Chapter Themes

- **Nationalism**  The rise of nationalism contributes to the unification of Italy. **Section 1**
- **Conflict**  Bismarck uses war and diplomacy to bring unity to Germany. **Section 2**
- **Change**  Bismarck’s German Empire allows for economic growth but limits political freedoms. **Section 3**
- **Reaction**  Czars oppose the forces of liberalism and nationalism in the Russian Empire. **Section 4**
- **Diversity**  The empire of Austria-Hungary contains many nationalities seeking self-rule. **Section 5**

**The Storyteller**

One Sunday in 1821, 16-year-old Giuseppe Mazzini walked along a street in Genoa, Italy. Suddenly a tall, black-bearded stranger approached him. With a piercing look, the stranger held out his hand for money and said, “for the refugees of Italy.” Everyone knew that the refugees were those who had recently rebelled against the Austrians to win independence for Italy.

Forty years later, Mazzini—now a leader of the Italian nationalist movement—wrote of this incident: “That day was the first in which … [I realized that] … we Italians could and therefore ought to struggle for the liberty of our country.” During the early 1800s feelings of nationalism similar to Mazzini’s began to stir all across Europe.

**Historical Significance**

How has the force of nationalism repeatedly changed the map of Europe? What impact has nationalism had on European and world developments in the twentieth century?
Meeting at Teano by Cesare Maccari. Palazzo Pubblico, Siena, Italy
A desire to unite Italy brought together Sardinia’s King Victor Emmanuel II (left) and the revolutionary leader Giuseppe Garibaldi (right).

Chapter Overview
Visit the World History: The Modern Era Web site at worldhistory.me.glencoe.com and click on Chapter 15—Chapter Overview to preview the chapter.

Your History Journal
From about the 1100s to the 1800s, central Europe was made up of numerous kingdoms, principalities, and free cities. Stimulated by the desire for economic growth, by the success of the American Revolution, and by the experience of the Napoleonic Wars, a small but dedicated group of Italians and Germans worked to unify these territories into nations in the 1800s. The desire for national independence that inspired them, known as nationalism, became one of the most powerful forces at work in Europe during the 1800s.

In 1815 the modern nation of Italy did not yet exist. At that time the Italian Peninsula was divided into a number of independent states, many of which had foreign rulers. A French Bourbon monarch ruled the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, while Austria controlled Lombardy and Venetia and the pope controlled the Papal States.

In addition to political divisions, cultural and economic differences divided the regions of the Italian Peninsula. Not only did people speak different dialects of the Italian language, but trade barriers and poor transportation discouraged the flow of goods and people. To move goods the 200 miles (322 km) from Florence to Milan often took 8 weeks.

While cultural and economic divisions continued into the 1900s, a growing unification movement eventually swept aside the political divisions on the Italian Peninsula. By the 1860s, Italy had become a single country.

Early Attempts

The name given to the movement for Italian unity was Risorgimento (ree•ZAWR•jih•MEHN •toh), meaning the “resurgence” or “revival.”

Section 1

The Unification of Italy

Read to Find Out

Main Idea Nationalism led to a united Italy in the 1860s.

Terms to Define

- nationalism, nation-state, guerrilla warfare

People to Meet

Giuseppe Mazzini, Charles Albert, Victor Emmanuel II, Count Camillo di Cavour, Giuseppe Garibaldi

Places to Locate

Florence, Genoa, Sicily, Sardinia, Rome

As the crowd shouted “Viva Verdi!”, Giuseppe Verdi smiled. He understood the phrase’s double meaning. Although the throng appreciated his operas, they were actually demonstrating for a united Italy. The Risorgimento, those wishing for a unified Italy, adopted Verdi’s music as a rally-cry supporting Victor Emmanuel, the king of Sardinia. When people cheered “Viva Verdi,” the occupying Austrians thought they were praising the musician. But the words meant Viva Vittorio Emanuele, Re D’Italia—long live Victor Emmanuel, king of Italy.

—adapted from A History of Western Music, Donald J. Grout and Claude V. Palisca, 1988

The Musician Giuseppe Verdi by Boldini

1820 1830 1840 1850 1860 1870 1880 1890 1900

1831 Giuseppe Mazzini founds Young Italy.

1861 Italians establish a united kingdom.

1871 Victor Emmanuel II moves the capital from Florence to Rome.
Giuseppe Mazzini was its most effective speaker. A native of Genoa and a bold and active leader in the fight for Italian independence, Mazzini founded in 1831 a secret society called Young Italy. The goal of this society was to transform Italy into an independent sovereign nation. According to Mazzini, the nation-state, a political organization consisting of one nationality rather than several nationalities, was very important. Through it, people in one unified country with common ideals could best contribute their efforts to the well-being of all its citizens.

In January 1848, Mazzini-inspired nationalists led a republican revolution in Sicily. Some weeks later, news of larger revolutions in France and Austria sparked uprisings throughout the Italian Peninsula. When fighting began against Austrian forces in Lombardy and Venetia, King Charles Albert of the Kingdom of Sardinia joined the war to expel the foreigners. Nationalists pressured the rulers of Naples, Tuscany, and the Papal States to send troops against the Austrians.

By April 1848 the united Italian forces had almost succeeded in driving the Austrians from the peninsula. Then, saying that he opposed a war with another Catholic country, Pope Pius IX suddenly withdrew his troops. Naples followed suit. Their withdrawal enabled Austria to defeat the army of Charles Albert and reestablish its control over Lombardy and Venetia.

The pope’s decision infuriated Italian nationalists. In November 1848 angry mobs forced the pope to flee the city. Nationalists proclaimed Rome a republic and summoned Mazzini to the capital to head the government. The expulsion of the pope, however, aroused the Catholic governments of Naples, Spain, and France. As a result, Louis-Napoleon sent a French army to Rome. His troops occupied the city and restored the pope to power.

The events of 1848 caused many Italians to lose faith in Mazzini’s revolutionary methods. They became more conservative and turned to Charles Albert, who had earned their respect with his brave stand against the Austrians. Nationalists now looked to Sardinia to lead the struggle for Italian unification.

**Count Cavour’s Diplomacy**

In 1849 Victor Emmanuel II, Charles Albert’s son, became king of Sardinia. During the next few years Victor Emmanuel II toiled to keep popular support for the unity movement alive. He was greatly helped in his efforts by a shrewd and determined adviser named Count Camillo di Cavour.

Physically, Cavour was not impressive, as this description by a contemporary illustrates:

> “The squat ... pot-bellied form; the small, stumpy legs; the short, round arms, with the hands stuck constantly in the trousers’ pockets ... and the sharp grey eyes, covered by the goggle spectacles ... The dress itself seemed a part and property of the man.”

Cavour’s looks were deceptive, however. Hidden behind the rumpled clothes and strange appearance was a bold, intelligent man of great personal charm. By the time of the Crimean War in 1854, Cavour dominated Sardinia’s council of ministers. His major goals were the promotion of rapid industrial growth, the reduction of the Catholic Church’s influence, and the advancement of Sardinia’s national interests in foreign affairs.

