In the 1800s, nationalism sparked revolutions across Europe. New nations, such as Germany and Italy, formed along cultural lines. Absolute monarchies fell. These nationalist revolutions forever changed the map of Europe—and Europe’s balance of power.

**Time Line**
- **1820**  
  - Mexico declares independence from Spain.
- **1840**  
  - The Zollverein union economically links the German states to one another through trade.
- **1848**  
  - In France, Louis Napoleon becomes president of the Second Republic.
- **1861**  
  - Italy unites as one nation after Italian states vote for unification.

**Social Studies Objectives**
4.03 Evaluate the growth of nationalism as a contributor to nineteenth century European revolutions in areas such as the Balkans, France, Germany, and Italy.

**Language Arts Objective**
3.03.2 Support an informed opinion using various types of evidence, such as experience or facts.
Watch the video to understand the impact of nationalism.

**History’s Impact video program**

1867 Austria and Hungary become two separate, equal states under the Dual Monarchy.

1869 Suez Canal opens in Egypt.

1901 Theodore Roosevelt becomes president of the United States.

1905 Revolution breaks out in Russia after troops kill some protesters on Bloody Sunday.

Analyzing Visuals: How can you tell that this painting commemorates an important event?

Starting Points In 1815 the Congress of Vienna divided Europe with little regard for the nationalities of the people who lived there. By the mid-1800s, nationalist movements arose which would lead to the breakup of empires and the creation of new nations. In Russia, a revolution threatened the power of the czar.

1. Analyze How would you describe the political geography of Germany and Italy at this time?

2. Predict Based on the map, what challenges do you think Italy would face as it unified?

Listen to History Go online to listen to an explanation of the starting points for this chapter.

go.hrw.com
Keyword: SHL NAT
How did the lyrics of an opera help unite all Italians? During the 1800s, most Italians were unhappy being part of the Austrian Empire. They were beginning to yearn to have their own nation, an Italian nation.

Someone had to put these yearnings into words, however, and that someone was Giuseppe Verdi, an Italian composer. In the lyrics to some of his operas, Verdi called for the Italian people to unite. Italians especially identified with his opera, *Nabucco*. It featured singers praising their homeland with the lyrics, “Go, settle on the cliffs and hills, where the sweet breezes bring the warm, soft fragrances of your native land... Oh my fatherland so beautiful and lost!” These words reminded Italians of the beauty of their own land and the fact that it was under Austria’s control.

Verdi’s music became a kind of national anthem for Italians seeking unification, inspiring them and urging them to act. The popularity of his music not only made Verdi an international star, but also helped spread the message of Italian nationalism.

Giuseppe Verdi conducts an orchestra in Paris in 1880.
Illustration of Giuseppe Verdi conducting in Paris, by Stefano Bianchetti, 1800s
Stirrings of Nationalism

The Italian Peninsula had not been unified since the fall of the Roman Empire. Although most people spoke the same language, the peninsula was divided into several competing states, each with its own government. When Napoleon invaded Italy, he united many of these states under one government, but that unification did not last.

After Napoleon was defeated, the Congress of Vienna split the Italian states apart once more. This time, however, a spirit of nationalism, or a devotion to one’s national group, was on the rise throughout Europe.

After the Congress of Vienna Prince Metternich of Austria had wanted the Congress of Vienna to maintain the old Europe with its old relationships. But just 15 years after the Congress met, a tired Metternich admitted that “the old Europe is nearing its end.” Despite his efforts to halt change, the old order had been destroyed beyond repair.

Nationalism was a growing force in Europe during the 1800s, fostered in part by some of the decisions made at the Congress of Vienna. The Congress had created political boundaries that ignored national groups, instead placing these groups under the control of large empires.

Some of Europe’s empires included people of different ethnic groups. For example, the Austrian Empire was home to Croats, Czechs, Germans, Hungarians, Italians, Poles, Serbs, Slovaks, and Slovenes. The Italians were split into three groups. The Congress of Vienna had placed much of northern Italy under Austrian rule, other Italian states under control of the Hapsburgs, and still others under control of a French ruler. Italian nationalism grew in opposition to these conditions.

Mazzini and Young Italy As Italian artists, writers, and thinkers became interested in celebrating Italy’s cultural traditions, other Italians in Austria formed secret societies to work for political change. They began plotting to overthrow the Austrian government in Italy.

In 1831 a popular writer launched a nationalist group called Young Italy to fight for unification of the separate Italian states. This writer, Giuseppe Mazzini, had been exiled because of his outspoken nationalism, but he smuggled his patriotic pamphlets into Italy. Mazzini believed that Europe needed to redraw the lines set by the Congress of Vienna in 1815.

HISTORY’S VOICES

“Europe no longer possesses unity of faith, of mission, or of aim . . . The question of nationality can only be resolved by destroying the treaties of 1815 and changing the map of Europe and its public law.”

—Giuseppe Mazzini, “On Nationality,” 1852
Mazzini’s Young Italy attracted tens of thousands of Italians to the cause of unification. Italians were ready to unite behind a strong nationalist leader.

**READING CHECK** Define What is nationalism?

**The Path Toward Unity**

As Italian nationalism grew, some Italians led unsuccessful rebellions. Then two men, Camillo di Cavour and Giuseppe Garibaldi, rose to lead a successful movement to unify Italy.

**Uprisings and Revolutions** Nationalist-inspired revolutions spread throughout Europe in 1848, and Italian nationalists led rebellions of their own. In some of the Italian states, citizens rebelled against Austrian rule. For example, the state of Piedmont declared war against Austria. That war lasted only a year and ended in Piedmont’s defeat.

In 1849 other revolutionaries seized Rome and set up a republic that Mazzini and two other leaders governed. French troops, however, helped the pope gain control of Rome again.

The only successful revolt was in Sardinia. The rebellion there forced the rulers of Sardinia to grant a new constitution, and Sardinia remained independent.

**Cavour and Sardinia** The failures of the rebellions of 1848 and 1849 did not seriously weaken the nationalist movement. One of the most important leaders of the Italian unification movement, Camillo di Cavour, emerged at this time.

Before the rebellions Cavour had expressed his belief that the Italian nationalist movement was strong enough to unite Italy, despite differences among the many Italian states.

**HISTORY’S VOICES**

“Nationalism has become general; it grows daily, and it has already grown strong enough to keep all parts of Italy united despite the differences that distinguish them.”

—Camillo di Cavour, 1846

Cavour founded a nationalist newspaper called *Il Risorgimento*, which means “resurgence” or “rebirth.” The movement for Italian unification and freedom from Austrian control also became known as *Il Risorgimento*.

In 1852 Cavour became prime minister of the independent Kingdom of Sardinia. He believed that a thriving economy was important in order for the nation of Italy to be reborn. Therefore, he worked to build the Sardinian economy. He also believed that Italy should be reborn as a monarchy.

