Problem in 1852, when Denmark was given control.

In 1863 the Danes tried to separate Schleswig from Holstein and annex it to Denmark permanently. This gave Bismarck the opportunity, to create a crisis abroad. He asked the Austrians for support and in 1864, a joint force restored semi-independence.

There are two significant points from this war:-

1. The Prussian Army proved to be very strong and that indicated the policies of Von Hoon and Von Moltke.

2. The Great Powers had no influence on this matter despite an international conference in London.

The war ended in October 1864, with a joint occupation by Austria and Prussia. The Treaty of Gastein 1865 allowed Austria to administer Holstein, and Prussia to administer Schleswig.

In January 1863 there was a revolt in the Russian part of Poland. Austria, Britain and France sympathised with the Poles and protested to Alexander II. Bismarck offered the Russians military support if they wanted it and they refused to allow Poles to escape into Prussia.

In his first three years, Bismarck had acquired territory, strengthened Prussia in relation to Austria, he had befriended Russia while Louis Napoleon had annoyed the Russians. He then thought he was in a strong enough position to be able to tackle Austria.

In October 1865 Bismarck and Napoleon III met at Biarritz, to agree to act against Austria independently from one another. Napoleon had two aims - to turn Austria out of Venetia and to get a bit of the Rhine. Bismarck encouraged the first aim to win French neutrality and Italian alliance, but obviously did not commit himself on the second issue. When the Prussian-Italian alliance concluded on 8th April 1866, Austria was isolated. Her weak military position (Prussia could be fully mobilized in three weeks, compared to Vienna's six weeks) further weakened her diplomatic position. With her war preparations to counter the Italian

that the appeared to be the aggressor. By June, the Austrian Army was mobilizing as Prussian troops poured over their borders. The Pruso-Austrian War had begun. SADORA

Vienna's allies in Germany of Hanover, Hesse-Cassel and Saxony were the first victims of Bismarck's war-machine, as Prussian troops invaded to neutralise these potential enemies. To prevent Austria from organising her defences Moltke risked crossing the Bohemian border with his three armies on the 23rd June. On the 3rd July, his centre army under the command of Crown Prince Frederick of Prussia, met Austrian forces under command of Benedek; at Königgrätz or Sadowa. The Austrians suffered a staggering defeat losing 44,000 men. This ended the Pruso-Austrian War of 1866.

The Prussian Generals and the King wanted to continue the war but Bismarck eventually persuaded them to agree with him. By the Treaty of Prague Austria was to pay a modest indemnity, to lose Venetia and Prussia formed the North German Confederation. Other German states including Baden and Bavaria, set up a separate Confederation. They promised to help Prussia if ~~they~~ were attacked. Bismarck did not want complete unification at that time. He had achieved his objective of excluding Austria from Germany. Napoleon had no objection to this as he thought that the South and West Germans would look to France to defend them against the N.G.C. For his neutralising Napoleon asked Bismarck for territory along the Rhine, that had been discussed at Biarritz, but now Bismarck appeared indignant. He published Napoleon's demands to show the French in a bad light. The French then asked in writing either Luxembourg or Belgium, for recognising a completely united Germany. Bismarck again refused, but this time he kept the documents secret. So apart from negotiating over Venetia, Napoleon had not achieved anything. Bismarck now ~~settled~~ made peace with Parliament.

In September 1866 a Bill of Indemnity was passed, retroactively legalising cost-expenditure from 1862. In return Bismarck admitted that he had been wrong and the Bill was passed by 230 to 75 votes.

This action caused all the major parties to divide between those
Bill of Mr. FRED BISMARCK OR ANY CHARGES OR
UNCONSTITUTIONALLY RUNNING GERMANY

Who supported or opposed Bismarck. His supporters formed a new party the National Liberals, while the Progressives were against him. Some Catholic deputies set up the Centre Party - a moderate party, and there was also one Social Democrat. Under the new N.C.C. Constitution, William I became President and Bismarck Chancellor. There was a Federal Council or "Bundesrat" made up of delegates from the various states or "Staaten". Prussia had 17 out of 43 votes. The next biggest vote was 4. The Lower House or "Reichstag" was elected by secret vote based on universal male suffrage - 237 out of 297 seats were Prussian. In many respects the German Empire of 1871 resembled the N.C.C. ~~in the~~
The first test of the N.C.C. came in 1870. Since 1866 relations between France + Prussia were tense, but when it was announced that a Hohenzollern Prince Leopold was to take over the Spanish throne tension was heightened. ^{FRANCE} Leopold feared Prussian encirclement and Leopold stepped down under diplomatic pressure. France delighted with this sent the infamous "Emo Telegram" demanding Prussia to guarantee the Hohenzollern's withdrawal and publicly apologise. Prussia did not give any ground.