The defeat of Sardinia in 1848 convinced Cavour that the kingdom needed the aid of a foreign power to expel Austria and achieve Italian
unity. To win such aid, Cavour decided to support France and Britain in the Crimean War. One historian later called this action “one of the most brilliant strokes of statecraft in the nineteenth century.”

By sending an army to the Crimea in 1854, Sardinia established a claim to equality with the other warring nations. Participating in the war also won Sardinia admittance to the Congress of Paris, which settled treaty matters after the war.

**War With Austria**

Not long after the Crimean War, in the summer of 1858, Cavour met secretly with Napoleon III at Plombières-les-Bains in France. There Napoleon III promised to aid Sardinia in expelling Austria if Sardinia found itself at war. In return, Sardinia agreed that it would give the provinces of Savoy and Nice to France in the event of an Italian-French victory over Austria. Cavour next forced Austria to declare war against Sardinia. He did this by encouraging nationalist groups in Lombardy to revolt. When Austria demanded that Sardinia withdraw its support of the rebels, Sardinia refused. Austria declared war in April 1859. As he had promised, Napoleon III led a force of 120,000 French soldiers to aid Sardinia.

The combined forces of France and Sardinia defeated the Austrians at Magenta and Solferino in June 1859. Austria was on the run. The French suffered heavy losses, however, and Napoleon III feared the loss of public support at home if the fighting in Italy continued.

Without consulting Cavour, Napoleon III withdrew from the fighting in July and signed a treaty with Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria. By the terms of the treaty, Austria gave Lombardy to Sardinia but retained control of Venetia. When Cavour read these terms, he became furious. He insisted that Victor Emmanuel II continue to fight. Believing that victory was impossible without France, the king refused.

The fighting, however, did not stop. People in Tuscany, Parma, Modena, and the papal province of Romagna overthrew their rulers in late 1859 and...
early 1860. Their new governments demanded the right to unite with Sardinia. To gain Napoleon III’s consent for this unification, Cavour gave Savoy and Nice to France. In April 1860 Victor Emmanuel II accepted the territories into his kingdom.

Garibaldi Seizes the South

Southern Italy remained isolated from the revolutionary fever sweeping the rest of the peninsula, but at the death of Ferdinand II, ruler of the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, Italian nationalists prepared for a revolution. Their leader was charismatic military commander Giuseppe Garibaldi.

Forced into exile after taking part in the 1830 uprisings, Garibaldi went to South America. There he became an expert in guerrilla warfare, a method of warfare using hit-and-run tactics. Garibaldi returned to Italy in 1848 and took part in Mazzini’s short-lived Roman Republic. When that fell in 1849, Garibaldi fled to the United States.

Sensing that the people of the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies were ready to revolt, Garibaldi returned to Italy in 1860. After collecting volunteers in Genoa, he set out for Sicily. When his troops faltered, Garibaldi rallied them to victory. In a few weeks, he gained control of the island.

He then crossed to the mainland and advanced toward Naples. The army of the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies proved no match for Garibaldi’s Red Shirts, named for the color of their uniforms. Naples fell, and the king of the Two Sicilies fled.

Northern Italy became a highly urbanized and industrialized region. The city of Milan was known both for its economic prosperity and its festive outdoor celebrations.

Tuscany, a region in north-central Italy, was known for its picturesque villages and vineyards as well as the cultural city of Florence.

1. How was Italy organized politically before 1860?
2. What economic and social differences distinguished northern Italy from southern Italy?
Garibaldi’s successes in the south made Cavour nervous. To prevent Garibaldi from further victories, Cavour sent an army into the Papal States. On September 18 the forces of Sardinia defeated the papal army at Castelfidaro. Cavour kept control of the campaign for national unity.

When voters in southern Italy supported union with Sardinia in October 1860, Garibaldi surrendered his conquests to Victor Emmanuel II. By February 1861 the whole peninsula, with the exception of Rome and Venetia, was united under one government. Victor Emmanuel II was now king of the newly created constitutional monarchy of Italy.

Building a New Nation

Three months after the unification of Italy, Count Cavour died. His last words were “Italy is made. All is safe.” However, many difficult problems confronted the new nation. National unification had not erased the profound cultural and economic divisions that separated the south and north. The south was poor and agricultural, while the north had begun to industrialize. The gap in the standards of living between the two regions fueled discontent and hampered unification efforts.

In the name of national unity, Sardinia often tried to force its laws and customs onto the other Italian states. This tactic only fanned resentment. Former rulers also encouraged discontent. When some of these rulers tried to regain their thrones, bloody civil wars erupted.

Gradually the government developed a unified military and a national educational system. It built railroads, linking not only the south with the north but also Italy with the rest of Europe. These were important steps toward unification, but cultural and economic barriers remained.

Another problem concerned the location of the nation’s capital. Most Italians thought that Rome should be the capital of the new nation. During the 1860s, however, the pope still ruled the city. In addition, the Austrians continued to control Venetia.

Italy again sought foreign help to solve a political problem. In 1866 Italy allied itself with Prussia in a war against Austria. In return, Prussia promised to give Venetia to Italy. Although Austria defeated Italian forces in the conflict, the Prussian victory was so overwhelming that Prussia gave Venetia to Italy anyway.

Foreign intervention also played a role in helping Italy win Rome. When war broke out between France and Prussia in 1870, Napoleon III withdrew French troops that had been protecting the pope. Italian troops then entered Rome and conquered the pope’s territory. In 1871 Victor Emmanuel II moved the national capital from Florence to Rome. The political unification of Italy was finally complete.
Section 2

The Unification of Germany

Germany was the last of the great European powers to achieve complete political unity. In 1815, 39 independent German states stretched north and south from the Baltic Sea to the Alps, and east and west from the Rhine River to the Russian Empire. Political rivals Austria and Prussia were the most powerful of these German states.

While Great Britain and France were developing as strong industrial nations, Germany remained divided and economically disadvantaged. The Reformation and the Thirty Years’ War contributed to Germany’s social and political divisions. Antagonisms between Protestant and Catholic states ran deep. By 1871, however, the German states—excluding Austria and Switzerland—had united into a single nation.

Steps Toward Unity

The Congress of Vienna had created the German Confederation in 1815 as a buffer against possible future French expansion. This first major step toward German unity established closer economic ties between the German states and helped pave the way for greater political union.

The German Confederation loosely tied together the numerous German states with a diet, or assembly, sitting at Frankfurt. Austria dominated the confederation. Its position as head of the diet eventually brought it into conflict with Prussia. Neither Austria nor the smaller German states wanted to see a united Germany. Austria feared the economic competition, while the smaller states feared domination by Prussia.

The largest of the German states, Prussia had a well-organized government and a strong economy. Political power in Prussia lay in the hands of William I, Otto von Bismarck became emperor of a unified Germany.

Steps Toward Unity

1866 Prussia and Austria fight Seven Weeks’ War.

1871 William I becomes emperor of a united Germany.
influential aristocratic landowners called Junkers (YUN•kuhrs), but members of the rising business class demanded a share of political power. To reduce trade barriers, German states in 1834 formed a Zollverein, or economic union. This step toward unity strengthened the influence of Prussia, while weakening that of Austria, in German affairs.

