

8 – The Ideologies of the 19th Century: Liberalism, Conservatism, Nationalism, and Culture

Key Terms

Unification	Giuseppe Garibaldi	Meiji Restoration
Otto Von Bismarck	Camillo Di Cavour	Theodore Herzl
Kaiser Wilhelm I	Victor Emmanuel II	Realism
Austro-Prussian War (Seven Weeks' War)	Liberalism	Impressionism
Franco-Prussian War	Pan-Slavism	Sergei Witte
Giuseppe Mazzini	Socialism	Peter Stolypin
	Romanticism	

OVERVIEW

The period following the French Revolution and the Napoleonic Wars, known as the Age of Metternich, saw the rise of powerful ideologies, some of which were legacies of the French Revolution, and some of which were responses to the political, economic, and social upheavals of the previous decades. Nationalism was both the most promising and the most destructive of these. Nationalism was the prime motive for the unification of Italy and of Germany; it was a force that redefined political boundaries and loyalties and that encouraged claims of national or racial superiority.

Liberalism, socialism, and romanticism profoundly influenced the politics, economics, and culture of the first half of the nineteenth century. Realism defined the literature of the latter half of the century, impressionism brought the artist's personal visual experience to painting, and Social Darwinism and positivism provided scientific models for politics and the arts.

One decade, 1861 to 1871, saw the triumph of the large nation-state as Europe's primary political unit. Italy and Germany consolidated; Austria and Hungary formed autonomous but united states; Russia centralized governmental control.

The nation-state is founded upon a sense of nationalism: a common identity; a specific geographic area; a common language, history, destiny, culture, ethnicity, or religion. It is a consciousness of belonging and of the differences between one's own people and all others on this planet.

The French Revolution and Napoleon's military successes inspired the drive to national unity throughout Europe. Nationalism promised power, the mystical connection that the Romantic Movement glorified, and autonomy

from the remote leadership of amorphous, arbitrarily controlled and administered multinational empires. France and England were the two most powerful nation-states before 1861; Italy became united as a kingdom in 1861; Germany formed a new empire in 1871. War played a crucial role in both Italy's and Germany's unifications. The idealism of the Revolutions of 1848 had failed to realize the nationalist aspirations of the Italians or the Germans. If the Italian and German peoples, traditionally separated into small independent states, were ready for unification, it still took the "power politics" (*realpolitik*) of two determined men to bring about unity: Camillo di Cavour, Sardinian prime minister, and Otto von Bismarck, Prussian chancellor. They used the might and prestige of their states to bring smaller independent entities together to create the modern nation-states of Italy and Germany. After 1871, the balance of power in Europe was changed in a way that would last well into the twentieth century.

The Age of Nationalism

After 1848, nationalism became more prevalent in Europe and around the world. A new breed of conservative leaders—including Napoleon III, Cavour, and Bismarck—co-opted the agenda of nationalists for the purposes of creating or strengthening the state. The supremacy of the nation-state was gaining ground in organizing the political, social, economic, and cultural activities of a group. Ethnic identities were central to the development of nationalism, which should not be confused with patriotism, or with the level of support for a nation-state.

- *Napoleon III* was the nephew of *the Napoleon* (Napoleon I) who, despite defeat, exile, and death, was considered by the French to be one of their greatest leaders.
 - Louis Napoleon was elected president of France by a landslide in 1848, largely because of his illustrious name.
 - Between 1852, when he had proclaimed a Second Empire, and 1870, after France's ignominious defeat in the Franco-Prussian War, he made many improvements:
 - Restored the economy.
 - Laid the foundations for democratic reforms.
 - Renewed the national pride of the French people.
- The creation of the dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary, which recognized the political power of the largest ethnic minority, was an attempt to stabilize the state of Austria into the Austro-Hungarian Empire, by

reconfiguring national unity.

- The Civil War (1861-1865) in the United States resulted in a more solid union and in a more powerful federal government, setting an example for Europe.
- After defeat at the hands of the French and English in *The Crimean War (1853-1856)*, Russia modernized and industrialized and initiated a program of limited reforms to solidify czarist control over the multinational peoples of Russia's vast reaches.
- Japan, in response to Western incursions in the 1850s and 1860s, developed a modern military, an industrial economy, and a centralized government under Emperor Meiji, whose ancestors had been mere figureheads in what became known as the *Meiji Restoration*.
- In Russia, autocratic leaders pushed through a program of reform and modernization, which gave rise to revolutionary movements (and eventually to the Revolution of 1905), and included: the economic reforms of Czar Alexander II, who emancipated the serfs in 1861; Sergei Witte's economic reforms and attempted industrialization; and the attempted but failed reforms of Peter Stolypin.
- Many nations would be formed in Europe between 1860 and 1914.
- *Pan-Slavism* emerged as a force calling for Russia to protect other majority Slavic nations.
- Anti-Semitism emerged as a form of nationalist hatred against neighbors within their nation.
 - As a result, *Theodore Herzl* conceived of the idea of *Zionism*, or establishing a Jewish homeland in Israel, a concept that picked up energy through the nineteenth century and became a reality after the end of the Second World War and the "Holocaust."