By this time, Cavour was in a position to cultivate a powerful ally. He supported France in a war with Russia and gave France the provinces of Savoy and Nice. France, in turn, agreed to support Sardinia in its planned war against Austria. The plan worked. By 1860 the northern Italian states were liberated from the control of the Austrian Empire.

**READING CHECK** Identify Cause and Effect

How did Cavour help Sardinia break free from the Austrian Empire?

**Mazzini’s Young Italy**

In 1831 the Italian writer Giuseppe Mazzini founded a nationalist movement called Young Italy. In just a few years, Young Italy had about 60,000 members. This excerpt is from Mazzini’s instructions to new members of the movement:

“Young Italy is a brotherhood of Italians who believe in Progress and Duty, and are convinced that Italy is destined to become one nation—convinced also that she possesses sufficient strength within herself to become one, and that the ill success of her former efforts is to be attributed not to the weakness, but to the misdirection of the revolutionary elements within her—that the secret of force lies in constancy and unity of effort. They join this association in the firm intent of consecrating both thought and action to the great aim of reconstituting Italy as one independent sovereign nation of free men and equals.”

**PRIMARY SOURCES**

**Mazzini’s Young Italy**

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**SKILLS FOCUS**

**READING LIKE A HISTORIAN**

1. **Interpret** Why do you think Mazzini links a united Italy with “Progress and Duty”?

2. **Analyze Primary Sources** From reading this excerpt, what can you learn about Mazzini’s goal to unite Italy?

Garibaldi and the Red Shirts

Many Italians consider Cavour the “brain” of Italian unification and Mazzini its “heart.” Equally important was Giuseppe Garibaldi (gar-uh-bawl-dee), whom many have called the “sword” of Italy.

Garibaldi joined Mazzini’s Young Italy movement in 1833. Because of his nationalist activities, however, he was forced to flee from Italy twice. While living in exile in South America, he learned the techniques of guerrilla warfare. He then returned to Italy several times to continue the fight to free Italy from Austrian domination.

Garibaldi returned to Italy for good in 1854. Five years later, Cavour asked him to lead part of the Sardinian army in the war against Austria. Garibaldi accepted. After a few months of bitter fighting, the Austrians agreed to give up Lombardy, while keeping Venetia.

The Red Shirts Garibaldi and his followers, known as the Red Shirts because of their colorful uniforms, next turned their attentions to the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies. Using tactics of guerrilla warfare, Garibaldi and the Red Shirts gained control of the island of Sicily by July 1860. Then they crossed to the mainland. Meanwhile, Cavour had annexed territory in central Italy. In September, Sardinian troops helped Garibaldi conquer Naples. The Red Shirts now controlled the southern part of the Italian peninsula.

Unification Though he favored a republic, Garibaldi offered the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies to King Victor Emmanuel of Sardinia. The territories throughout Italy held elections in 1861, and all agreed to unification. The only holdouts were Venetia, which still belonged to Austria, and the Papal States, where French troops supported the pope.

The Unification of Italy, 1858–1870

1. Movement In what city did Garibaldi end his military campaign through Italy?
2. Regions Which territory did Italy gain from Austria in 1866?

In 1860, on the island of Sicily, Garibaldi led the Red Shirts to victory against foreign troops in the Battle of Catalafimi.
Those territories, however, did not hold out for long. In 1866 war broke out between Austria and Prussia. The Italians sided with the Prussians, and after Austria’s defeat, Prussia gave Venetia to Italy. In 1870 war between France and Prussia forced the French to withdraw their troops from Rome. Italian troops entered Rome later that year, thus completing the unification of Italy under King Victor Emmanuel.

**Find the Main Idea** What actions led Garibaldi to be called the "sword" of Italian unification?

**Challenges After Unification**

In the years after unification, Italy faced many new challenges. Although politically unified, Italy had to deal with a number of social and economic problems. During the late 1800s, the new nation would take steps to catch up with the rest of Europe in industrialization, foreign policy, and social reform.

**Social and Economic Problems**

Although Italy was now politically united, strong regional differences still led to a lack of unity among many Italians. For example, some southern Italians resented being governed by Rome, which became the new capital of Italy in 1871. Meanwhile, the Catholic Church did not recognize Italy as a legitimate nation, and the pope prohibited Catholics from voting.

Widespread poverty was a serious problem. Unemployment and rising taxes often led to rioting in the towns, and violence was common. Poverty also led many Italians to emigrate. In the 1880s, large numbers of Italians began to leave Italy, many headed for the Americas. By 1920, some 4.5 million Italians had emigrated.

**Reforms**

The Italian government soon began to address some of the problems facing the new nation. Voting reform was a major priority. At the time of unification, only the wealthiest Italian men could vote. By the late 1800s, most adult male taxpayers could vote.

As Italy industrialized, particularly in the north, the government passed reforms, including laws limiting working hours and prohibiting child labor. The government also encouraged the building of transportation and water systems to improve cities and encourage industry.

**A New Foreign Policy**

In 1882 Italy formed a military alliance with Austria-Hungary and Germany. The three nations agreed to defend each other against any possible attack. This mutual arrangement was known as the Triple Alliance. As you will read in the next chapters, this alliance and others combined with political developments brought most of Europe to war in 1914.

Italy also tried to build an empire. It tried to gain control over Ethiopia, but failed after being defeated by a larger Ethiopian army in 1896. Then, in 1911, Italy declared war on the Ottoman empire. As a result, Italy gained territory in Africa.

**Summarize** What problems did Italy face after unification?

**Reviewing Ideas, Terms, and People**

1. **a. Describe** What was Young Italy?
   **b. Analyze** Why did Mazzini think the territory lines set by the Congress of Vienna needed to be changed?
   **c. Elaborate** What effect did the Congress of Vienna have on the development of nationalism in Italy?

2. **a. Recall** Who was Camillo di Cavour?
   **b. Interpret** Why did Cavour form an alliance with France?
   **c. Develop** What role could a newspaper like Il Risorgimento play in the Italian unification movement?

3. **a. Identify** Who were the Red Shirts?
   **b. Interpret** Given that he favored a republic, why do you think Garibaldi handed over the southern states to Victor Emmanuel?

4. **a. Recall** Name two problems Italy faced after unification.
   **b. Contrast** How did social reform in Italy compare to reforms in Great Britain and France during the same period?

**Critical Thinking**

5. **Identify Cause and Effect** Use your notes from the section and a graphic organizer like this one to list causes and effects of Italian unification. Which effects were positive? Which were negative?

6. **Persuasion** Suppose you are Giuseppe Garibaldi. Write a letter to Camillo di Cavour, explaining why you believe a unified Italy would be better off as a republic than a monarchy.
Main Idea
In the late 1800s, Otto von Bismarck transformed Germany from a loose confederation of separate states into a powerful empire.

Reading Focus
1. What steps did Germany take toward unification?
2. What was Bismarck’s plan for Germany and how did he hope to achieve it?
3. How did wars lead to the unification of a German Empire?
4. In what ways did Germany grow and change after unification?