In 1848, as revolutions swept Europe, power in the German states shifted to the liberals. From all parts of Germany, delegates met in the Frankfurt Assembly to unite the country under a liberal constitution. Internal feuding, however, weakened this effort, allowing the conservatives to regain control. In 1849 the Prussian military forced the Assembly’s closure and later put down street revolts. Many liberal and radical Germans fled abroad, especially to the United States. During the 1850s, in Germany as in other parts of Europe, conservatives in many cases came to control nationalist causes.

**Rise of Bismarck**

German conservatives looked to Prussia for help in uniting Germany. In 1861 William I became king of Prussia. Opposed to liberal ideas, William believed in a strong military and took steps to expand the Prussian army. Liberal German nationalists, however, saw no use for a strong military except to control the Prussian people. They wanted the king to adopt democratic policies to gain support from the other German states. As a result, liberal deputies in the Prussian assembly overwhelmingly defeated new taxes to support a larger army.

Frustrated by the defeat, the king appointed as his new prime minister a man who shared his views on army reconstruction. That man was Otto von Bismarck. A Junker himself, Bismarck had served in the Prussian assembly and as ambassador to Russia and France. He shared the king’s view that Prussia needed a strong government and army to achieve German unity. A brilliant negotiator, Bismarck embraced the policy of *realpolitik*, the right of the nation-state to pursue its own advantage by any means, including war and the repudiation of treaties.

In September 1862 Bismarck defied the finance committee of the Prussian assembly. He declared that the great issues of the times would not be decided “by speeches and majority decisions ... but by blood and iron.” When the lower house again refused to approve the new army budget, Bismarck pushed the program through by simply collecting the necessary taxes without authorization.

**Three Wars**

Bismarck once said, “Show me an objective worthy of war and I will go along with you.” As prime minister, he found several worthy objectives. His initial goal was to raise money for army expansion. Then he wanted Prussia to use its military and economic power to reduce Austrian influence among the German states. Finally, he planned to arrange the unification of all German states except Austria and Switzerland under Prussian domination. To accomplish these objectives, Bismarck went to war three times.

**War Against Denmark**

By inheritance, the king of Denmark ruled the territories of Schleswig and Holstein. Schleswig’s population was part German and part Danish; Holstein’s population was entirely German. When King Christian IX proclaimed Schleswig a Danish province in 1863, Germans in both territories appealed to the larger German states for support.
To prevent Danish annexation of Schleswig, Bismarck persuaded Austria to join Prussia in declaring war against Denmark in 1864. Prussia and Austria soon won this war and forced Denmark out of the disputed provinces. By mutual agreement, Prussia took control of Schleswig, and Austria took over the administration of Holstein. This arrangement strained the relationship between these rival powers.

The war accomplished two of Bismarck’s objectives. First, it made Europe aware of Prussia’s military might and influence. Second, the tension resulting from the war settlement gave Bismarck the excuse he wanted for going to war with Austria.

Seven Weeks’ War

One month before the invasion of Schleswig, Bismarck wrote to his envoy in Paris:

“[You do not trust Austria. Neither do I. But I consider it the correct policy at present to have Austria with us. Whether the moment of parting will come, and on whose initiative, we shall see.... I am not in the least afraid of war, on the contrary ... you may very soon be able to convince yourself that war also is included in my program.]”

Bismarck prepared for war by stripping Austria of possible allies. He gained Russia’s goodwill by offering the czar aid against Polish rebels in 1863. He offered France possible “compensations” for its neutrality in case of an Austro-Prussian war. He also forged an alliance with Italy by supporting its claim to Venetia in return for military support against Austria.

Bismarck gained public support for his actions when Austria sided with the duke of Augustenburg, who claimed title to Schleswig and Holstein. To prevent an alliance between Austria and the duke, Bismarck ordered Prussian troops into Austrian-occupied Holstein. When Austria then asked the German Confederation to take military action against Prussia for this invasion, Bismarck responded by declaring war against Austria.

The war between Austria and Prussia began on June 15, 1866, and ended in a Prussian victory just seven weeks later. For Bismarck, the conflict had been a limited war with limited objectives. Its purpose was to separate Austria from Germany and strengthened local dialects and traditions. In the past, political and religious conflict heightened divisions; Swabians considered Westphalians as foreigners, and Bavarians regarded Prussians as archrivals. This regionalism led Germans to resist political unity until the late 1800s. In the 1900s, the German defeat in World War II and the rivalry between the United States and the Soviet Union caused Germany’s division into eastern and western parts. With communism’s fall, Germany finally reunited in 1990.

A Divided Land

Germany’s geography has made it a country of distinct regions. Throughout German history, rivers have drawn people in different directions. The north-flowing Rhine, Weser, and Oder Rivers have linked the peoples of these river valleys to the northern plains. In southern Germany, the Danube River has oriented people of that region to the southeast.

Mountains and highland areas—especially the Alps and the Central Highlands—have isolated populations and strengthened local dialects and traditions. In the past, political and religious conflict heightened divisions; Swabians considered Westphalians as foreigners, and Bavarians regarded Prussians as archrivals. This regionalism led Germans to resist political unity until the late 1800s. In the 1900s, the German defeat in World War II and the rivalry between the United States and the Soviet Union caused Germany’s division into eastern and western parts. With communism’s fall, Germany finally reunited in 1990.

Discuss the geographical and historical factors contributing to German regionalism. What has been the relationship between regionalism and national unity in the United States?
end the chance for a united Germany under Austrian control. In the end, Bismarck did not want to destroy Austria with a harsh peace settlement. He knew that he would probably need an alliance with Austria in the future.

The treaty ending the war was negotiated in the city of Prague. The settlement dissolved the German Confederation and gave Holstein to Prussia and Venetia to Italy. The treaty also called for “a new organization of Germany without the participation of Austria.”

This “new organization” became the North German Confederation in 1867. It embraced all the German states north of the Main (MYN) River. The Confederation’s constitution gave each state the right to manage its domestic affairs, but put foreign policy and national defense in the hands of Prussia. Legislative authority was vested in a federal council composed of representatives from the various governments and a diet, or assembly, elected by universal male suffrage.

The establishment of a strong confederation by Prussia made Bismarck a hero among German nationalists. Bismarck’s work of uniting Germany, however, was not finished.

**The Franco-Prussian War**

The southern German states, which were largely Catholic, remained outside the new German confederation. Most of them feared Protestant Prussia’s military strength and its control of Germany. The kingdoms of Bavaria and Württemberg (WUHR•tehm•BUHRG), in particular, steadfastly opposed German unification under Prussian rule. They would accept German unification only if Prussia gave up some of its authority in a united government. Prussia would not agree to this, however.

France posed the most serious obstacle to a united Germany. Napoleon III would not accept German unification unless France received some territory—its compensation for not joining Austria in the Seven Weeks’ War. To resolve the situation, Bismarck again chose war.

France posed the most serious obstacle to a united Germany. Napoleon III would not accept German unification unless France received some territory—its compensation for not joining Austria in the Seven Weeks’ War. To resolve the situation, Bismarck again chose war.