War was declared on the 19th July 1870. by France on Prussia.
The South German States joined Prussia. France was invaded by three German armies and Alsace-Lorraine was captured in three weeks. A major French force was surrounded in Metz and surrendered on 27th October, that force was made up of 173,000 men. Before that on 2nd September, Napoleon III and an army of 81,000 had surrendered at Sedan. The German Army surrounded Paris. In January 1871 the German Empire was proclaimed in the Hall of Mirrors - in the palace at Versailles. In April an all-German constitution was drawn up. The South German States were included in the Federation, as well as Alsace-Lorraine.
The new Empire was dominated by Prussia.

The two most important figures were William and Bismarck - the Emperor and Chancellor. All hopes of the 1848 liberals had vanished. The most powerful continental state had been created by a combination of military strength and Realpolitik

OBSTACLES TO UNIF.

1. AUSTRIA - influence strong (no go to confederate states)
2. EXHAUSTION after N-Wars
3. DISCORD "Gordenschluss or klein..." Austria or not
4. INTELLIGENTSIA - no pop uni want
5. CONFLICT between Royalists + Republicans

D	E	C	I	A
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ISCH	ESS	IC	RA	A

GERMANY

1815 - 1848 → 1862

39 separate states (Nap reduced it from 200 to this during occup.)

DIET - Frankfurt with an Austrian president. Larger states had more votes than small ones.

Minor matters settled by a maj. vote, more important by 2/3 Maj.

All states independent but could not make treaties against one another + had to support the Confed in a war.

After 1815 intellectuals wanted a united Germany - nationalism + lingu

Opposed by:-

1. AUSTRIA - would lose non-German territories
2. PRUSSIA - not able to control Austria
3. RULERS of small states who wanted to hold their power.
- *4 METTERNICH - would not have Austria weakened.

PRussia
Austria
Metternich

1817 Wartburg Festival - (anniv of Luther's defiance of Pope) +
pro-unif speeches made ← March Kottzebue murdered by student
for Austrian agents

RATTIGE OF
LEIPZIG
CENTERS

August 1819 - Metternich's Carlsbad Decrees to stop German liberation

1. Inspection of univ. teachers
2. Expulsion of dissenters
3. Controls on student associations
4. Press Censorship

schools on univ.
exp. dissidents
C.I.E. Press censoring
impres
uni prof

Strictly enforced by harsh police. Many arrests + exiles.

Successful as Germany (1815-48) left uninfluenced by revols in Europe.

1830 - Mett strengthens C. Decrees Cos of Europe unrest

1. Political meetings + societies banned
2. Increased pol. control of univ.
3. Further controls on press

Zollverein 1818 - Prussia abolishes internal tariff and calls adjoining states to participate. Rival ZV in the South and later in Central Germany. Independent act from Austria.

~~1826~~ - N Germany one large free-trade area

~~1834~~ - N, S + C German ZVs merge covering 17 states + 26M people.
Prus main economic power now

1840s - agri-economy - potato crop destroyed by disease - food prices rise by 50% + rye up 100% - debt, crime + poverty - 1847 food riot all over Germany - Army out in Berlin.

* Fred-Will IV Prussian king allows Libs to set up a united Diet in 1847 in Berlin. But he couldn't grant a const. and it broke up.

March 1848 - Norparliament in Frankfurt - Mett dismissed + FWH pledges to merge a united Germany. Step towards unid

1848 - much fighting about + Austria made ~~Prussia~~ Prussia to sign an agreement reasserting their dominance in the Confed, at Olmütz (1850)

1851 - Bismarck Prussia's rep at Norparliament

1858 - FWK replaced by William.

1859 - Prussia ^{SLOW} ~~hope~~ to draw French away from Italy by Mobilising annoying Austria

- Nationalverein set up seeking unif. inspired by Italians

^{of Central Nat Socys}

William determined to sort Austria out. Mobilisation in 1859 was slow + ineff and he decided on military reform. 2 top generals in Cabinet - Von Rothen Min of War + Von Moltke as Chief of Staff. (Bismarck put out of way as envoy to St Petersburg - too right wing)

1862 - Progressives + liberals refuse to pass Military Budget b in defiance of King.

- Bismarck becomes Minister President + decides to rule without parliamentary consent

1862 - 1871

Bismarck's Philosophy:-

1. CHANGE was necessary + inevitable
2. MARCHES liberal ideas + control democracies to serve the State.
3. FOREIGN policy to control the people at home.
4. MANIPULATE rural conservatives against Mural radicals
— preservation of the Prussian military monarchy.

Massive protest (esp. from liberals) against BM, foreign affairs saved the day.