Key Terms and People
- Frederick Wilhelm IV
- Zollverein
- Otto von Bismarck
- Wilhelm I
- realpolitik
- Austro-Prussian War
- Franco-Prussian War

How did a revolution help lead to the unification of Germany? In 1848 revolution spread through Europe. At this time, German liberals also revolted. When the people of Berlin heard that Metternich had been ousted in Vienna, they encircled the royal palace to hear the response of the Prussian king, Frederick Wilhelm IV. The crowd erupted when edgy soldiers accidentally fired two shots. They felt tricked that a peaceful celebration had turned into a confrontation. To fight the royal soldiers, the Berliners set up wooden barricades, which forced the soldiers to retreat. Hundreds died in the two days of fighting.

Soon after the revolt, the king gave in to nationalist demands and proclaimed, “From now on Prussia merges with Germany!” However, the king quickly reasserted his power. Even though the revolution failed, German unification would eventually be accomplished with new policies enacted by a king and his powerful chancellor.

Barricades in Berlin

In 1848 Berliners fight Prussian troops in the city’s streets.
Steps Toward Unification

Like Italy, Germany was not a unified nation in 1848. However, the patchwork of independent German states did have a common language and culture. In addition, Napoleon had nurtured nationalism when he united the German states into a confederation. Following Napoleon’s defeat in 1815, the leaders at the Congress of Vienna retained that organization but renamed it the German Confederation. Thus, a group of 39 separate states with a common language and culture was poised for the movement to unite.

Revolution in Prussia

As revolution swept through Europe in 1848, German liberals in the state of Prussia also took the opportunity to revolt. Though liberals differed over whether to support a republic or a constitutional monarchy, they agreed that German unity would promote individual rights and liberal reforms.

Facing calls for increased democracy, Prussian king Frederick Wilhelm IV quickly promised a constitution and other reforms. These changes did not become reality, however. By the end of 1848, the king went back on many of his promises. “Now I can be honest again,” he told one of his ambassadors. He banned publications and organizations that supported democracy, and the constitution was never written.

Economic and Cultural Unity

Another early step toward creating a unified Germany was an economic alliance between some of the German states. Created in 1834, the Zollverein, (tsohl-fer-yn) or customs union, allowed for the removal of tariffs, or taxes, on products traded between the German states. The Zollverein inspired businesspeople to support unification and encouraged the growth of railroads connecting the German states. It also helped join Germans economically, if not yet politically, to each other. By 1844 the Zollverein included almost all of the German states.

As the German economy was growing, the sense of a distinctly German culture was growing. For example, German composers such as Richard Wagner wrote music glorifying German myths and traditions.

READING CHECK  Identify What was the outcome of the revolution of 1848 in Prussia?

Steps to Unification in Germany

In the mid-1800s many Germans were driven by nationalistic feelings to support a unified Germany.

The Revolution of 1848
- Inspired by revolution in France and a desire for a united Germany, Germans revolt against the Prussian king.

The Promise of Reforms
- At first, the Prussian king Frederick Wilhelm IV agrees to bring about democratic reforms, but later breaks his promises.

The Zollverein
- Germans create an economic alliance between the German states, the Zollverein, which promotes trade and a strong economy.

German Unification
- Otto von Bismarck leads Germany towards unification using his political philosophy of realpolitik, or “the politics of reality.”

Bismarck’s Plan for Germany

Otto von Bismarck, a conservative and a politician, was the leading force behind German unification. He became prominent in Prussian politics in 1847 when he gave a strongly conservative speech at the National Assembly. In 1862 Wilhelm I, the new Prussian king, chose Bismarck as Prussia’s prime minister.

Bismarck’s Philosophy

Bismarck was not a liberal like the people involved in the revolution. Instead, he was a conservative who supported the king of Prussia and believed that it was Prussia’s destiny to lead the German people to unification. Bismarck’s philosophy about government was practical rather than idealistic. Practicing what would later be known as realpolitik (ray-ahl-poh-lyuh-TEHK), he developed policies based on the interests of Prussia.

“Blood and Iron”

Bismarck’s politics of reality were soon made evident in his push to increase the power of the Prussian military. In a speech to the Prussian parliament, he argued that German unity would not be won by speeches and majority vote but by “blood and iron.” When the liberal parliament would not approve funds to expand the military, he dismissed the assembly and collected the taxes anyway. He then built the Prussian army into a great war machine, one that could use force to unite Germany.
Bismarck's First War A disagreement over two border states, called Schleswig and Holstein, eventually gave Bismarck a way to start a war with Denmark. In 1864 Bismarck formed a military alliance with Austria against Denmark, believing both Schleswig and Holstein should be controlled by the German Confederation. After a brief fight, Denmark gave the territory to Austria and Prussia. Prussia would control Schleswig, and Austria would control Holstein. However, this meant that Austria now held a small bit of territory inside Prussia's borders. Bismarck knew that if he were to unite Germany, war with Austria was inevitable.

Describe What was the plan of Bismarck to unite Germany?

Unification and Empire

Bismarck could not increase Prussia's power as long as Austria was in the way. Austria was a leader in the German Confederation and it had influence over some of the German states that opposed Prussia's leadership. With two short wars, Bismarck moved Austria out of the way and established a unified German Empire.

The Austro-Prussian War To prepare for the war with Austria that he knew he had to wage and win, Bismarck worked behind the scenes. He met with the Italian prime minister and promised that, in exchange for support against Austria, Italy could have the territory of Venetia. He also persuaded Napoleon III to keep France neutral if war broke out between the German states. Then, to provoke Austria, Bismarck sent Prussian troops into the Austrian state of Holstein. In response, Austria declared war against Prussia.

The skirmish in Holstein was just what the Prussian leaders needed to gain support for the war with Austria. In an address to the Prussian people, king Wilhelm I blamed Austria for starting the war. His address clearly appealed to the people's sense of nationalism.

The war between Prussia and Austria unfolded just as the king and Bismarck planned. The highly skilled and well-equipped Prussian army defeated the Austrians in only seven weeks. The treaty ending the Austro-Prussian War dissolved the German Confederation and forced Austria to surrender the state of Holstein. When several other states in the North united with Prussia, only three states in the South remained outside Prussian control.

Together, Bismarck and Wilhelm used the victory to rally other German states around Prussia. The German Confederation, which had joined Austria to Prussia, had been destroyed by the war. By joining together the North German states, the Austro-Prussian War was the first step toward German unification.

The Franco-Prussian War Despite the victory in the Austro-Prussian War, it would take another war to create a unified Germany. The southern German states were still not included in the North German Confederation.

In 1870 a conflict was brewing with France over the disputed territory of Alsace and Lorraine. These provinces had been a part of the Holy Roman Empire, which included Prussia. The issue over Alsace and Lorraine sparked feelings of nationalism in the south German states. As a result, these states supported Prussia and the north German states in a war against France. In 1871 with the southern German states’ help, Bismarck secured a Prussian victory in the Franco-Prussian War. Prussia won the war, and the peace treaty declared the unification of Germany.

