The Age of Nationalism in Europe

Between 1850 and 1914, strong nation states developed in Germany and Italy. The nation states were built upon the principle of nationalism: the bonding of a people by a common language, history, traditions, beliefs, and goals. Nationalism originated with the French Revolution and with Napoleon, who helped to spread it throughout Europe. As it took hold in the emerging urban societies of the late nineteenth century, people began to transfer their allegiance from a monarch to a country and to put national interests above all considerations. Nationalism provided people with a sense of belonging and power, as well as a connection to the state, which had been disrupted by the Industrial Revolution. The Industrial Revolution had altered the relationship between the worker and the employer, and the allegiance that had once been directed to the employer was now refocused toward a unified state. The national states became a way of coping with the challenges of rapid economic and political changes. Strong leaders were able to direct this energy toward industrialization and modernization.

The revolutions of 1848 had not satisfied the demands of the nationalists in Italy and Germany. Camillo Benso, Count of Cavour, the moderate nationalist prime minister of Piedmont-Sardinia, realized that the independent Kingdom of Italy could be united into a single political state only by combining force with diplomacy. In Germany, Otto von Bismarck, chief minister of Prussia, skillfully fought three wars to unify Germany into one single nation under Prussian leadership. These men were the driving forces behind unification and were masters of the art of power politics, or realpolitik.

The spread of nationalism had negative as well as positive consequences, however. The emergence of a unified Germany threatened to upset the balance of power that had existed since the Congress of Vienna in 1815, and endangered the dominant role of Great Britain on the continent. In the multinational Austrian and Ottoman empires, nationalism had a divisive rather than a unifying effect. Competing nationalist factions in these empires promoted fragmentation, which sparked conflicts and bloodshed that dramatically affected Europe in the twentieth century.

Unification of Italy

Italy was not a united nation before 1861. Napoleon sparked dreams of national unity, but at the Congress of Vienna (see Chapter 5, “The Age of Revolution: The French Revolution and Napoleonic Era”), Prince Klemens von Metternich insisted that Italy be a geographic expression instead of a united nation. The Congress divided the country into the following separate states:

- The rich, northern industrialized provinces of Lombardy and Venetia were ruled by Austria.
- The duchies of Parma, Tuscany, and Modena were under local rulers but controlled by Austria.
- The Papal States in the middle were under Church control.
- The Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, also called Naples, in the southern half of the boot and the poorest section of the country, was under local rulers dominated by Austria.
- The Kingdom of Piedmont-Sardinia, consisting of the northwestern provinces of Nice, Savoy, and Piedmont, was the only independent state in Italy. (It bordered France and Switzerland and is referred to as Sardinia throughout this chapter.)

Between 1815 and 1848, the goal of a united Italy began to appeal to Italians. The Carbonari (chimney sweepers) was a secret society organized during the time of Napoleon I and was committed to establishing a united Italian republic. The Carbonari fermented uprisings in 1820, 1821, and 1831, but these revolts were crushed by Austria. After the failure of these revolutions, Italians began to lose faith in the Carbonari. By 1831, most of the Carbonari members had joined the Young Italy society, which was instrumental in provoking the uprisings of 1848 throughout Italy.
The revolution of 1848 in Italy also led to hostility with the pope. Prior to the revolution of 1848, Pope Pius IX (b. 1792, ruled 1846–1878) was considered a liberal pope who had expressed support for Italian unification. However, his initial support gave way to fear and hostility when someone assassinated his minister. The pope was forced to temporarily flee from Rome when a Republic was proclaimed. Pope Pius IX was restored to power when French military forces were sent to protect him; these troops remained there for the next twenty years. The pope would not only become an opponent of national unity, but also of modernization. In 1864, Pope Pius IX issued The Syllabus of Errors, in which he denounced rationalism, liberalism, and modern civilization. He insisted that Catholics should not be aligned with current ideas or progress.

