A New Culture.

Setting the Scene.
New artistic styles emerge as a reaction to the Industrial Revolution. In 1800s, some writers (Romantics) turn away from harsh realities of industrial life while others (Realists) make the new industrialized, urban society the subject of their work.

The Romantic Revolt Against Reason.
Romanticism is a cultural movement between 1750 and 1850. Romantic writers rebel against the Enlightenment emphasis on reason and progress. Romantic writers glorify nature and seek to excite strong emotions in their audiences.

The Romantic Hero.
Romantic writers create a new kind of hero – a mysterious, melancholy figure who feels he is out of step with society. This hero often hides a guilty secret and faces a grim destiny. Lord Byron (1788-1824) is a writer who fits description of hero. Hero is thus ‘Byronic’. Examples: Goethe writes dramatic poem “Faust”; aging scholar makes pact with devil. Charlotte Bronte writes novel “Jane Eyre” about girl’s brooding employer with secret.

Romance of the Past.
Some Romantic writers combined history, legend, and folklore. Examples: Sir Walter Scott on Scottish clans. Alexandre Dumas in “Three Musketeers.”

Music.

Art.

Call to Realism.
Realism is the new artistic movement in mid-1800s that wants to convey world as it is.

The Novel.

The Play.

Art.

New Direction in Visual Arts.
Louis Daguerre. (1789-1851). Perfects process in 1839 that yields first photographic image. Photography poses a problem for painters. Why try for realism when a camera can do it?

Impressionists.

Postimpressionists.
Chapter 23 – Nationalism Triumphs in Europe. (1800-1914).

(1) Building a German Nation.
(2) Strengthening Germany.
(3) Unifying Italy.
(4) Nationalism Threatens Old Empires.
(5) Russia: Reform and Reaction.

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(1) Building a German Nation.

Setting the Scene.
1862. Otto von Bismarck, chancellor of Prussia, leads drive for German unity.
‘Blood and iron’ speech: Strong, unified German state with Prussia at its head.

Steps Toward Unity.
1807-12. Napoleon made important territorial changes in German-speaking lands.
He annexes land along the Rhine River for France.
He dissolves the Holy Roman Empire.
He organizes some German states into Rhine Confederation.

1814.
Congress of Vienna creates German Confederation of 39 separate states.

Prussian Leadership.
1830s.
Prussia creates an economic union that undoes tariffs for German states.

1848.
Frankfurt Assembly offers throne of united German state to Prussian ruler.
But Frederick William IV (ruler) rejects throne offered by “the people.”

German Unity.
1850s.
Prussia with its disciplined army leads effort to unify German.
Prussia also claims leadership due to economic strength. It has Ruhr valley, largest coal deposits in Europe: fuels iron and steel industries - construction of railroads.

1861.
King William I takes throne.

1862.
King appoints Bismarck chancellor or prime minister.

Master of Realpolitik.
Bismarck comes from Junker class made up of conservative landowning nobles.
His primary loyalty is to Hohenzollerns, ruling dynasty in Prussia.
So he is not really a German nationalist; he is actually a monarchist.
He uses realistic politics based on needs of state. Power counts more than principle.
He collects taxes for military and ignores liberal legislature who nixed funds.

Wars with Denmark and Austria.
1864.
Bismarck allies with Austria to seize (“liberate”) provinces from Denmark.

1866.
Bismarck invents excuse to attack Austria. Prussia annexes north German states.

Franco-Prussian War.
1870.
Bismarck tricks Napoleon III into war. Prussian army dominates in few weeks.
France signs peace treaty that cedes Alsace and part of Lorraine to Prussia.

The German Empire.
1871.
William I of Prussia takes title of Kaiser or emperor of Germany. At Versailles.
Germans get unified. Proudly. But they create a lasting enemy in France!
Constitution. Two houses: Bundesrat (upper) with veto power. Reichstag (lower).
Setting the Scene.
1871. Versailles, the palace of Louis XIV, is place to proclaim new German empire. Symbolism. France is passé. Germany is now the dominant power in Europe.