Creating the German Empire The peace treaty following the Franco-Prussian War had far-reaching consequences. For example, the victory established a unified German empire.

**Reading Skills**

**Understanding Word Origins** If you know that the term *confederate* comes from the Latin word *confederare* meaning "to unite by a league," how would you define *confederation*?
Representatives of the allied German states met at Versailles, near Paris. The representatives proclaimed Wilhelm I the first kaiser, or emperor, of the German Empire. Wilhelm then appointed Bismarck as his first chancellor. The German victory also significantly changed the balance of power in Europe. With Napoleon III gone, France was no longer as powerful. As Germany grew economically, a new empire rose in power.

**The Empire’s Growth and Change**

In the years after 1871, Germany prospered. Under the leadership of Wilhelm I and Bismarck, Germany developed into a strong empire. This period was known as the Second Reich, or empire, because Germans considered the Holy Roman Empire to be the First Reich.

**A New Government** Germany’s 25 separate states wanted to retain some power. As a result, the government of the new German empire took a federalist form. Similar to the United States government, power was shared between state and national governments. Wilhelm I led the government. According to the law, all men in Germany over the age of 25 could vote. But in reality the government placed many restrictions on voters. Political parties also developed.

**The Government and the Church**

Bismarck also believed that the Roman Catholic Church posed a threat to his government. He believed the government and not the church should control aspects of culture such as education. Bismarck worked to pass laws limiting the influence of the Catholic Church in Germany. This struggle between the government and the church was known as Kulturkampf, which in German means “the struggle for culture.”

**Economic Growth** After unification Germany experienced a time of economic growth.
France had paid reparations, or money for damages, to Germany after the Franco-Prussian War. German leaders used some of the money to build railroads to link the German states. Other funds helped build German businesses. Over the next half century, the new empire quickly caught up with the other industrial countries of Europe. Coal mines and steel factories flourished in Germany’s major cities.

The Path to Social Reforms  As in other nations, industrialization had its critics in Germany. German socialists protested against harsh factory conditions and called for state control of all industries. In the late 1870s Bismarck blamed socialists for two assassination attempts made on the emperor.

Even as Bismarck tried to destroy socialism, he also sought to reduce its appeal among the German people by enacting his own reforms. Beginning in the early 1880s, Bismarck pushed through legislation that provided benefits for health, accidents, old age, and disability.

Bismarck and Wilhelm II  After unification, Bismarck did not want to expand Germany’s borders any further. He did, however, believe that France remained a threat. To counteract that threat, he entered a number of alliances with other European nations, including Austria-Hungary, Italy, and Russia. These nations agreed to help protect one another from a possible attack.

In 1888 Wilhelm I’s grandson became kaiser of Germany. After a disagreement, the new kaiser, Wilhelm II, fired Bismarck as prime minister. In the early 1900s, Wilhelm II continued to make alliances with other European nations and build up the most powerful military forces in Europe.

Describe how did Germany change both economically and politically in the years following unification?

**SECTION 2 ASSESSMENT**

**Reviewing Ideas, Terms, and People**

1. a. **Define** What was the Zollverein?
   b. **Explain** What did German liberals in Prussia want?

2. a. **Identify** Who was Otto von Bismarck?
   b. **Explain** Why were the states of Schleswig and Holstein significant?
   c. **Evaluate** In your opinion, what are the pros and cons of the policy of realpolitik? List two pros and two cons.

3. a. **Identify** What was the North German Confederation?
   b. **Explain** How did the Franco-Prussian War affect German unification?

4. a. **Identify** What was the structure of government in the new German Empire?
   b. **Summarize** How did Bismarck struggle with the church?
   c. **Elaborate** Why do you think Germany’s economy grew so quickly in the years after unification?

**Critical Thinking**

5. **Identify Cause and Effect** Use your notes from this section and a graphic organizer like the one below to list causes and effects of German unification.

   ![Graphic Organizer]

   - Causes
   - German Unification
   - Effects

**Focus on Speaking**

6. **Exposition** Imagine you are a reporter and are about to interview Otto von Bismarck. Write three short questions you will ask him about German unification.
How did a British woman revolutionize the field of nursing? The Crimean War, fought in the 1850s between Russia on one side and Great Britain, France, the Ottoman Empire, and Sardinia on the other, has been called “the most unnecessary war in history.” Fierce battles took a heavy toll on soldiers. In addition, conditions in the crowded and filthy field hospitals caused diseases to spread. Florence Nightingale, a British nurse, described one hospital by stating, “Civilians have little idea, from reading the newspapers, of the horror and misery in a military hospital of operating upon these dying exhausted men . . . We have now 4 miles of beds and not 18 inches apart.”

When she arrived at the war hospitals in 1854, Nightingale immediately took charge. She had the hospital wards cleaned to control the spread of disease. She obtained food, eating utensils, clothes, and bedding for wounded soldiers. These supplies, and the care given by the nurses, helped improve morale and reduce the mortality rate.

After the war, Nightingale helped set up training programs for nurses and worked to reform British military hospitals. She received the British Order of Merit for her dedication to nursing.
The Austrian Empire

The Hapsburg family, rulers of the Austrian Empire at the beginning of the 1800s, had controlled much of the region for nearly four centuries. When the Congress of Vienna met after the fall of Napoleon, Prince Metternich of Austria was a powerful voice in determining how to restore the balance of power in Europe. Nevertheless, this powerful empire would not remain intact through the remainder of the 1800s.

Resistance to Change After the Congress of Vienna, the Austrian emperor, Franz I, and his foreign minister, Prince Metternich, worked together to maintain the power of the Austrian Empire and the Hapsburg monarchy. They were determined to hold onto the empire and resist liberal ideas and movements that might endanger it.

As revolts spread through other parts of Europe, Metternich clamped down on the universities, accusing them of creating “a whole generation of revolutionaries.” As leader of the German Confederation, he called a meeting at Carlsbad and helped pass the Carlsbad Decrees. These decrees, or laws, prohibited any reforms that conflicted with absolute monarchy. In addition, the decrees established censorship of newspapers and created a secret police force that spied on students who were suspected of liberal or nationalist revolutionary activities.

In addition to creating these restrictive laws for the empire, Metternich formed alliances with other European powers that were trying to prevent nationalist revolutions. In 1820 he and the leaders of these powers convened a meeting called the Congress of Troppau. At that Congress, the leaders agreed to provide military intervention to support governments against internal revolution.

Turmoil in Europe and Austria Metternich was able to protect the power of the Austrian Empire for a few years. But events in Europe and changes within the empire itself eventually caught up with him.

Revolutions in France, Italy, and the German states set off revolts in the Austrian Empire. People of many different nationalities living within the Austrian Empire wanted independence. In Vienna, demonstrators and the army clashed in the streets. A frightened emperor Ferdinand ordered Metternich to resign, and Metternich fled Austria. Later in 1848 Ferdinand abdicated, and the throne went to his young nephew, Franz Joseph I.