Only in Sardinia did the revolutionists gain any ground when King Victor Emmanuel II (1820–1878) granted a liberal constitution to the people in March 1848, complete with elections and parliamentary control of taxes. Thus, to many Italians, Sardinia appeared to be the logical state to achieve the goal of Italian unity.
Italian Nationalists

Desiring to free Italy from Austrian control, the following men were instrumental in promoting *Il Risorgimento*, or Italian unification:

- **Giuseppe Mazzini** (1805–1872) was a writer, an orator, a former member of the Carbonari, and the founder of the Young Italy society in 1831, a non-secret society dedicated to the liberation of Italy. Mazzini is considered the soul of Italian unification. His speeches and pamphlets stirred up the passions of the people for a united Italy with a democratic republic in Italy. In his most widely read book, *The Duties of Man*, he placed a pure duty to the nation between duty to family and duty to God. The failure of the 1848 revolutions forced him to flee from Italy. He continued his fight for freedom from abroad.

- **Giuseppe Garibaldi** (1807–1882) was a friend of Mazzini and also supported a democratic republic. Garibaldi was a military leader who personified the romantic, revolutionary nationalism of Mazzini and had fought in the jungles of Uruguay in that country’s struggle for independence. Initially, he organized a guerrilla band of 1,000 *Red Shirts* that conquered Sicily in May 1860. The name “Red Shirts” came about because red was the symbol of revolution. Like Mazzini, Garibaldi supported a democratic republic for a united Italy. He is considered the military leader of Italian unification.

- **Camillo Cavour** (1810–1861) became prime minister of Piedmont-Sardinia in 1852. He strengthened the country by encouraging industrial development, building railroads, fostering education, and freeing the peasants. He sought to make Sardinia the model of a liberal, progressive constitutional government as a way to gain support. He understood that his goal of a united Italy could only be achieved by using force to get Austria out of northern Italy. However, Cavour realized that Sardinia under Victor Emmanuel II could never do it by itself. Cavour sought the support of the international community, especially Napoleon III of France, who believed in the principle of nationality as well as the expansion of France. From 1852 until his death in 1861, Cavour used power politics of war and diplomacy to achieve his goal of unifying Italy.

Steps to Italian Unity

In 1855, Sardinia, led by Cavour, allied with France and Great Britain in the Crimean War against Russia. Although Sardinia gained no territory from the war, Cavour established a rapport with France.

In 1858, Cavour negotiated a secret diplomatic alliance with Napoleon III to aid Sardinia in case Austria attacked it. In July 1859, Cavour goaded Austria into declaring war against Sardinia. With the assistance of Napoleon III, who had been promised Nice and Savoy, Austria was defeated. Napoleon III, however, did an about-face and pulled out of the war because of criticisms at home from French Catholics for supporting a war against Catholic Austria, as well as threats from the Prussians, who had mobilized and expressed sympathy for Austria. Furthermore, a detachment of French troops was still in Rome defending the pope, while the army fought Austria in the North. In July 1859, Napoleon III, without consulting Cavour, signed the Franco-Austria agreement that gave Lombardy to Piedmont but excluded Venetia. Cavour resigned but revolutions continued to spread across Italy. Tuscany, Modena, Parma, and Romagna drove out Austria. Cavour returned in early 1860 and after a plebiscite, he arranged for the annexation of these areas with Sardinia. The northern states, except Venezia, met at Turin, the Piedmontese capital, in 1860. Napoleon III recognized the expanded Kingdom of Sardinia-Piedmont in return for Sardinia’s transferring Nice and Savoy to France, where a plebiscite by the people supported annexation to France.