The German Industrial Giant.
By late 1880s: German chemical and electrical industries set worldwide standard. German shipping is second only to Britain. Germany’s spectacular economic growth is due to
(a) ample iron and coal resources.
(b) disciplined and educated work force.
(c) rapidly growing population. 41 million (1871) to 67 million (1914).
New nation also benefits from progress in 1850s and 1860s: railroads, large companies. The house of Krupp (example) booms after 1871 to produce steel and weapons for world. German industrialists are first to see value of applied research to develop new products. 1871, German government issues single currency, reorganizes banks, coordinates railroads.

The Iron Chancellor.
Bismarck is known as ‘Iron Chancellor’ because he is ruthless in achieving unification. Bismarck seeks to erase local loyalties and crush all opposition to the imperial state.

He targets two groups – Catholic Church and socialists – as threat to new German state. 

Campaign Against the Church.
Catholics are one-third of population. Lutherans distrust them for first loyalty to pope. 1872. Bismarck launches Kulturkampf or “battle for civilization” for Catholic loyalty by passing laws (repealed in 1880) for state
(a) to supervise Catholic education.
(b) to approve appointment of priests.
(c) to close some orders, notably to expel Jesuits.
(d) to make it compulsory for couple to have civil marriage.

Campaign Against Socialists.
Bismarck has more laws passed that
(a) dissolve socialist groups.
(b) shut down socialist newspapers.
(c) ban socialist meetings.

Campaigns fail. Bismarck is realist. Makes peace with Church. Sponsors social reforms. By 1890s, Germany has health and accident insurance, as well as old age insurance.

Kaiser William II.
1890. William II forces Bismarck to resign. He becomes his own chief minister. “There is only one master in the Reich,” William says, “and that is I.”
1892. William proceeds to double size of army. William builds large navy to rival Britain.

William’s nationalism and aggressive militarism helps increase tension on eve of WWI.
(3) Unifying Italy.

Setting the Scene.
During the 1800s influential leaders help to create a unified Italy (by 1861).
Metternich laughs at idea of unified Italy. Says Italy is mere “geographic expression.”

Obstacles to Italian Unity.
For centuries, frequent warfare and foreign rule lead people to identify with local regions.
People in Florence see themselves as Tuscans. In Venice, Venetians. In Naples, Neapolitans.
But (as in Germany) the invasions of Napoleon spark dreams of national unity.
The Congress of Vienna however gives Austria control of much of northern Italy.

1831. Giuseppe Mazzini organizes secret society, Young Italy, to make Italy a republic.
United Italy makes sense: geography, common language, history (ancient glory).

The Struggle for Italy.
1849. Victor Emmanuel II become King of Sardinia. Supports Risorgimento movement.
Cavour is a monarchist: he wants a united Italy that is led by King of Sardinia.
Intrigue With France.
1855. Cavour gets Sardinia to join Britain and France in Crimean War against Russia.
Sardinia does not win territory but does gain attention of Napoleon III.
1858. Cavour provokes war with Austria (after secret deal with Napoleon III).
Nationalists overthrow Austria in northern Italy states that join Sardinia.
Garibaldi’s Red Shirts.
1860. Guiseppe Garibaldi recruits 1000 red-shirted volunteers in southern Italy.
Garibaldi takes Sicily, crosses to mainland, marches triumphantly to Naples.
Cavour convinces Garibaldi to turn over Sicily and Naples to Sardinia.
1861. Victor Emmanuel II is crowned King of Italy.
Italy is united nation except for Rome and Venetia (acquired by 1870).

Challenges Facing the New Nation.
Italy has no tradition of unity. Few Italians feel ties to new nation. Regional rifts.
Divisions.
The north is rich. Urban. Center of business and culture.
The south is poor. Rural. Booming population but many illiterate peasants.
Catholic Church (Pope Pius IX) resents seizure of Papal States and Rome.
(The government grants the papacy the small territory of the Vatican city.)
Republicans (like Garibaldi) are disappointed with lack of democracy. 1/30 can vote.
Socialists organize strikes.
Anarchists who want to abolish all government turn to sabotage and violence.
Progress.
Despite problems, Italy does develop economically, especially after 1900.
Population explosion leads to emigration or movement away from homeland.

Looking Ahead.
By 1914 Italy is better off than it was in 1871. But it was not really ready for WWI.
Nationalism Threatens Old Empires.