Response to Revolution During his long reign, Franz Joseph I ruled over an unstable empire. In 1848 the Hungarian Magyars rebelled against Austrian rule, and for a long time it looked as though they would win their independence. However, czar Nicholas I of Russia sent Russian troops to help Austria crush the revolt. Franz Joseph I then abolished the liberal reforms enacted in 1848, but he could not stamp out nationalism in his multiethnic empire. Franz Joseph I revoked the new constitution. The revolutions had been stopped, at least for a while.

The Dual Monarchy

Although Franz Joseph I abolished the liberal reforms of 1848 and restored the power of the monarchy, he could not stop the nationalist movement. Change had to come to the Austrian Empire. It came in the form of the Dual Monarchy, also known as Austria-Hungary.

Forming a New Government As the nationalist movement continued in Europe, Austria lost the province of Lombardy to Italy in 1859. In 1866 Austria’s defeat in the war with Prussia brought new demands from the Hungarians. Finally, Franz Joseph I and leaders of the Hungarian nationalist movement reached an agreement. Known as the Compromise of 1867, this agreement created the dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary.

Under the dual monarchy, Austria and Hungary became two separate, equal states. They would have one ruler, Franz Joseph I, whose title would be emperor of Austria and king of Hungary. Austria and Hungary shared the ministries of war, finance, and foreign affairs, but each had its own parliament.

An Uneven Solution The Dual Monarchy lasted for about 50 years, until 1918. In addition to easing some of the pressure for nationalism, the Dual Monarchy had other benefits.
For example, there were some economic advantages to the arrangement. Hungary, mostly rural and agricultural, could provide raw materials and food to Austria. Austria, which was more industrialized, could in turn provide industrial products to Hungary.

The unrest in the empire did not go away, however. Divisions remained among the various nationalities. Austrian Germans and Hungarian Magyars did not speak the same language. Also, ethnic minorities received little benefit from the Dual Monarchy and continued to seek self-government.

**The Ottoman Empire**

Like the Austrian Empire, the Ottoman Empire had existed for centuries and controlled a vast multiethnic territory. Within its borders were many different religious and ethnic groups, including Greeks, Bulgarians, Turks, Kurds, Arabs, and Jews. This empire had been in decline since the late 1600s, and it could not survive the winds of change blowing across Europe in the 1800s.

**The Eastern Question** In the early 1800s, it became clear that the Ottoman Empire could no longer defend itself against independence movements or against external threats.
By 1830, for example, Greece had gained independence. Russia had forced the Ottomans to accept Russian control of territory in the Caucasus and self-rule for Serbia.

This situation greatly worried European powers and created what they called “The Eastern Question.” What would happen if the Ottoman Empire collapsed? In particular, what would happen to the city of Constantinople? Russia wanted to control that city so that it would have access to the Mediterranean. To keep Russia from gaining control of Constantinople, the French and British propped up the Ottoman Empire.

The Crimea The situation between the Ottomans and Europeans grew worse in the 1850s with a dispute over the Holy Land. The Ottomans, who controlled the region, gave Roman Catholics the control of the holy places in Palestine. When the Ottomans denied Orthodox Christians these same rights, the Russians invaded Ottoman territories. In addition, Great Britain saw Russia’s move as a potential threat against its interests in India and joined in an alliance with France. Great Britain and France then joined with the Ottoman Empire in a war against Russia.

This war, most of which was fought in the Russian Crimea on the shores of the Black Sea, accomplished almost nothing. The Crimean War lasted about two years, ended in a stalemate, and resulted in approximately half a million deaths. Many of those deaths were the result of disease and crowded, filthy conditions in field hospitals. British nurse, Florence Nightingale, is well-known for her work to save lives during the Crimean War.

The Balkans The Balkans were another hot spot in the Ottoman Empire. The rise of nationalism in Europe had created discontent among the diverse ethnic groups in the region. Serbs, Romanians, Bulgarians, Albanians, and Greeks all wanted independence and their own nation state. These conditions, along with the competing interests of several European countries, led to a series of conflicts and wars in the 1800s and early 1900s.

Russia was involved in several of these conflicts in the Balkans. The Russians saw the Balkans as a route to the Mediterranean, which they wanted to gain. Great Britain and France were looking after their own interests in the region, so they sometimes sided with the Russians and sometimes sided with the Ottomans.
Germany and Austria wanted to secure Austrian control over the various ethnic groups. When all was said and done, the **Balkan Wars** had cost the Ottoman Empire most of its land in Europe and the Balkan issues were far from settled.

With Russian troops almost at the gates of Constantinople, however, the other European powers became alarmed. In 1878 Prussian chancellor Bismarck hosted the Congress of Berlin to discuss the situation. In fact, the real purpose of the Congress was to overturn the gains Russia had made against the Ottomans.

The Congress of Berlin also gave Austria-Hungary land in the Balkans with no consideration of ethnic or national ties. As a result, conflicts between ethnic groups would erupt in the region for many years to come.

**Political Reform** One conflict occurred in 1908 when a nationalist group called the **Young Turks** began a revolution. The Young Turks were fighting against the absolute power of the sultan, the ruler of the Ottoman Empire. Mainly educated men, the Young Turks were devoted to restoring the constitution. Their revolution helped ensure a more representative, liberal government. Education improved, and the government took steps to provide some individual liberties.

**READIMG CHECK**

**Recall** How were European nations involved in the affairs of the Ottoman Empire?

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### GEOGRAPHY SKILLS

**INTERPRETING MAPS**

**1. Location** Where was Russia located in relation to the Ottoman Empire?  
**2. Regions** Where did the Ottoman Empire lose territory between 1699 and 1913?

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### REVIEWING IDEAS, TERMS, AND PEOPLE

**1. Recall** What were the Carlsbad Decrees?  
**b. Analyze** Why was Metternich’s resignation significant?  
**c. Evaluate** Why do you think the revolution of 1848 failed in Austria?

**2. a. Define** What was the Dual Monarchy?  
**b. Interpret** How did Hungary benefit from Austria-Hungary’s economy?  
**c. Evaluate** Do you think the dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary would have been formed if Austria had won the Austro-Prussian War? Explain your answer.

**3. a. Identify** What was the Eastern Question?  
**b. Identify Cause and Effect** What was the major effect of the Balkan Wars?

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### CRITICAL THINKING

**4. Identify Cause and Effect** Copy the graphic organizer below and use it and your notes on the section to identify the effects of nationalism in Austria, Hungary, and the Ottoman Empire.

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### FOCUS ON WRITING

**5. Persuasion** You belong to a minority ethnic group in Austria-Hungary. Write a letter to Emperor Franz Joseph I outlining why your group should have independence. Use details from the chapter in your notes.
Unrest in Russia

Main Idea
In the 1800s and early 1900s, Russians rebelled against the absolute power of the czar and demanded social reforms.