Some historians believe that Bismarck was responsible for the Franco-Prussian War. In his memoirs, Bismarck had written that “a Franco-German [Prussian] war must take place before the construction of a united Germany could be realized.” If Napoleon III had not wanted war as much as Bismarck, however, the war may never have taken place. Bismarck knew that he could not invade France without public support. Instead, he had to lure France into war, taking advantage of Napoleon III’s weakness in foreign policy and of the French public’s current anti-Prussian feeling.

Bismarck’s chance came in 1870 in connection with the Hohenzollern candidacy for the Spanish throne.

A revolution in 1868 had deposed Queen Isabella of Spain. The Spanish government offered the throne to Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern, a Catholic cousin of William I of Prussia. Fearing a Spanish-German alliance against France, Napoleon III protested the offer. William brushed aside this protest, but Leopold later voluntarily declined the throne.

In July 1870, France demanded a promise from William that a Hohenzollern would never sit on the Spanish throne. William, who was vacationing at the German resort of Ems, refused. In a telegram to Bismarck, he described the details of his meeting with the French ambassador. To make it appear that William had deliberately insulted the French envoy, Bismarck altered the Ems telegram and released it to the press. Newspaper coverage of the supposed insult enraged the French, leading Napoleon to declare war on Prussia.

The fighting began on July 19, 1870. More anti-French than anti-Prussian, the southern German states allied with Prussia. With highly efficient military forces, the Prussians easily defeated the French.
Bismarck then gained support from all the German states for the unification of Germany under Prussia.

**Formation of an Empire**

On January 18, 1871, William I assumed the title of kaiser, or emperor, of a united Germany. He ruled over a domain that stretched from the Baltic Sea in the north to the Alps in the south. Bismarck became the German chancellor, or chief minister.

The new empire united 25 German states into one federal union. Although each state had its own ruler, and some had their own armies and diplomatic staffs, the kaiser headed the national government. He had authority to make appointments, command the military in time of war, and determine foreign policy. Prussian Junkers now shared power with wealthy industrialists. Unification did not make Germany a model democratic state.

William’s son, Crown Prince Frederick of Prussia, was a liberal and a supporter of reform. He deplored the means Bismarck used to bring about the unification of Germany. In his diary, he wrote of his despair: “We are no longer looked upon as the innocent victims of wrong, but rather as arrogant victors.” While he foresaw many of the consequences of Bismarck’s policies, Frederick did nothing to change them.

**Main Idea**

1. Use a chart like the one below to show the steps Bismarck took to unite the German states.

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<th>How Bismarck United the German States</th>
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2. Define realpolitik, kaiser, chancellor.


**Critical Thinking**

4. Synthesizing Information

Imagine that you are a member of the Prussian assembly opposed to Otto von Bismarck’s policy for German unification. What alternative policy would you have suggested to William I?

**Understanding Themes**

5. Conflict Compare Bismarck’s methods for achieving the unification of Germany with Cavour’s methods for bringing about the unification of Italy.
Victory on the battlefield brought about Germany’s political unity, but the Germans were not united as a people. Religious, economic, social, and political divisions remained. German leaders now had to encourage a sense of common purpose in the population.

Bismarck became the key figure in early German nation building. With the support of Kaiser William I, Bismarck took charge of policy in the German Empire. Over the years, he faced several direct challenges to the German nation-state and his own political authority.

Bismarck and the Church

One of the first challenges Bismarck faced was with the Catholic Church in the so-called Kulturkampf (kul•TUR•KAHMF), or cultural struggle, between Church and state. After German unification, Catholics in Germany organized the Center party to represent their interests in opposition to the predominantly Protestant Prussians.

Bismarck viewed Catholicism as an antinationalist force and consequently supported the Protestants in political affairs. In part, he was annoyed at the popularity of the Center party. He was also worried about an 1870 proclamation by Catholic bishops in Rome declaring papal infallibility—the doctrine that the pope, when speaking on matters of faith and morals, is infallible, or free from error.

Since the Jesuits, in Bismarck’s eyes, were papal agents working to destroy the German Empire, the chancellor launched his campaign against the Church by expelling the Jesuits from Germany in 1872. One year later, the German legislature began passing a series of laws aimed at destroying Catholic influence in Germany. These so-called May Laws deprived Catholic bishops of much of their authority and even required that weddings be performed by secular officials. In response,
Pope Pius IX declared the laws invalid and broke diplomatic ties with Germany.

Bismarck soon realized that he was fighting a losing battle. Instead of weakening the Center party, Bismarck’s repressive measures strengthened it. In the legislative elections of 1877, the Center party gained even more seats. Even the Junker-controlled Conservative party began to oppose Bismarck’s policies. Knowing that he needed the support of the Center party to defeat a serious challenge from the Socialists, Bismarck sought to make peace with the Catholics.

When Pope Pius IX died in 1878, his successor, Leo XIII, made an effort to heal the rift with Germany. Eventually, the German legislature repealed most laws directed against Catholics. By 1881 the Kulturkampf was over.

Germany’s Industrial Growth

Prior to unification, Germany was not a great industrial nation. Primarily agricultural, the German states lagged far behind Great Britain in the production of textiles, coal, iron, and steel. Knowing that Germany’s position as a major political and military power depended on a strong economy, German political and business leaders worked to expand the nation’s industry. By the mid-1800s, advances in many areas began to transform Germany’s economy. The establishment of the Zollverein had already encouraged economic growth and spurred efforts to improve transportation. After unification, investment capital from Great Britain, France, and Belgium helped to modernize industrial production and establish a mechanized factory system.

The development of deep-pit coal mining in the provinces along the Rhine and the opening of new coal mines in the Saar made available large reserves of cheap fuel for the new plants. Cities grew rapidly. Many young men and women streamed in from the villages to work in the new factories. As a result, at the end of the 1800s, Germany finally became a major industrial power.

The economic changes sweeping Germany conferred on at least some of its people the highest standard of living in Europe. The middle class and the business leaders benefited enormously from the rapid industrialization of the country. Every improvement in factory machinery, however, resulted in lower wages and higher unemployment for many German workers. They lived in crowded, filthy tenements and toiled long hours under dangerous working conditions.

Workers and Socialism

Poor wages, long workdays, and job uncertainty made German workers receptive to a more hopeful vision of the future. They looked forward to a democratic social order in which they would no longer be exploited. To help bring about this new order in Germany, Ferdinand Lassalle, a writer and labor leader, founded the Universal German Workingmen’s Association in 1863. Although he called himself a Socialist and a disciple of Karl Marx, Lassalle did not preach revolution. Whereas Marx called for the workers of the world to revolt against capitalism, Lassalle advocated mass political action to change the system.

Lassalle was a national celebrity who knew Bismarck and lectured him on the workers’ plight. He did not live long enough, however, to finish the fight, for he was killed in a duel in 1864. The party he founded grew slowly until it merged with the Social Democratic party in 1875 and became a major political force.
Ludwig II, King of Bavaria, ruled the independent German kingdom of Bavaria until 1871 and built for himself the storybook Neuschwanstein castle. He came to the throne unprepared to rule but enthusiastic about indulging his two passions: opera and palaces. Ludwig's castles were based on his romantic vision of the past. In each new mansion, rooms were decorated to look like scenes from the famous operas of nineteenth-century composer Richard Wagner. Ludwig's dreamy castles glorified and enshrined a bygone Germany. Ludwig's ministers, who had to find the cash to pay for his follies, finally had him declared insane and removed from power. Today his castle is one of Germany's leading tourist attractions.