In May 1860, Garibaldi, with his band of 1,000 Red Shirts, landed on the shores of Sicily. Garibaldi’s guerrilla band captured the imagination of the Sicilian peasantry and with popular support was able to outwit the 20,000-man royal army. Within months, he had liberated the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies and Naples. He was prepared to attack Rome and the pope.
While Garibaldi conquered the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, Cavour shrewdly sent Sardinian troops into the Papal States (but not Rome). Rome was protected by French troops and Cavour did not want to antagonize Napoleon III. Fearing Garibaldi’s popular appeal, Cavour organized a plebiscite in the conquered territories; however, Garibaldi put aside his republican sentiments and did not oppose Cavour. The people of the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies voted to join Sardinia. In March 1861, Victor Emmanuel II was proclaimed the king of Italy—Cavour had succeeded.

The new Kingdom of Italy did not include Venetia or Rome. Venetia was ceded to Italy in 1866 and Rome was annexed in 1870 and designated as the capital of Italy in 1871. From 1870 to 1929, the pope adopted a policy of self-imprisonment on the Vatican grounds. In the Lateran Treaty of 1929, Italy recognized the existence of Vatican City, about a square mile in area, as an independent state and the pope as its sovereign leader. The treaty also made Catholicism the state religion in Italy and established a annual sum of money paid to the Vatican to compensate it for territorial losses. Italy was a parliamentary democracy but only a small minority of Italian males had the right to vote. Relations between the new government and the Church were strained. The pope had forbidden Catholics to participate in the new government, a ban that was not lifted until 1912.

Regional divisions still existed in Italy, despite unification. The industrial North had little in common with the agrarian South whose population was booming, and whose illiterate peasants were still dominated by large landowners. Living standards were low in the South and the government encouraged Italians to migrate to Canada, South America, and the United States. Italians entered the twentieth century with the hope of trying to play the role of a great world power, but the country’s dire economic position would not allow it to realize its dreams. This frustration would dominate Italian society for many years.

**Unification of Germany**

Nationalism in the German states developed gradually in the 1800s. Napoleon had unintentionally aided its growth by abolishing the Holy Roman Empire and reducing the more than 300 German states to about 100. The Congress of Vienna in 1815 reduced the number of German states even further to 39 and organized them into the German Confederation, a weak body dominated by Austria. The failure of the Confederation to provide effective leadership stirred German nationalists to seek unity by other means. German unification was also helped by the following:

- The formation of the Zollverein in 1834, a German customs union under the leadership of Prussia. All of the German states except Austria were joined into a single economic union, similar to the European Common Market, which promoted free trade among the member states and maintained high tariffs against non-member states.
- The Prussian aristocracy, or Junkers (meaning “young master” of a noble family), began to support the efforts of the Hohenzollerns, the ruling dynasty of Prussia, in their efforts to lead the struggle for German unification.

There were obstacles to German unification, however:

- Prussia, with its booming industrial economy and militaristic Junker class, aroused the opposition of Austria and other German states in the South. These southern German states were agricultural and Catholic, unlike the northern states, which were predominately Protestant and led by Prussia.
- France viewed a unified Germany as a potential threat to its leadership in Europe. France also believed that a divided Germany would make France more militarily secure.
German Nationalists

The unsuccessful revolts of 1848 and the rise of industrialism in Germany contributed to the vigorous growth of a nationalist movement that had the support of the growing middle class and city workers. The failure of the Frankfurt Assembly in 1848 also paved the way for unification under autocratic and antidemocratic leadership. The leaders of German unification were:

- **Otto von Bismarck** (1815–1898), who became chief minister of Prussia in 1862. He was a Junker and a member of the conservative landowning class. Bismarck despised democracy and claimed that Germany could only be united “by blood and iron,” not by speeches. Determined to avoid the blunders of 1848, Bismarck emphasized the importance of the military and was a master of power politics. He believed that the end justified the means, yet he was flexible and very pragmatic.

- **Wilhelm I** (ruled 1861–1888), who was the king of Prussia, and who became emperor in 1871. He fully supported Bismarck’s policies that led to the formation of a unified German Empire.