Reading Focus
1. What was government and society like in Russia in the first half of the 1800s?
2. What were some examples of reform and repression in Russia?
3. How did war and revolution affect Russia in the early 1900s?

Key Terms and People
- autocracy
- serfs
- Alexander II
- pogroms
- Trans-Siberian Railroad
- Russo-Japanese War
- socialist republic
- Vladimir Lenin
- Bloody Sunday
- Duma

The Inside Story
Why did terrorists kill Russia’s leader? It was the same day that Czar Alexander II signed a document granting major political reforms to the people. The czar was traveling through the snow in his iron-clad carriage to the Winter Palace in St. Petersburg. His guards kept close by him on open sleighs. Terrorists had already tried to assassinate the czar several times. As the carriage approached a street corner, a bomb exploded, and some of the guards were wounded. Alexander II stepped out of the carriage to check on the wounded guards’ condition. After he got out, a terrorist threw another bomb—fatally injuring the czar.

The terrorist who assassinated Alexander II belonged to a radical group called The People’s Will. Members of The People’s Will believed that Russian society needed radical reforms, and the only way to make that happen was to overthrow the government and start over. Alexander II had made many reforms during his rule, but it was not enough.

Surprise Attack
\[ \text{A terrorist explodes a bomb as Czar Alexander II and his guards travel outside the Winter Palace.} \]
Government and Society

In the first half of the 1800s, Russia was one of the great powers of Europe. Russian troops helped defeat Napoleon, and Russia’s leaders helped reorganize Europe after his fall. Yet Russia was very different from Europe’s other powers. The Russian Empire was huge. It stretched eastward far into Asia and included many different ethnic groups.

To govern this large and diverse empire, Russian monarchs ruled with absolute power. They were called czars and they had control over most aspects of Russian life. The czars believed in autocracy, or government by one ruler with unlimited power.

Russian society under the czars was mainly agricultural. Unlike many other countries in Europe, Russia had not industrialized very much. Much of the country’s population consisted of peasants. Many of these Russian peasants were serfs—agricultural workers who were considered part of the land on which they worked.

Serfs were controlled by lords, the wealthy nobles who owned the land. Technically, serfs were not slaves because they were not legally considered property. However, their poor living conditions and lack of freedom resembled slavery. For example, serfs were not allowed to leave the property on which they were born and they did not own the land on which they worked.

In addition, serfs had to make regular payments of both goods and labor to their lords.

Some government leaders wanted to improve conditions for the serfs, but they were unable to make reforms. Russian serfdom remained a way of life for many people and was a major problem in Russian society.

Reading Check Summarize What was Russian government and society like in the first half of the 1800s?

Reform and Repression

As in other European countries at this time, revolutionary ideas began to grow in Russia. Russians wanted more freedoms and more democracy. But Russia’s conservative czars were resistant to reform, which led to revolts, unrest, and repression.

The Decembrist Revolt Some revolutionaries formed secret societies to fight against the czar’s rule. When Czar Alexander I died in 1825, they saw it as an opportunity for change.

A group of revolutionaries later referred to as the Decembrists rebelled against the government. The Decembrists included many military officers. They led a group of some 3,000 soldiers that assembled near the Winter Palace, publicly refusing to declare their allegiance to the new czar, Nicholas I.
Nicholas responded by crushing the rebellion. Many of the Decembrists were captured and sent to Siberia, an isolated region in far eastern Russia. Five were executed. The Decembrist revolt had failed, but it began a revolutionary movement in Russia that would only grow in the years ahead.

Reforms of Alexander II The next czar, Alexander II, came to power in 1855 near the end of the Crimean War, which Russia lost to Great Britain, France, the Ottoman Empire, and Sardinia. The loss showed how far behind Russia was from the rest of Europe. Russia did not have the modern technology and industry necessary to build a military that could compete with Europe’s powers. To solve these problems, Alexander II began a program of reforms.

In 1861 Alexander II took the historic step of freeing Russia’s serfs and giving them the right to own land as part of a commune. He believed that if the terrible living conditions continued for the serfs, a rebellion was likely. In addition, he hoped that giving serfs their own land would help build a market economy in Russia. The government set up a system in which peasants would buy the land they worked on from the landowner, usually with government help.

Alexander II made other reforms to modernize Russia. He set up a new judicial system and allowed some local self-government. In addition, he reorganized the army and navy.

Despite these reforms, revolutionary movements continued to gain strength and call for more radical changes. In 1881 a radical group called the People’s Will assassinated Czar Alexander II.

Unrest Under Alexander III Alexander’s son, Alexander III, became the next czar. He was a reactionary, or a person who wants to go back to the way things were in the past. Alexander III ended the reforms of his father. He responded to revolutionary threats by going after individuals and groups suspected of plotting against the government.

Meanwhile, a different sort of unrest was building. Mobs of people started attacking Jews, killing them and destroying their property. These widespread violent attacks were known as pogroms, and there were several waves of them in Russia.

The first wave of pogroms began after Alexander II was assassinated. Some people in the government and in society wrongly blamed Jews for the assassination. As a result, groups of anti-Semitic rioters attacked and killed innocent Jews, and the authorities did nothing to stop them.

Industrialization under Nicholas II Nicholas II was crowned czar in 1894. Like his father, he ruled as an autocrat. Early in his reign, industry developed rapidly in Russia. During the 1890s Russia began building the Trans-Siberian Railroad to link western Russia with Siberia. But Russian expansion in the east would soon lead to a conflict and war.

READING CHECK Identify What were some key reforms in Russia during the 1800s?

War and Revolution

As Russia expanded in the east, it came into conflict with another imperial power—Japan. At the same time, revolutionary ideas were growing again, and revolution was brewing.

War with Japan In the early 1900s, Japan was building an empire in the east and viewed Russia as a threat to its plans. As a result, in 1904 Japanese forces attacked and eventually defeated Russia in the Russo-Japanese War. The defeat shocked many Russians and added to growing unrest and calls for change.

Marxist Ideas One group calling for change in Russia was the Marxists, Russians who followed the communist theories of Karl Marx. In the late 1800s, Marx’s ideas gained popularity in Russia. Marx’s followers wanted to create a socialist republic, a society in which there would be no private property and the state would collectively own and distribute goods.

In 1902 a Marxist named Vladimir Lenin published a work supporting the overthrow of the czar. He called for revolutionaries to rise up against “the shame and the curse of Russia.”

The Revolution of 1905 By 1905 many Russians were ready to rebel against the czar. On January 22, 1905, an Orthodox priest named Father Gapon planned to bring a petition to the czar at the Winter Palace. The petition listed a number of demands.
Bloody Sunday in St. Petersburg

Analyzing Visuals One source that historians study to learn about the past is art. The painting below, *Death in Snow*, is by Russian artist Vladimir Makovsky. It shows protesters in St. Petersburg, Russia, on January 22, 1905—an event known as Bloody Sunday.