Schleswig-Holstein Crisis: 1852 Denmark given control of S-H, but in 1863 the Danes tried to annex S permanently separating the 2 states.
- BM used crisis + with Austrian help recapt S-H. Oct 1864 Tøf Knob gives PS AH. 2 important points from war

1. MILITARISM of Prussian Generals proved a success
2. NO INFLUENCE from the Great Powers in affair

1863 Jan - Revolt in Poland. - Austria, UK + France supported, but BM offered no support + closed Polish border. no occupiers.

Within a short time in office BM had

1. ACQUIRED territory
2. STRENGTHENED Prussia in relation to Austria
3. REFRINED the mighty Russia whilst N3 annoyed them.

Oct 1865 - BM + N3 meet at Biarritz. after independently against Austria. N3 agreed + wanted Austria out of Venetia + some Italian territory. BM wanted French neutrality + Italian Alliance (got April 1866).

Austria in a weak + isolated position (1866). After mobilising against Italy provided BM with excuse to attack in June.

Austrian allies in S Germany (Hanover, Hesse-Cassel + Saxony) were taken by Prussian Army. 3rd June Prussian Army smashes Austrian forces at Sadowa 44,000 Austrian killed. T. of Prague ends war. modest indemnity + loss of Venetia.



-S-

North German Confederation set up by Prussia. S agreed to support in war.

N3 believed the S + W Germans would look to France for support, + asked BM for Rhine territories from Biarritz in return for recognizing BM's authority over South.

BM published demands to show up France + denied N3 his claim. N3 now asked for Luxembourg or Belgium, but still no.

Leave with Parliament - Sept 1866 Bill of indemnity retroactivating govt legislation.

This freed BM from any charges of unconst. ruling. Split Major parties between pro-BM (Nat. Libs. + his party) and anti-BM (Progressives + Centre P.)

A new N&C Upper Ho (Bundestag) 17/43 seats Prussia {40%}

Lower Ho (Reichstag) 237/297 " " (80%)

FRANCO-PRUSSIAN WAR

1866 - FP relations became ^{territory?} tense. Spanish throne vacant + Moltkezollern Prince Leopold becomes candidate for throne. France fear Prussia encirclement make him step down under diplomatic pressure. N3 pleased with this result in - F/Mo Telegram wants public apology + guarantee that Moltkezollern's would not field another candidate. Annoyed BM edits then publishes telegram causing uproar in Prussia + France

19th July 1870 War declared. N&C + S German invade France.

3 weeks Alsace-Lorraine captured. 2nd Sept. N3 + 80,000 men surrendered at Sedan. Circular final French resistance crushed at Metz.

Jan 1871 - Second Reich proclaimed in Hall of Mirrors Versailles.

for a stronger Prussia he placed two high ranking generals - Von Roon and Von Moltke - in chief defence positions. In his policy he also got rid of Bismarck, whom he considered a dangerous conservative, by sending him to St Petersburg as Prussian Envoy.

In 1862 Bismarck returned home to become Minister President of Prussia. He saw that after the events of the 1840s change was needed and that there could be no "back to the old days." Thus he introduced not until 1871 universal manhood suffrage, but honored democracy to serve the State. To

content his people he used resounding foreign policy and to counter Radical threats in the town he mobilized the Conservative countryside. When Liberals refused to pass his Military Budget, he decided to rule without consent.

With began his conquests and eventual unification of Germany.

Did he plan this or in 1863 his ^{second} ~~fifth~~ test as leader came when Denmark was it asserted territorial claims by annexing Schleswig-Holstein. Bismarck improvised joined forces with Austria and soon a Pruso-Austrian army was response? Marching in to restore semi-independence. This ended when Prussia taking control of Schleswig and Austria took Holstein. The Prussian "War Machine" had also received its first testing and pleased with its performance, Bismarck was confident that he could now tackle Austria.

Scene N3 → This in 1865 he met Napoleon III at Biarritz to plan his ^{new strategy} campaign. They agreed that if they both acted independently against Austria, France would be ceded Venetia and disputed Rhine land territory.

Confident of Napoleons support, Bismarck went to war in June 1866. Once again he triumphed with the Austro-Prussian War ending in a crushing defeat for ^{Austria} Vienna at Sadowa.

Under the peace settlement at Prague, Venetia was ceded, Austria forced to pay an indemnity and the North German Confederation set up (NGC).

The Confederation or NGC consisted of all the Northern States and the military support of the South if needed. Napoleon demand his territory but was not granted it. Then he asked for Belgium or Luxembourg in return for recognizing a united Germany and again he was refused. This was the start of the decay in Franco-Prussian relations.

By September, the two houses of the NGC were dominated