While Ludwig dreamed and listened to romantic operas, Count Otto von Bismarck set about uniting the German Confederation and creating a modern German nation through military strength. "The great questions of the age," Bismarck once remarked, "are not settled by speeches and majority votes ... but by iron and blood."
Bismarck and the Socialists

Despite his association with Lassalle, Bismarck believed that any Socialist party was out to change the government and that it therefore posed a serious threat to the German Empire. To destroy the Socialist movement in Germany, he set out to crush its organization. In 1878 the German legislature passed an anti-Socialist bill introduced by Bismarck. Although the bill did not outlaw the party itself, it banned all Socialist meetings and publications.

Bismarck’s efforts to suppress the Socialists met with only temporary success. Consequently, Bismarck changed his tactics. He tried to show the workers that the government, and not the Socialists, had their true interests at heart. He directed the passage of several bills that gave workers some measure of comfort and security. In 1883, for example, the Sickness Insurance Law gave limited compensation to those who missed work because of illness. In 1889 the Old Age Insurance Law protected industrial workers in retirement.

Bismarck’s reform efforts, however, did not go far enough to end the popularity of the Socialists. In 1890 the Social Democratic party won 35 seats in the legislature, which then refused to renew Bismarck’s anti-Socialist law.

The Fall of Bismarck

In 1888 Kaiser William I died at the age of 91. Crown Prince Frederick, his liberal-minded son, succeeded him. Frederick III, however, died about 100 days after his coronation. William II, his son, succeeded him as emperor in 1888.

Only 29 years old at the time of his coronation, William II was a man of great energy and strong conservative opinions. Like his grandfather, William I, he favored militarism, or support for a powerful military prepared for war. His belief in the absolute authority of the emperor immediately brought him into conflict with Bismarck.

Under William I, Bismarck often got his way by threatening to resign. When Bismarck offered his resignation in 1890, the kaiser accepted it. Much to Bismarck’s surprise, William II “sent the veteran pilot over the side,” as a popular cartoon of the time illustrated Bismarck’s dismissal.

Bismarck’s policies had left Germany strong, but his strict rule prevented the development of a parliamentary democracy. With Bismarck gone, William II was free to pursue his own policies. During his reign Germany became one of the world’s major industrial and military powers.

SECTION 3 ASSESSMENT

Main Idea
1. Use a diagram like the one below to list ways in which Bismarck’s policies affected the German Empire.

Recall
2. Define papal infallibility, militarism.
3. Identify Kulturkampf, Pope Pius IX, Ferdinand Lassalle, William II.

Critical Thinking
4. Evaluating Information Predict what might have happened if Frederick III had not died so soon after becoming kaiser of a united Germany.

Understanding Themes
5. Change What tactics did Bismarck use in his attempt to block challenges from Catholicism and the Socialist movement?
In the early 1800s the Russian Empire stretched from Europe to the Pacific Ocean. More than 60 nationalities, speaking over 100 different languages, populated this vast territory. Although Slavs, including Russians, comprised nearly two-thirds of the population, many other European, Middle Eastern, and Asiatic peoples lived within the empire.

The agricultural economy of the Russian Empire was more oppressive but not much more effective than it had been during the Middle Ages. Serfdom, long in decline in western Europe, still bound the peasants living and working in rural areas. As a result of this entrenched agricultural system, Russia’s level of industrialization remained lower than that of western Europe.

As an autocracy, a government in which one person rules with unlimited authority, the political structure of the Russian Empire had also remained much as it was in the days of Peter the Great. The forces of reform, already at work in western Europe in the early 1800s, soon threatened this traditional economic and political order of the Russian Empire.

Autocracy on the Defensive

Alexander I, who ruled from 1801 to 1825, dreamed of improving Russia’s system of government and even granted a constitution to Russian-ruled Poland for a brief period of time. Convinced by the Napoleonic Wars that he was the savior of Europe, Alexander soon lost his desire to improve social, political, and economic conditions within his country.

The Russian officers who fought in the Napoleonic Wars were impressed by the reforms they saw in western Europe. Many of these officers joined secret societies to discuss the need in their country for economic reform, for a constitutional government, and for freeing the serfs. In December
1825, some of these officers took advantage of the uncertainty about the transfer of power after Alexander I’s death and staged a military revolt.

Although the government quickly crushed the so-called Decembrist Revolt, the uprising had two very different effects. Its leaders were seen as martyrs and inspired later generations of revolutionaries. In the short term, however, the uprising hardened the determination of Alexander I’s successor, Nicholas I, to strengthen the autocracy and suppress all opposition.

Under Nicholas I, the secret police had unlimited power to arrest and imprison people without trial and to censor the press. Despite Nicholas I’s efforts to resist change, demands for reform persisted during the 1830s and 1840s. Russian losses in the Crimean War underscored the fact that the Russian Empire was in serious trouble. Nicholas, however, was too ill to begin any reforms. Following Nicholas I’s death in 1855, his son Alexander II undertook the task of saving the autocracy and preventing a revolution.

Alexander II and Reforms

Russia’s humiliating defeat in the Crimean War revealed the extent to which the nation lagged behind the other European powers militarily and economically. One major reason for Russia’s backwardness was its system of serf labor. To progress, Russia needed to industrialize, but to industrialize, the factories needed a steady source of cheap labor. Only the serfs could provide this labor force, but they were not free to leave the land.

On March 3, 1861, Alexander II decreed the emancipation, or freeing, of the serfs. Although the serfs attained legal freedom, they received no land individually. Their village communities, called mirs, were granted varying amounts of the landlords’ holdings, for which they had to undertake a 50-year mortgage. Peasants could not leave the mirs without paying their share, so they were still bound to the worst land and had an additional tax to pay. The landlords kept the best land and...
received compensation from the government for their losses.

Many peasants gave up farming rather than return to bondage. Landless peasants moved from the farms to the cities, adding to the growing numbers of unskilled urban workers. Their discontent revealed itself in occasional minor uprisings and produced new stirrings of revolutionary activity in the Russian Empire.

Because the emancipation decree took control of the provinces away from the landowners, it also created the need for a new system of local government. An 1864 law created this new system. Locally elected assemblies called *zemstvos* took charge of provincial matters such as schools and health care. Three groups could vote in zemstvo elections: the nobility, the wealthy townspeople, and the peasants. The vote was weighted, however, so that noblemen and rich taxpayers dominated the local assemblies.

Czar Alexander II became known as the Czar Liberator for freeing the serfs and for his many reforms. In addition to those already mentioned, he limited the use and authority of the secret police, eased restrictions on the press, modernized the judicial system, and expanded the educational system. Alexander also reorganized the Russian army, reducing the period of active military service from 25 years to 6 years.

Unfortunately, the reforms of Alexander II satisfied few Russians. The landowners had lost both land and power. The peasantry had made few economic gains. Conservatives feared weakening of the autocracy, while reformers pushed for even greater changes. Designed to stem discontent, the reforms failed to halt the growth of revolutionary movements.