To analyze what this painting suggests about this event and about the Russian Revolution of 1905, think about

- the subject of the painting
- the details in the painting
- the title of the work

**Skills Focus**

1. **Subject**  Why do you think Makovsky chose to paint this event? What might his decision indicate about the importance of Bloody Sunday?

2. **Details**  How would you describe the expressions and body language of the people shown?

3. **Title**  What statement did Makovsky make by titling the painting *Death in Snow*?

See *Skills Handbook*, p. H26

On Bloody Sunday, Russian troops killed and wounded hundreds of peaceful protesters, igniting the Russian Revolution of 1905.

Father Gapon, a Russian priest, led the march.

The protesters included poor workers, women, and children. They had marched to the czar’s Winter Palace to ask for better working conditions.
When Gapon and the protesters neared the Winter Palace, troops fired at the group, and hundreds died. The day became known in Russian history as **Bloody Sunday**.

Bloody Sunday inspired many sectors of society to rise up against the czar. In the cities and across the countryside, rebellions broke out. Workers went on strike, and university students protested in the streets. Peasants rebelled against their landlords. People everywhere began to disobey the czar’s strict rules. The Russian Revolution of 1905 had begun.

At first the czar firmly supported the autocracy. Then he promised reform but did not follow through with his promises. Finally, in October, a massive worker’s strike seemed to be the final straw. Some 2 million workers protested in the streets of Russia. Railroads stopped because of lack of workers. Czar Nicholas II had to do something.

**The October Manifesto** In response to the rebellions and strikes, Nicholas II issued the October Manifesto, an official promise for reform and a more democratic government. The October Manifesto promised a Russian constitution. It guaranteed individual liberties to all Russians, including freedom of speech and freedom of assembly. Many Russians also gained the right to vote.

The October Manifesto stated that voters would elect representatives to the Duma (doo-muh), an assembly that would approve all laws. Although the czar would continue to rule Russia, he promised not to pass any laws without the approval of the elected Duma.

Nicholas II hoped that the October Manifesto would end the revolution. But he still did not want to give up the absolute power he had always known. In 1906 when the first Duma met, the czar ended the meeting when the Duma made too many demands.

Nicholas II and his advisers did make more reforms in the years after the Russian Revolution of 1905. However, it was clear that the czar had not achieved a balance between his own power and the growing support for democracy. People still wanted reform and change. Eventually they would get it.

**READING CHECK** Cause and Effect What were some causes of the Russian Revolution of 1905?

### Causes
- The slow pace of reforms by Russia’s czars
- Desire for better living conditions and freedoms
- The growth of revolutionary groups

### Effects
- Nicholas II issues October Manifesto promising some reforms, Duma as representative body
- Political parties and voting rights are allowed, but czar maintains absolute power

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**SECTION 4 ASSESSMENT**

**Reviewing Ideas, Terms, and People**

1. **a. Define** What is an autocracy?
   
   **b. Explain** What was life like for Russia’s serfs?
   
   **c. Evaluate** Why do you think Russia’s czars failed to improve living conditions for serfs?

2. **a. Recall** What historic action did Alexander II take in 1861?
   
   **b. Contrast** In what ways did Alexander II differ from Russia’s other czars?
   
   **c. Evaluate** Why do you think the Decembrist Revolt failed?

3. **a. Identify** What was the Duma?
   
   **b. Interpret** Why was Bloody Sunday a significant event?
   
   **c. Predict** How do you think the refusal of Russia’s czars to make lasting reforms would affect Russia?

**Critical Thinking**

4. **Rank** Use your notes from the section and a graphic organizer like this one to rank three major problems facing Russian society in the late 1800s and early 1900s.

   1. 
   2. 
   3.

**Focus on Writing**

5. **Narration** Write a short paragraph from the point of view of a newspaper reporter describing the events of Bloody Sunday.
About the Reading  Leo Tolstoy’s novel War and Peace, published from 1865 to 1869, is considered one of the greatest novels of all time. It follows the lives of five Russian families in the early 1800s and presents a picture of Russian society during this time. In the passage below, two of the novel’s characters, Pierre Bezukhov and Prince Andrew Bolkonsky, argue about whether or not people should live their lives to help others or to help themselves.

As You Read  Think about how Prince Andrew views Russia’s serfs.

Excerpt from

War and Peace

by Leo Tolstoy

“Come on let’s argue then,” said Prince Andrew. “You talk of schools,” he went on, crooking a finger, “education and so forth; that is you want to raise him” (pointing to a peasant who passed by them taking off his cap) “from his animal condition and awaken in him spiritual needs, while it seems to me that animal happiness is the only happiness possible, and that is just what you want to deprive him of. I envy him, but you want to make him what I am, without giving him my means. Then you say, ‘lighten his toil.’ But as I see it, physical labor is as essential to him, as much a condition of his existence, as mental activity is it to you or me. You can’t help thinking. I go to bed after two in the morning, thoughts come and I can’t sleep but toss about till dawn, because I think and can’t help thinking, just as he can’t help plowing and mowing; if he didn’t, he would go to the drink shop or fall ill. Just as I could not stand his terrible physical labor but should die of it in a week, so he could not stand my physical idleness, but would grow fat and die. The third thing—what else was it you talked about?” and Prince Andrew crooked a third finger: “Ah, yes, hospitals, medicine. He has a fit, he is dying, and you come and bleed him and patch him up. He will drag about as a cripple, a burden to everybody, for another ten years. It would be far easier and simpler for him to die. Others are being born and there are plenty of them as it is. It would be different if you grudged losing a laborer—that’s how I regard him—but you want to cure him from love of him. And he does not want that. And besides, what a notion that medicine ever cured anyone! Killed them, yes!” said he, frowning angrily and turning away from Pierre.
Petition to the Czar

In St. Petersburg, Russia, in 1905, Father Gapon wrote a petition to Russian Czar Nicholas II expressing the desires of the Russian people for more equal rights under the law.

Oh Sire, we working men and inhabitants of St. Petersburg, our wives, our children and our parents, helpless and aged women and men, have come to you our ruler, in search of justice and protection. We are beggars, we are oppressed and overburdened with work, we are insulted, as slaves. The moment has come for us when death would be better than the prolongation of our intolerable sufferings. We are seeking here our last salvation. Do not refuse to help your people. Destroy the wall between yourself and your people.

Germany’s Military Might

In the early 1900s, as kaiser of a united Germany, Wilhelm II built up a powerful military as a show of strength and national pride. This 1914 Russian cartoon shows Wilhelm II surprised by an invasion of Germany by the Russian army.

Historical Context The four documents below provide different views and accounts of revolutions and unification in Europe during the late 1800s and early 1900s.

Task Study the documents and answer the questions that follow. After you have studied the documents, you will be asked to write an essay about the causes of revolutions and unification in Europe. You will need to use evidence from these selections and from the chapter to support the position you take in your essay.
Bismarck’s “Blood and Iron” speech

In this speech to the Prussian parliament in 1862, Otto von Bismarck argues for a buildup of the Prussian military. Bismarck went on to build the Prussian army into a great war machine that would use “blood and iron” to forcibly unite the German states under Prussia.