Setting the Scene.
Desires for national independence break up Austrian and Ottoman empires. Austrian Hapsburgs and Ottoman Turks ruled lands with diverse ethnic groups.

Hapsburgs control HRE for nearly 400 years when Napoleon invades the neighborhood.

A Declining Empire.
1800. Hapsburgs are oldest ruling house in Europe.
   Homeland is Austria.
   Parts of Romania, Poland, Ukraine, northern Italy.

Challenges of Change.
1814. Congress of Vienna.
   Austrian emperor Francis I and his foreign minister Metternich nix “change.”
   “Rule and change nothing,” the emperor tells his son.
   Newspapers could not even mention the word ‘constitution’ in Austria.
   But Austria can not hold back “change” that engulfs rest of Europe.

1848. Nationalist revolts broke out in Vienna (and across empire).
   Chain reaction to news of overthrow of Louis Philippe in France.
   Government crushes revolt. Emperor (18 year-old) fires Metternich.
   Metternich (1773-1859) was 75 by this time. He lives to be 86.

Early Reforms.
1859. Austria loses war to France and Sardinia.
   Emperor Franz Joseph (who rule until 1916) sees need for reform.
   He grants a constitution that sets up a legislature.

The Dual Monarchy.
1866. Austria loses war with Prussia. Disastrously.
   Hungarians press for change within the empire.

1867. Francis Deak, moderate Hungarian leader, brokers a compromise that creates a new political power known as Dual Monarchy of Austria-Hungary.
   Franz Joseph becomes both the emperor of Austria and king of Hungary.

Balkan Nationalism.
Like Hapsburgs, Ottomans ruled a multinational empire. It stretched from Eastern Europe and the Balkans to North Africa and the Middle East.

1817. Serbia wins autonomy.
1830s. southern Greece wins independence.
But many Serbs and Greeks still live in Balkans under Ottoman rule.

During 1800s various subject peoples stage revolts against Ottomans for independence. Europeans (by mid century) come to see Ottoman empire as “the sick man of Europe.”
A complex web of competing interests contribute to a series of crises and wars in Balkans.
   Example: Russia fights several wars with Ottomans.
France and Britain sometimes side with Russia and sometimes side with Ottomans.
By early 1900s observers are referring to the region as the ‘Balkan powder keg’.
Setting the Scene.
Industrialization and reforms come more slowly to Russia than to Western Europe. Serfdom disappears in Western Europe by 1700s but exists in Russia through 1800s.

Conditions in Russia.
1815. Russia is largest, most populous nation in Europe, and also a great world power. It is huge multinational empire: part European, part Asian. Colossus: a giant. Western Europe dislikes its autocratic government and fears its expansionist aims.

Obstacles to progress.
1800s. Russian is economically undeveloped. Czars see need to modernize but resist reforms that would undermine absolute rule. Landowning nobles (dominate society) resist change that threatens their privileges. Majority are serfs, laborers bound to land and to masters who control their fate. Most serfs are peasants. Others: servants, artisans, and soldiers forced into army.

Russian Absolutism.
For centuries czars rule with absolute power, imposing their will on their subjects.

Alexander I.
1801. Alexander I inherits throne. Seems open to liberal ideas. New czar eases censorship and promotes education. He changes after Napoleon attack on Russia (1812). Fears loss of nobles’ support.
1815. He joins conservative powers (Congress of Vienna): Anti liberalism, nationalism.

Nicholas I.

Alexander II.
1855. Alexander II becomes czar during Crimean War (Russian grab of Ottoman turf). Russia loss of the war reveals to new czar how backward the country really is.
1861. Alexander II agrees to reforms. Emancipation decree. He frees the serfs. He sets up local governments, zemstvos, responsible for roads, schools, farming. He introduces ‘trail by jury,’ eases censorship, and tries to reform the army.
1881. Terrorists assassinate the “czar emancipator” by bombing his carriage.

Nicholas II.

Turning Point: Crisis and Revolution.
1904. War broke out between Russia and Japan. Russia lost. Humiliated.
1906. First Duma (elected national legislature) meets. Czar dissolves it when criticized.