- **Helmuth von Moltke** (1800–1891), who was a Prussian general and chief of staff. He built up a strong army and navy that enabled Bismarck to achieve success.

Steps to German Unification

The Rise of Prussian Military Power

In 1861, the Prussian parliament refused to grant the military budget that Bismarck and Wilhelm I requested. Many in Parliament were liberals who wanted Parliament to have control over government policies. These men did not like professional armies and they considered the Prussian Junkers, from whom the official corps were recruited, as their main rivals to the state government. Wilhelm I wanted to increase the efficiency of the army and make it the strongest in the world. Bismarck, also known as the **Iron Chancellor**, secured funds by ignoring the constitution and the legislature. He collected taxes and ruled illegally until 1866 when the Prussian Parliament sanctioned his actions.

The Danish War (1864)

Denmark’s attempt to annex Schleswig-Holstein, which was largely inhabited by Germans, led to an alliance with Austria. Denmark was quickly defeated by Prussia, Holstein was given to Austria, and Schleswig was given to Prussia. Prussia and Austria disagreed over the administration of these provinces. This set the stage for the next step in Bismarck’s plan.

Austro-Prussian War (1866)

Austria and Prussia’s quarrels over the administration of Schleswig and Holstein included issues such as who should keep internal order and who should have the right of passage. Bismarck was able to provoke Austria into declaring war on Prussia. The Austro-Prussian War was also known as the **Seven Weeks’ War** because the efficient Prussian army, under General Helmuth von Moltke, quickly crushed the Austrian forces. Realizing that Prussia might need Austria for an inevitable conflict with France, Bismarck granted lenient peace terms. Austria had to pay a small indemnity and recognize Prussia’s dominance of the German states.

In 1867, Bismarck dissolved the German Confederation. Prussia and 21 other German states formed the **North German Confederation**, ruled by the Prussian king and a bicameral legislature. The bicameral legislature was composed of the lower house (the **Reichstag**), which represented all the people elected by universal male suffrage, and the upper house (the **Bundesrat**), which represented the German states. Bismarck, being practical and wanting to avoid any desire for revenge on the part of Austria, allowed Austria and the four southern states to remain independent. However, these four states were tied to Prussia by the Zollverein and by a defensive military alliance.
Franco-Prussian War (1870–1871)

Realizing that only a war could get the southern states to join the Northern Confederation, Bismarck provoked a war with France. The immediate cause was a dispute over the Spanish throne. When Prince Leopold, a relative of the Prussian king, became a candidate for the throne, Napoleon III protested. The French minister went to Ems to talk to Wilhelm I, who refused to settle the dispute. Wilhelm sent a telegram to Bismarck informing him of his decision, and Bismarck edited the telegraph so as to make it insulting to the French. Napoleon III declared war on Prussia in July 1870, and by September, the Emperor was captured and the French forces had been defeated. Unlike his treatment of Austria in the Austro-Prussian War, Bismarck treated France harshly, bringing Paris to submission by starving the city for over five months. By the Treaty of Frankfurt in May 1871, France ceded Alsace and Lorraine to Germany and agreed to pay a huge indemnity to Germany. The harshness of the treaty laid the foundation of hate and anger that would poison Franco-German relations for the next generation, and planted the seeds for World War I.

German Empire

As Bismarck expected, the four southern Catholic states, delighted by the victory over France, joined the Prussian-dominated North German Confederation. The German Empire was officially announced at Versailles in January 1871 with Bismarck as Chancellor and Wilhelm I as Emperor or Kaiser.

The German Empire was a federation of monarchies, a union of 25 German states, in which Prussia dominated. Although the Reichstag was popularly elected, real power remained in the hands of the Kaiser and the Chancellor. The Kaiser was not a figurehead, but instead commanded the armed forces, conducted foreign affairs, and appointed his choices to major government positions. The Chancellor (prime minister) and other cabinet members were responsible to the Kaiser, not the legislature.