Public opinion changes, the press is not [the same as] public opinion; one knows how the press is written; members of parliament have a higher duty, to lead opinion, to stand above it. We are too hot-blooded, we have a preference for putting on armor that is too big for our small body; and now we’re actually supposed to utilize it. Germany is not looking to Prussia’s liberalism, but to its power; Bavaria, Württemberg, Baden may indulge liberalism, and for that reason no one will assign them Prussia’s role; Prussia has to coalesce and concentrate its power for the opportune moment, which has already been missed several times; Prussia’s borders according to the Vienna Treaties [of 1814–1815] are not favorable for a healthy, vital state; it is not by speeches and majority resolutions that the great questions of the time are decided—that was the big mistake of 1848 and 1849—but by iron and blood.

Revolution Spreads to the German States

In his memoir, Carl Schurz describes the excitement he witnessed on the streets of Berlin during the German Revolution of 1848.

Great news came from Vienna! There the students of the university were the first to assail the Emperor of Austria with the cry for liberty and citizens’ rights . . . In the Prussian capital the masses surged upon the streets, and everybody looked for events of great import.

On the 18th of March we too had our mass demonstration. A great multitude gathered for a solemn procession through the streets of the town [Berlin] . . . At the head of the procession Professor Kunkel bore the tricolor—black, red, and gold—which so long had been prohibited as the revolutionary flag. He spoke with wonderful eloquence, his voice ringing out in its most powerful tones as he depicted a resurrection of German unity and greatness and new liberties and rights of the German people, which now must be conceded by the princes or won by force by the people. And when at last he waved the black-red-gold banner, and predicted to a free German nation a magnificent future, enthusiasm without bounds broke forth. People clapped their hands; they shouted; they embraced one another; they shed tears.
Nationalism in Europe, 1800–1920

**Italy**
- In 1815 the Congress of Vienna split the Italian states apart.
- In 1831 Giuseppe Mazzini formed a nationalist group called Young Italy to fight for the unification of Italy.
- In 1852 Camillo di Cavour united states in northern Italy.
- In the 1860s Giuseppe Garibaldi continued the fight for unification of the rest of the Italian states.
- In 1861 under Victor Emmanuel's reign, Italians voted for unification.

**Germany**
- In 1834 the German states formed the Zollverein, or customs union, that made trade easier between the states.
- In 1848 German liberals revolted in the state of Prussia.
- In the mid-1800s Otto von Bismarck built up the Prussian military and pushed for the unification of Germany.
- In 1866 Prussia defeated Austria in the Austro-Prussian War.
- In 1871 Prussia defeated France in the Franco-Prussian War, and Germany was unified.

**Austria-Hungary**
- After the Congress of Vienna in 1815, Austrian foreign minister Metternich passed laws limiting reforms and formed alliances with other European powers to deter uprisings.
- In 1848 Hungarian Magyars made an unsuccessful attempt at a revolution.
- In 1867 the Dual Monarchy was set up, and Austria and Hungary became two separate, equal states.

**Ottoman Empire**
- The power of the Ottoman Empire declined during the 1800s.
- In the 1850s the Ottomans fought with Great Britain, France, and Sardinia against Russia in the Crimean War.
- The Ottoman Empire lost much territory in Europe after the Balkan Wars.
- In 1908 a nationalistic movement called the Young Turks began a revolution against the Ottoman sultan.

**Russia**
- In the first half of the 1800s, many Russian peasants were serfs—agricultural workers who were considered part of the land on which they worked.
- In 1825 Russian revolutionaries rebelled against the Czar Nicholas I but were defeated.
- From the 1860s to the 1880s Czar Alexander II freed the serfs and made other reforms.
- The Russian Revolution of 1905 began after Bloody Sunday because people were upset with the slow pace of reform.

**Review Key Terms and People**
Identify the correct term or person from the chapter that best matches each of the following descriptions.

1. Founded the Italian nationalist movement called Young Italy
2. Followers of Giuseppe Garibaldi
3. German customs union that allowed for the removal of tariffs between the German states
4. Prussian leader who helped unify Germany by “blood and iron”
5. wars that cost the Ottoman Empire most of its land in Europe
6. government by one ruler with unlimited power
7. an assembly in Russia that approved all laws
8. common background and culture
Comprehension and Critical Thinking

SECTION 1  (pp. 713–717)

9. a. Describe  What led to the unification of Italy?
   b. Analyze  What new challenges did Italians face after unification?
   c. Evaluate  How did feelings of nationalism affect the actions of Italian leaders such as Giuseppe Mazzini and Camillo di Cavour?

SECTION 2  (pp. 718–722)

10. a. Identify  Who was Wilhelm I?
    b. Compare and Contrast  What was one similarity and one difference between the Austro-Prussian War and the Franco-Prussian War?
    c. Elaborate  How did the Zollverein strengthen ties between the German states?

SECTION 3  (pp. 723–727)

11. a. Describe  What was the government of Austria-Hungary like under the Dual Monarchy?
    b. Identify Cause and Effect  How did revolutions elsewhere in Europe affect uprisings in the Austrian Empire?
    c. Make Judgments  Do you agree or disagree on how the Congress of Berlin ignored ethnic groups when they gave land to Austria-Hungary?

SECTION 4  (pp. 728–732)

12. a. Recall  How did the October Manifesto benefit Russians?
    b. Explain  What did serfs owe to the lords who owned the land they worked on?
    c. Elaborate  How did Russians react to the news of violence on Bloody Sunday?

Reading Skills

Understanding Word Origins  Using a dictionary, find the origins of the following words. Then explain how the origin of each word relates to the use of the word in this chapter.

13. nation
14. empire
15. autocrat

Analyzing Visuals

Reading Like a Historian  The painting below shows Russian serfs on the banks of the Volga River.

16. Identify  How are the serfs pulling this ship down the river?

17. Draw Conclusions  Many of the serfs in the painting have ragged clothing, no shoes, and look exhausted. What do you think the artist was trying to say by showing the serfs in this condition?

Using the Internet

18. During the 1800s in Italy and Germany, several key people led nationalist movements that resulted in their country’s unification. Enter the activity keyword and choose one Italian or German leader to learn more about. Then write a short newspaper article that describes this person’s life and achievements.

Writing for the SAT

Think about the following issue:

Nationalism was a major force in Europe during the 1800s as people began to feel an allegiance to others who shared a common language, religion, and history. As a result, the nations of Italy and Germany achieved unification, and old multinational empires started to crumble. In some places, representative government began to replace the absolute power of monarchs.

19. Assignment:  In your opinion, what was the most important effect of European nationalism in the 1800s? Write an essay in which you develop your position on this issue. Support your point of view with reasoning and examples from the chapter.