**Terror and Reaction**

Among the most vocal critics of the Russian government during Alexander II’s reign were intellectuals and students from the upper and middle classes. Although these reformers had strong ideals, they had little practical political experience and almost no direct contact with the Russian people, especially the peasants.

**Radical Movements**

Some radical reformers, such as Michael Bakunin, advocated *anarchy*, or the absence of government, and called for the complete destruction of the state, the family, law, property, and other institutions. *Nihilists* (from the Latin *nihil*, meaning “nothing”) also rejected all traditions, believing that Russia would have to destroy the czarist autocracy and build a completely new society.

Beginning in the early 1870s, many reformers became active in a new movement known as populism. The populists believed that the peasants would eventually lead a revolution, overthrow the czar, and establish a socialist society. To further their cause, groups of students and intellectuals went to the villages to prepare the peasants for revolution. The peasants, however, often grew suspicious of the young revolutionaries and sometimes even turned them over to the police. Frustrated by their lack of success, many populists turned to violent tactics.

The most radical faction of the revolutionaries plotted the assassinations of key officials in order to frighten the government into making radical reforms. Beginning in 1866, revolutionaries made several attempts to assassinate Alexander II. Although Alexander insisted that these radicals be crushed, he eventually responded to popular pressure by drafting a plan to establish a national assembly. Before the plan could be enacted, however, a young revolutionary killed the czar with a bomb in 1881.

**Alexander III**

Alexander III, who succeeded his father, vowed to maintain the old order and crush revolutionaries. He warned that he would not tolerate a constitution and reduced the powers of the zemstvos. Reversing his father’s reforms, he abolished autonomy in the schools, restored censorship of the press, and extended the powers of the secret police.

To protect the autocracy, Alexander III used a resurgence of nationalism to promote a policy of *Russification*. Designed as an attempt to unite the empire’s many peoples, Russification instead
became an official policy of intolerance and persecution of non-Russian peoples. Anyone who questioned the czar’s authority, who spoke a language other than Russian, or who followed a religion other than Eastern Orthodoxy risked prosecution. Russification singled out the Jews in particular for persecution. Government decrees deprived Jews of the right to own land and forced them to live in a certain area of the empire called the Pale. The government also encouraged bloody pogroms, or organized massacres of a minority group, in Jewish communities.

The Revolution of 1905

After Alexander III’s death in 1894, many Russians were disappointed when his son Nicholas II stated he would also rule as an autocrat. The new czar, however, lacked the strong will to make absolute rule effective. He was easily influenced by those around him, particularly his wife, Empress Alexandra, who wanted their son to inherit an autocracy.

During the reign of Nicholas II, a revolutionary mood swept over Russia. Peasants grew increasingly dissatisfied; national minorities called for an end to persecution; and middle-class reformers pushed for a constitutional monarchy. At the same time, the emancipation of the serfs and rapid industrialization had resulted in a marked increase in the size of the urban working class. Russian factories at the turn of the century lacked proper lighting, ventilation, and sanitation. Workers toiled long hours for little pay and lived in terrible, overcrowded housing. Not surprisingly, then, urban workers joined the ranks of the dissatisfied.

Russian Marxists

By the early 1900s several revolutionary groups in Russia followed the teachings of Karl Marx. Their members believed that the working class, not the peasants, would lead the revolution. The Mensheviks believed that Russia needed to develop into an industrial state with a sizable working class before a socialist revolution could occur. The more radical Bolsheviks, led by Vladimir Ilyich Ulyanov—commonly known as Lenin—believed that a small party of professional revolutionaries
could use force to bring about a socialist society in the near future.

**Upheavals**
War between Russia and Japan in 1904 over control of Manchuria furthered the Socialists’ cause. Russian land forces suffered major setbacks, and a Russian fleet attempting to deliver supplies lost many ships in a Japanese attack. With the mediation of the United States, the war-exhausted empires finally concluded a peace agreement in 1905.

Russia’s humiliating military performance heightened opposition to the czar’s government by urban workers, middle-class thinkers, and peasants. The war had strained the Russian economy, raising food prices while keeping wages low.

Spontaneous strikes began to break out in many cities throughout the empire. On Sunday, January 22, 1905, about 200,000 workers marched in a peaceful procession to the czar’s palace in St. Petersburg to present a petition for reform. Palace soldiers opened fire on the crowd, killing hundreds of workers. Bloody Sunday, as the demonstration was called, set off a wave of political protests.

Middle-class organizations drew up programs for political reform. The zemstvos issued lists of demands. In the spring of 1905, the first soviets, or workers’ councils, formed to voice workers’ grievances. From all reformist and revolutionary groups came the cry for the establishment of a representative government elected by universal suffrage.

In October 1905, angry workers seized control of the major cities in a general strike. As disorder and violence in the cities and rural areas continued, Nicholas II announced a law providing for the election of a national duma, or legislature. The czar, however, proposed that the Duma serve as an advisory council rather than a genuine legislative body. Instead of appeasing the Russian people, the measure set off more nationwide strikes.

The events of October forced Nicholas to yield reluctantly to the demands of his people. The czar issued the October Manifesto, granting civil rights to citizens and allowing the Duma to make laws. In theory, Russia became a constitutional monarchy; in practice, Nicholas kept his powers. Stern measures to restore order, including pogroms against the Jews and the arrests of peasant and labor leaders, took place. When the Duma tried to act independently, Nicholas dissolved it.

Nicholas II’s ability to silence opposition was only temporary. Russia’s many serious troubles had not been resolved. On the eve of World War I, growing numbers of peasants, workers, national minorities, and middle-class reformers supported an immediate end to the autocracy. Their demands and the stress of war would soon bring revolution to the Russian Empire.
In the early 1800s, in addition to Russia and the Ottoman Empire, there was a third dominant power in eastern Europe: Austria. The Austrian Empire at this time contained more than 11 different national groups, including the Germans of Austria and the Magyars of Hungary.

Like Russia, Austria lacked national and geographical unity. Also as in Russia, life in Austria remained almost feudal at the beginning of the 1800s. A powerful landed nobility controlled a large peasant population and resisted any change in the old agricultural system. Through strict censorship and the arrest and intimidation of protesters, the government sought to stem the forces of nationalism and revolution sweeping through Europe.

The Revolution of 1848

As you learned in Chapter 22, the principal political figure in Austria during the early 1800s was Prince Klemens von Metternich, who held the office of minister of foreign affairs from 1809 to 1848. Metternich believed that democratic and nationalist movements would destroy the Austrian Empire and threaten peace in Europe. As a result, Metternich worked to crush all revolutionary activity, both within and outside the empire.

Despite Metternich’s conservative policies, however, the revolutionary movement that had begun in France in 1848 spread to Austria the same year. Throughout the empire, nationalist groups demanded freedom of speech and press, peasant relief from feudal dues, and a representative government. The Austrian Empire seemed on the verge of collapse.

The tide of revolutionary activity was to turn once more, however. Infighting among nationalist groups and within radical factions with different...
political ideas enabled conservative forces to strike back. In Vienna, for example, conflict between middle-class moderates who wanted to reform the political system and radical workers who wanted to overthrow it weakened the revolutionary movement. By October 1848, the government once more occupied the capital. When Emperor Francis Ferdinand resigned his throne, his nephew, Francis Joseph, became emperor at the age of 18.