In the German Empire, autocracy, not democracy, was the real form of government. As Chancellor, Bismarck pursued a policy that was conservative and nationalistic. In 1872, Bismarck launched his Kulturkampf, “the battle for civilization.” His goal was to make Catholics put loyalty to the state above the Church. Bismarck’s move against the Catholic Church backfired, however. Catholics rallied behind the Church, and the Catholic Center Party gained strength. Being a realist, Bismarck made peace with the Church. Bismarck also saw a threat to the new Germany in the growing power of the Socialists. In 1878, Bismarck tried to suppress the Socialists by securing laws that forbade Socialist meetings and subjected their leaders to arrest. His efforts failed and made the Socialists even more popular. Again, Bismarck changed his course, and between 1883 and 1889 secured the passage of social insurance programs, such as workmen's compensation, old age insurance, and sickness benefits that set an example for other industrial countries.

In 1888, Wilhelm II (b. 1859, ruled 1888–1918) became Kaiser. He was a strong defender of Divine Right and of autocracy in government. When he and Bismarck disagreed over policies in 1890, Bismarck was dismissed. Wilhelm II’s rule was autocratic and his nationalist program helped lead to World War I.

Crisis in the Multinational Empires

The Austrian-Hungarian Empire

The rising spirit of nationalism in Europe directly affected the Austrian Empire, which was a multinational empire consisting of over 20 million people. Although less than one-third were German speaking (the Austrians), they were the dominant nationality and held leading positions in the government. The Hapsburgs, the empire’s ruling family, were also Austrian. The other subjected nationalities in the empire included Hungarians (or Magyars), Czechs, Slovaks, Poles, Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes. Emperor Francis Joseph I (b. 1830, ruled 1848–1916) realized that the government had to make some reforms; throughout the 1850s, he tried hard to centralize the state and Germanize the language and culture of the different nationalities. Austria’s efforts to repress its nationalities depleted its military strength, however. Her humiliating defeat against France and Sardinia in 1859 forced her to give up territory in Italy, and her disastrous defeat in 1866 in the war with Prussia brought renewed pressure for reforms.
The Age of Nationalism in Europe

To buttress the empire, Austria was forced to grant equal partnership with the Hungarians. The Ausgleich, or Compromise of 1867, established the Dual Monarchy under which Austria and Hungary were separate states, each having its own parliament and legislature. The two states were joined together under the leadership of Francis Joseph I, who became the Emperor of Austria and King of Hungary. Each half of the empire agreed to deal with its own nationalities as it saw fit. The chief problem for the empire was the question of governing the many nationalities and the many different minorities. Croats and Romanians in the Hungarian domains were oppressed even more than before the Ausgleich. By 1900, nationalist discontent had left the government paralyzed, especially in the Balkan regions.

The Ottoman Empire

The Ottoman Empire also was multinational in scope, extending from Eastern Europe and the Balkans to North Africa and the Middle East. The empire included Arabs in the Middle East, southern Slavs, Albanians, Romanians, Bulgarians, and Greeks in the Balkans. In the Balkans, Serbs had won their autonomy in 1829 and the Greeks their independence in 1830.

Many Serbs and Greeks still lived in the Balkans under Ottoman control, however. Other nationalist groups, such as the Bulgarians and the Romanians, wanted their independence. These nationalist stirrings became tied up with the ambitions of European powers. European countries, such as Great Britain, France, and Russia, sought to benefit from the “sick man of Europe,” a term used because since the loss of Hungary in 1699, the Ottoman Empire had entered on a long process of territorial disintegration. Russia wanted the Dardanelles, which would provide access to the Mediterranean. Britain opposed these ambitions, while France, after gaining Algiers, sought additional territory.

The crumbling Ottoman Empire forced many moderate Ottoman statesmen to reform the empire on the European model. During the 1830s, reform, known as the Tanzimat or Reorganization, was introduced, calling for equality before the law for Jews, Muslims, and Christians, as well as modernizing the economy and the military. The Tanzimat reforms did not bring about revolutionary changes, however, nor did they halt the growth of nationalism. The adoption of western ideas, moreover, disturbed many conservative Muslims who saw them as a departure from Islamic tradition and holy laws. These Islamic conservatives became the supporters of Sultan Abdülhamid (b. 1842, ruled 1876–1909), who abandoned the European model and tried to rebuild the autocratic power of the earlier rulers. His repressive policies of intolerance towards minorities in the empire also led to the brutal genocide of the Armenians, a Christian people in the mountainous regions of the empire.

In 1878, when the Ottoman Empire was forced to grant independence to Serbia, Montenegro, Bulgaria, and Rumania, a group of reformers (mostly composed of army officers) known as the Young Turks insisted that the only way to save the empire was to change the government by establishing a constitutional monarchy and modernizing the military. In 1908, the Young Turks overthrew the Sultan and forced him to implement these reforms. Their efforts, however, were unable to stop the rising tide of nationalism in the Balkans that plunged Europe into war in 1914 and ultimately destroyed the remnants of the Ottoman Empire.
### Chronology of the Age of Nationalism in Europe

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1831</td>
<td>Young Italy society, a nationalist youth organization, is founded by Mazzini.</td>
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<td>1834</td>
<td>The Zollverein, a German customs union, is formed.</td>
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<td>1848</td>
<td>The Frankfurt Assembly meets in order to create a unified constitutional German state; revolutions break out across Italy.</td>
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<td>1848</td>
<td>Pope Pius IX flees Rome after one of his ministers is assassinated.</td>
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<td>1852</td>
<td>Camillo Benso, Count of Cavour, becomes prime minister of the Kingdom of Sardinia.</td>
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<td>1859</td>
<td>Cavour tricks Austria into declaring war upon Sardinia.</td>
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<td>1860</td>
<td>Giuseppe Garibaldi and his Red Shirts invade Sicily.</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>Italy becomes unified under Victor Emmanuel II, excluding Rome and Venetia.</td>
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<td>1862</td>
<td>Otto von Bismarck becomes chief minister of Prussia.</td>
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<td>1864</td>
<td>During the Danish War, Prussia allies with Austria to prevent Denmark from annexing Schleswig-Holstein.</td>
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<td>1864</td>
<td>Pope Pius IX issues <em>The Syllabus of Errors</em>, warning all Catholics against the dangers of liberalism.</td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Bismarck provokes Austria into fighting the Austro-Prussian War; Prussian troops easily win the Seven Weeks’ War; Venetia is added to the Kingdom of Italy.</td>
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<td>1867</td>
<td>The Ausgleich, a compromise establishing a dual monarchy in Austro-Hungary, is created.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1870–1871</td>
<td>The Franco-Prussian War begins and ends. The German Empire is established after the conclusion of a peace treaty with France.</td>
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<td>1872</td>
<td>Bismarck launches the Kulturkampf, an attack against Catholics.</td>
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<td>1878</td>
<td>The Congress of Berlin sets ground rules for imperialism and grants independence to Serbia, Montenegro, and Romania, weakening the Ottoman Empire.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1890</td>
<td>Bismarck is dismissed as chancellor.</td>
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<td>1890</td>
<td>The Young Turks organize to modernize the Ottoman Empire.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1908</td>
<td>The Young Turk Revolution takes place in the Ottoman Empire.</td>
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Sample Multiple-Choice Questions

1. Which of the Italian states was independent in 1850?
   A. The Kingdom of the Two Sicilies
   B. Piedmont-Sardinia
   C. Venetia
   D. Parma
   E. Papal States

2. Who is considered the architect and the diplomatic force behind Italian unification?
   A. Cavour
   B. Mazzini
   C. Garibaldi
   D. Victor Emmanuel II
   E. Gioberti

3. On which of the following did Mazzini and Garibaldi agree?
   A. United Italy should be a constitutional monarchy.
   B. United Italy should be a democratic republic.
   C. United Italy should be ruled by a dictatorship.
   D. The pope should be the leader of a united Italy.
   E. Foreign assistance was necessary to drive Austria from Italy.