Francis Joseph moved quickly to restore the conservative order. He dissolved the revolutionary assembly and rejected the new constitution. Although threatened, the old regime had managed to withstand revolutionary change by playing one nationalist faction against another.

Throughout his 68-year reign, Francis Joseph struggled to maintain a unified empire. Neither repressive measures nor reforms, however, helped ease the nationalist tensions that threatened Austria. At the same time, a series of foreign crises further weakened the empire. In 1859 Austria was forced to give up the Italian province of Lombardy. Then in 1866, during the Seven Weeks’ War with Prussia, Austria lost its influence over its German states as well.

The Dual Monarchy

Francis Joseph’s efforts to strengthen his authority were most effectively challenged by the Magyars of Hungary. In 1848 Hungarian nationalists led by Louis Kossuth declared Hungary an independent republic, but this achievement was short-lived. With Russian help, Austrian forces defeated the Hungarian nationalists, and Hungary was restored to the Austrian Empire. After Austria’s defeat in the Seven Weeks’ War (1866), however, Francis Joseph realized that his empire’s stability depended on better relations with the Hungarians. He met with Hungarian leader Francis Deák to see if a compromise could be worked out.

After months of negotiations, Austria and Hungary finally reached an agreement in 1867. The Ausgleich (OWS•glyk), or Compromise, restored Hungary’s independence and divided the Austrian Empire into a dual monarchy: the empire of Austria and the kingdom of Hungary. Francis Joseph remained ruler of both areas. He kept his title as emperor of Austria, and the Hungarians crowned him king of Hungary.

In addition to sharing a monarch, the two states had common ministries of foreign affairs, war, and finance. A system of committees handled other matters of mutual concern. In internal affairs, however, Austria and Hungary were completely independent of each other. Each had its own constitution, prime minister, and parliament.

While Austria and Hungary were independent politically, they were dependent on each other economically. Industrialized Austria supplied manufactured goods for the peoples of the dual

Visualizing History

Francis Joseph ruled the Austrian Empire for 68 years. When he came to the throne in 1848, Europe was in the midst of revolutions. When he died in 1916, Europe was in the midst of World War I. What change did Francis Joseph agree to in 1867 in order to save his empire?
monarchy. Agricultural Hungary supplied food products. Their cooperation, however, was not without conflict. Disputes inevitably developed between Austria and Hungary over foreign trade, tariffs, and currency.

During the mid-1800s, Austrian industrial growth had been slow. After the creation of the dual monarchy, however, the empire’s production of coal, iron, steel, and manufactured goods grew rapidly. The territories of Bohemia and Moravia became the empire’s leading industrial centers, producing machine tools, textiles, armaments, shoes, and chemicals. The concentration of industry in Bohemia and Moravia caused a more rapid urbanization in those areas.

The dual monarchy was satisfactory to both the Austrian-Germans, who maintained power in Austria, and the Magyars, who controlled Hungary. Other nationalities remained discontented. Three-fifths of the population of Austria-Hungary were Slavs—Poles, Czechs, Slovaks, Serbs, and Bosnians—who had no voice in the government. Many Slavic nationalist groups dreamed of breaking free from the Austro-Hungarian Empire and forming a large Slav kingdom. Their discontent became a threat to the empire’s unity.

**Powder Keg in the Balkans**

By the mid-1800s, the Ottoman Empire had declined to a weakened and diminished state. In 1829 Greece won its independence. By 1850 the Ottomans had lost the provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia to Russia and Algeria to France. In addition, Egypt, Arabia, and several Balkan territories had gained their autonomy.

Foreign powers watched the decline of the Ottoman Empire closely. Austria hoped to expand into the Balkan region. France sought to protect persecuted Catholics within the empire. Great Britain feared disruption of its Mediterranean trade. The primary objective of these foreign powers, though, was to prevent Russian expansion into the region. “We have a sick man on our hands,” declared Czar Nicholas I, referring to Turkey, and Russia stood ready to contribute to its final collapse.

During the Crimean War, from 1854 to 1856, France, Great Britain, and Sardinia helped defend the Ottoman Empire against Russia’s advances. Although the Ottoman allies defeated Russia in this war, the empire continued to lose power and territory. In 1875 nationalists in the Balkan states of Serbia, Bulgaria, and Romania rose up in revolt, demanding immediate independence from Turkey. The Turks brutally suppressed these revolts with widespread massacres.
The Congress of Berlin

In 1877 Russia went to war on behalf of the Slavic people in the Balkan Peninsula. Publicly embracing the Slavic nationalist movement because it suited the government’s imperial ambitions, Russia used the conflict known as the Russo-Turkish War to justify its expansion into Balkan territory. The Treaty of San Stefano (1878), which ended the war, created a large Russian-controlled Bulgarian state.

As news of Russian victories reached Great Britain, the public cried out for war. A popular slogan at the time captured the sentiment: “We don’t want to fight, but by jingo, if we do, we’ve got the men, we’ve got the ships, we’ve got the money, too.” From this slogan came the term jingoism, describing extreme patriotism, usually provoked by a perceived foreign threat.

The great European powers protested the Treaty of San Stefano. In the end a congress of European leaders met in Berlin, Germany, to revise it. At the meeting, which began in June 1878, representatives of the European powers divided Bulgaria into three parts, one of which remained under Ottoman rule. Neighboring Serbia, Montenegro, and Romania, on the other hand, won their complete independence. Britain gained control of Cyprus, and Austria-Hungary won the Balkan provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

The Congress of Berlin satisfied few. Russia lost its war gains, and the Ottoman Empire lost much of its European territory. In addition, the congress dealt with the Balkan states inequitably, granting independence for some, but not all, of the people of any given nationality.

Balkan Conflict

By 1912 the Balkan states had joined forces and moved to free members of their respective nationalities from Ottoman rule. Encouraged by Italy’s easy victory over the Turks in North Africa, the Balkan League—consisting of Bulgaria, Greece, Montenegro, and Serbia—declared war on Turkey in 1912. As a result of the war, the Ottomans lost all of their European territory with the exception of Istanbul and a small surrounding area.

Unity among members of the Balkan League was short-lived. No sooner had the Balkan states won the war than they began to fight among themselves over the lands they had gained. Before the war, Serbia and Bulgaria had secretly arranged for land distribution in case of victory. After the war, Bulgaria refused to go along with the plan, not wanting to give up territory won directly in battle.

To keep their land, the Bulgarians in June 1913 attacked Greek and Serb forces in the disputed area. In this second Balkan War, Montenegro and Greece sided with Serbia against Bulgaria. Romania joined the fighting when it saw the opportunity to win land from Bulgaria. The Balkan conflict brought new hope to the Ottomans. Seeing the chance to recover its own lost European territory, the Ottoman Empire attacked Bulgaria.

The fighting ended in 1913 with the Treaty of Bucharest, and the disputed land was redistributed. Bulgaria, which lost the war, surrendered much of the land it had previously won from the Ottomans.