4. The Zollverein (1834) was designed to do which of the following?
   A. Promote the interests of the Junkers.
   B. Create a uniform currency.
   C. Establish a large standing army.
   D. Set up a customs union to promote free trade.
   E. Set up an “all German Parliament.”

5. Which of the following presented the greatest obstacle to unification of Italy and Germany?
   A. The middle class
   B. The papacy
   C. The landed aristocracy of each country
   D. Great Britain
   E. Austria

6. Bismarck’s Kulturkampf in Germany was directed against
   A. liberals.
   B. the middle class.
   C. the Catholic Church.
   D. Socialists.
   E. Prussian landowners.

7. The Ausgleich was established by the Austrian government in 1867 to grant equal partnership to which of the following groups?
   A. Serbs
   B. Croats
   C. Magyars (Hungarians)
   D. Germans
   E. Italians

8. The “sick man of Europe,” which European powers wanted to preserve, referred to
   A. the Russian Empire.
   B. the Austrian Empire.
   C. the Second French Empire.
   D. the German Empire.
   E. the Ottoman Empire.
9. Which of the following statements is most accurate about German unification in 1871?
   A. Austria was the chief architect.
   B. France supported unification.
   C. Russia was instrumental in providing military assistance.
   D. German unification was accomplished by democratic and liberal methods.
   E. Prussia used military methods and autocratic rule to unite Germany.

10. After the revolutions of 1848, who became an obstacle to the unification of Italy?
    A. Bismarck of Prussia
    B. Napoleon III
    C. Pope Pius IX
    D. Giuseppe Garibaldi
    E. Victor Emmanuel II
1. **B.** Piedmont-Sardinia was the only independent Italian state in 1850. Piedmont-Sardinia took the lead in the process of unification. At the Congress of Vienna, Metternich was determined to keep Italy united merely as “a geographic expression.” The kingdoms of Parma and the Two Sicilies were under local rulers controlled by Austria. Austria annexed Venetia, and the Papal States were under Church control.

2. **A.** Cavour is considered the diplomatic force behind Italian unification. Cavour became prime minister of Piedmont-Sardinia in 1852. He realized that he could not unify northern Italy without the help of France. Through a series of diplomatic maneuvers, he secured the help of Napoleon III for the war against Austria and seized on the nationalist fever in central Italy to get Parma, Modena, and Tuscany to vote for annexation to Piedmont-Sardinia. Cavour was also shrewd in getting Garibaldi to offer his conquests to Victor Emmanuel II, securing the unification of northern and southern Italy. Mazzini is considered the soul of Italian unification. Mazzini was forced into exile after the failure of the revolutions in Italy after 1848. Garibaldi was a military leader. Victor Emmanuel II was the first king of a united Italy. Gioberti was a Catholic priest who wanted a federation of Italian states under the presidency of the pope.

3. **B.** Mazzini and Garibaldi believed that Italy should be united as a democratic republic. In 1831, Giuseppe Mazzini founded Young Italy. The goal of this society was to make Italy one free, independent, democratic republican nation.

   From 1848 to 1849, Mazzini helped set up a republic in Rome but French forces crushed it. Garibaldi, a disciple of Mazzini, also wanted to create a republic. Garibaldi defended Mazzini’s Roman Republic against the French in 1849. Neither Mazzini nor Garibaldi believed in a constitutional monarchy or a dictatorship. They were anticlerical and wanted to seize control of the Papal States. Neither of them thought foreign assistance was necessary to help drive Austria from Italy.