The Treaty of Bucharest did not bring lasting peace to the Balkans. Serbia’s increased power encouraged nationalism among Slavs and threatened Austria-Hungary. Russia, in supporting the pan-Slavic movement, sought to extend its own influence in the Balkans. The French, British, and German governments tried to preserve the existing balance of power to prevent either Austria-Hungary or Russia from gaining greater influence in the area. Writers of the time called the Balkans “the powder keg of Europe” because it seemed inevitable that events there would sooner or later explode into a major European war.

SECTION 5 ASSESSMENT

Main Idea
1. Use a diagram like the one below to list effects of nationalism on Austria-Hungary.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cause</th>
<th>Effects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nationalism in Austria-Hungary</td>
<td>in their reasons for intervening in the Ottoman Empire’s problems</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Recall
2. Define dual monarchy, jingoism.
3. Identify Francis Joseph, Francis Deák, the Congress of Berlin.

Critical Thinking
4. Analyzing Information
How did the empires of Austria-Hungary and Russia differ from the Balkan countries

Understanding Themes
5. Diversity Explain how ethnic diversity and rising nationalism contributed to the decline of Austria-Hungary. Could this decline have been avoided? Why or why not?
You have to write a report, so you head to the library. There you are surrounded by shelves of books. Where do you begin?

**Learning the Skill**

Libraries contain many kinds of research sources. Understanding the content and purpose of each type will help you find relevant information more efficiently. Here are brief descriptions of important sources:

**Reference Books** Reference books include encyclopedias, biographical dictionaries, atlases, and almanacs.

An encyclopedia is a set of books with short articles on many subjects arranged alphabetically. General encyclopedias present a wide range of topics, while specialized encyclopedias have articles on a theme—e.g., an encyclopedia of music.

A biographical dictionary provides brief biographies listed alphabetically by last names. Each biography gives data such as place and date of birth, occupation, and achievements.

An atlas is a collection of maps and charts for locating geographical features and places. An atlas can be general or thematic. An atlas contains an alphabetical index of place names that directs you to the map(s) where that place appears.

An almanac is an annually updated reference that provides current statistics together with historical information on a wide range of subjects.

**Card Catalog** The library’s catalog, on computer or cards, lists every book in the library. Each listing gives the book’s author, title, subject, call number, and location. Computer catalogs also show whether the book is available.

Many libraries have joined networks. A library network usually has a single computer catalog listing all the books in the network. A patron can borrow any book in the system.

**Periodical Guides** A periodical guide is a set of books listing topics covered in magazine and newspaper articles.

**Computer Databases** Computer databases provide collections of information organized for rapid search and retrieval.

If you have trouble finding the needed information, ask the librarian for help.

**Practicing the Skill**

Suppose you are going to Germany and want to learn more about the country before you go. Read the research questions below. Then decide which of the following sources you would use to answer each question and why.

- a. encyclopedia
- b. atlas
- c. historical atlas
- d. almanac
- e. biographical dictionary
- f. catalog entry: Germany—travel
- g. catalog entry: Germany—modern history
- h. periodical guide

1. Locate each city on the trip itinerary.
2. What are the places of interest in each city?
3. What have been the major events in German history since 1800?
4. What political issues face Germany today?

**Applying the Skill**

Use research resources from your school or local library to research the following topic:

What medical treatment was given to Czarevitch Alexis, son of Nicholas II and Alexandra? How has medical care of hemophiliacs improved since 1910? List your sources.

**For More Practice**

Turn to the Skill Practice in the Chapter Assessment on page 477.
Reviewing Facts

1. **History** Use a time line like the one below to show key events in the Balkan conflicts between 1815 and 1914.

   ![Time Line]

   - 1815
   - 1914

2. **Government** Explain how Sardinia gained control of the Italian struggle for unification.

3. **Government** Identify the leaders of Italy’s unification movement.

4. **Economics** Describe the Zollverein. How did it help Prussia lead the German Confederation?

5. **Government** List the challenges that faced the new German state.

6. **Government** Explain why the reforms of Alexander II satisfied few Russians.

7. **History** State the effects of the 1905 Revolution on Russian government and society.

Critical Thinking

1. **Apply** How did foreign powers help Italians achieve independence?

2. **Contrast** How did the problems that Italy faced after unification differ from the problems that Germany faced?

3. **Synthesize** Why do you think Austria agreed to the compromise with Hungary that established the dual monarchy?

4. **Evaluate** What do you think might have happened if Russia’s Czar Nicholas II had given the Duma full legislative power?

Using Your History Journal

Read two or three recent news magazine reports on Bosnia and Herzegovina. Write an essay about how to achieve lasting peace in the Balkans.

Using Key Terms

Write the key term that completes each sentence. Then write a sentence for each term not chosen.

- a. anarchy
- b. duma
- c. jingoism
- d. nationalism
- e. Russification
- f. autocracy
- g. dual monarchy
- h. nihilists
- i. kaiser
- j. pogroms
- k. emancipation
- l. zemstvo

1. In the 1800s some radical reformers in Russia called for ________, the complete destruction of the government, the family, law, property, and other institutions.

2. In 1867 Austria and Hungary reached an agreement to transform the Austrian Empire into a __________, consisting of two separate but interrelated kingdoms.

3. During the 1800s the Russian Empire was an ________, a government in which one person rules with unlimited authority.

4. Among Russian revolutionaries, the ________ rejected all traditions, believing that Russia would have to completely build a new society.

5. The Russian government encouraged bloody ________, or organized massacres, in Jewish communities of the Russian Empire.

Technology Activity

Using a Word Processor

Search the Internet or your local library for sources about the history of Russian czars. Using a word processor or software, create a genealogy chart of the Romanov dynasty. Include a short report explaining why the empire of the czars ended and how it impacted Russian culture.
Geography in History

1. **Place** Refer to the map below. In what two areas was most of the fighting during the Russo-Japanese War?
2. **Movement** Across what two bodies of water were Japanese troops transported to the war zone?
3. **Movement** What railway helped in moving Japanese forces north?
4. **Region** What effect did Russia’s setback in this region have on the czar’s government?

![Map of Russo-Japanese War](image)

Understanding Themes

1. **Nationalism** How did the rise of nationalism spur the unification movement in Italy?
2. **Conflict** How did Bismarck promote his goal of German unification?
3. **Change** What changes came to Germany’s economy after unification?
4. **Reaction** How did the policies of Alexander III affect the Jews and other non-Russian groups within the Russian Empire?
5. **Diversity** How did the great diversity of nationalities in the Austrian Empire lead to the establishment of the dual monarchy in the mid-1800s?

Skill Practice

For each research question below, decide which of these sources would provide relevant information.

- **a.** encyclopedia
- **b.** atlas
- **c.** historical atlas
- **d.** almanac
- **e.** biographical dictionary
- **f.** catalog entry: European history 19th century
- **g.** catalog entry: nationalism
- **h.** periodical guide

1. How have the borders of the countries discussed in Chapter 15 changed since World War I?
2. What are the latest population statistics for Germany, Italy, Austria, Hungary, and Russia?
3. What were Otto von Bismarck’s greatest accomplishments?
4. What nationalist struggles have occurred in Europe in the last decade?