4. **D.** The Zollverein was a customs union designed to promote free trade among member nations. Under Prussian leadership, it was found to stimulate trade and increase revenues of member states. The Zollverein excluded Austria. The Junkers were the landowning aristocracy of Prussia. The Zollverein dealt only with free trade, not the establishment of a uniform currency, a large standing army, or an all-German Parliament.

5. **E.** Austria ruled the industrial provinces of Lombardy and Venetia. Italian nationalist leaders like Cavour and Garibaldi realized that a united Italy could only be achieved by forcing Austria out of northern Italy. In Germany, Austria resented the rise of Prussia as well as the efforts by Otto von Bismarck of Prussia to unify Germany. The Austro-Prussian War, or the Seven Weeks’ War, established dominance of Prussia among the German states. The middle class in Germany and Italy did not oppose unification. The papacy opposed unification in Italy but was not an important influence in Germany. The landed aristocracy of each country did not oppose unification because there was not any effort to change the social order in either country. Great Britain supported Italian unification and feared a strong Germany, but unlike France, did not make any effort to prevent unification. France believed that a united Germany would be a direct threat to its national interest.

6. **C.** Kulturkampf was directed against the Catholic Church. Bismarck had laws passed that gave the state the right to supervise Catholics and approve the appointment of priests. Bismarck did not attack the liberals whom he had already won over by his unification of Germany. Nor did he attack the middle class or the Prussian landowners who had supported him since he became chancellor. Bismarck did attack the Socialists but that was not known as Kulturkampf. Bismarck’s social welfare measures were an attempt to win the support of the working class from the Socialist Party.

7. **C.** The Ausgleich in 1867 granted equal partnership to the Magyars (Hungarians). Austria and Hungary were joined together under the leadership of Francis Joseph I. The Serbs, Croats, and Italians were different nationalities living in areas that were considered part of the Austrian-Hungarian Empire.
8. E. The term “sick man of Europe” was used to describe the feeble Ottoman Empire over the 100-year period from 1815 to 1914. In the 1800s, Europeans were eager to divide up the Ottoman lands. Russia wanted the Dardanelles, and Austria-Hungary took the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina, angering Serbia, which wanted the area. However, England and France sought to preserve the empire because they feared a general European war if the empire collapsed. The Ottoman Empire became a pawn among the powerful European nations. The Russian and Austrian empires had internal problems but each of them played an active role on the diplomatic scene in Europe during the nineteenth century. The Second French Empire of Napoleon III had a short life from 1852 to 1871. The German Empire began in 1871 and played an important role on the European continent from 1871 until 1918 when Germany was defeated in World War I.

9. E. In 1848, Otto von Bismarck, who was Prussia’s chief minister and later Chancellor from 1862 to 1871, believed that Germany could only be united by “Blood and Iron,” meaning military power. Bismarck did not believe in democracy. In a series of wars, he eliminated Austria as a factor in German unification and united north and south Germany by the Franco-Prussian War. Austria and France opposed unification of Germany. Austria feared a loss of influence and France wanted Germany as a weak, disunited neighbor. Russia played no major role in the unification of Germany. Bismarck skillfully used diplomacy to keep Russia friendly toward Germany. Bismarck rejected democracy and liberal methods to unite Germany.

10. C. After 1848, Pope Pius IX was an obstacle to the unification of Italy. Initially known as “the liberal pope,” he rejected unification after he was temporarily driven from Rome during the upheavals of 1848. For many generations, the papacy would oppose national unification as well as modern trends. In 1864, Pope Pius IX, in The Syllabus of Errors, denounced liberalism and modern civilization. Bismarck and Cavour were allied in the Seven Weeks’ War against Austria. By the peace treaty, Austria ceded Venetia to Italy. Napoleon III joined forces with Cavour to help Piedmont defeat Austria. Garibaldi secured the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies that helped unite northern and southern Italy. Victor Emmanuel II was the first king of united Italy.