THE UNIFICATION of ITALY

Italy Before Unification

Four Separate States

- *The Kingdom of Naples* ("Two Sicilies") was made up of the island of Sicily and the southern half of the Italian Peninsula.
- The *Papal States* comprised the middle of the peninsula.
- *Lombardy-Venetia*, industrialized provinces in the North, were ruled by Austria, as were Tuscany, Lucca, Modena, and Parma.

- *The Kingdom of Sardinia* (Piedmont-Sardinia), was made up of the island of Sardinia and the northwestern provinces of Nice, Savoy, and Piedmont.
 - Sardinia was a constitutional monarchy ruled by *Victor Emmanuel II* (r. 1849-1878).
 - Only independent state in Italy.
 - *Camillo di Cavour* (1810-1861) became prime minister of the parliament instituted during the Revolutions of 1848.
 - Rejected the romantic nationalism of *Giuseppe Mazzini* (1805-1872), who had argued in his *Duties of Man* that the nation was a divine device and an extended family.
 - Decided that Italy could be unified only through force, and that Sardinia would have to lead the battle.
 - In order to gain the support of liberals throughout Italy, Cavour reformed the government of his state by:
 - -Weakening the influence of the papacy;
 - Investing in public works, such as railroads and harbor improvements;
 - Abolishing internal tariffs;
 - Encouraging the growth of industry;
 - Emancipating the peasantry from the vestiges of manorialism;
 - Making the Sardinian government a model of progressive constitutionalism.

Cavour's "Power Politics"

After the Crimean War ended in 1856, Cavour, who had brought Sardinia into the war on the side of France in order to attain the favor of France in future situations, petitioned Emperor Napoleon III to support Sardinia in a projected war with Austria, which controlled many Italian provinces.

- Plombieres: In 1858, Cavour persuaded Napoleon III to send a supporting army into Italy in the event that Sardinia could maneuver Austria into a war.
- • Napoleon, who wanted to weaken the Austrians, was promised the French-speaking provinces of Nice and Savoy in return for allowing the Sardinians to annex Northern Italy.
- April 1859: *Austria declared war on Sardinia*, and the French came to

Cavour's aid.

- After a series of victories by the combined Sardinian-French forces, Napoleon suddenly pulled out of the war because of criticisms at home and threats from the Prussians.
- The Austrians kept Venice.
- Lombardy went to the Sardinians.
- Several of the northern duchies under Austrian domination declared independence and carried out plebiscites for union with Sardinia by 1860.
- *Giuseppe Garibaldi* (1807-1882) an ardent nationalist, invaded Sicily in 1860 with the encouragement of Cavour.
 - His thousand-man *Red Shirts* used popular support to defeat a Bourbon ruler's force that was ten times that number.
 - Within months, Garibaldi had subdued Sicily and Naples.
 - The Two Sicilies (Kingdom of Naples) joined Sardinia, and in *March 1861 the Kingdom of Italy was proclaimed*, with Victor Emmanuel II on the throne.

Final Unification

By 1870, the last holdouts of the kingdom of Lombardy-Venetia and the Papal States, despite opposition from the pope, had been incorporated into the growing nation of Italy. *Italia Irredenta* ("Italy unredeemed" – Italian areas still under Austrian control) remained "unliberated," but Italy had been united and was a constitutional monarchy. Democracy was diluted by the small percentage of the male population that had suffrage and by the dominance, in Southern Italy, of the landowners. There would be a divide between the wealthier and more industrialized Northern Italy and the southern more agrarian and less prosperous region.

THE UNIFICATION of GERMANY

Germany Before Unification

In the two decades or so before German unification took place, the population, productivity, and wealth of the German states increased many times over. The *Zollverein* (customs union) had opened most of the states to a mutually advantageous trade, and Germany became a single economic unit. Prussia, with its booming industry, powerful army, militaristic Junkers (landowning aristocrats), and expansionist ambitions led the states of

Northern Germany in a faceoff with Austria. The Habsburgs of Austria (rulers of a multinational empire held together by tradition and raw power and the prime influence among the divided states of Germany), had long feared a Germany united by the Hohenzollerns of Prussia. After the Frankfurt Assembly failed to unify the independent German states in 1848, however, the Prussian *Hohenzollern* kings determined to achieve it by force.

Bismarck's Realpolitik

When the Prussian parliament refused to approve military expenditures in 1862, King *Wilhelm I* (r. 1861-1888) appointed Otto von Bismarck (1815-1898), a prominent and conservative Junker, as chancellor. He trampled the parliament by collecting illegal taxes, ignoring its protests, enlarging the army, and, in the process, killing democracy in Prussia.

- “*Blood and Iron*,” he insisted, would solve the issues of his day and unite Germany.
- Achieved after Prussia won three wars:
 - *The War Against Denmark*, 1864, allied Prussia, Austria, and the other German states in an *all-German war* against Denmark, which had hoped to annex the neighboring province of *Schleswig*.
 - Denmark was quickly defeated and, after some prodding by Bismarck, Prussia and Austria fell out over who should get the spoils of war.
 - The *Austro-Prussian War (Seven Weeks' War)*, 1866, broke out when the issues of the war with Denmark remained unresolved.
 - Although the Austrians enlisted the help of most of the other German states, the superior arms, training, and leadership of the Prussian Army defeated them in seven weeks: why it is sometimes called the Seven Weeks' War.
 - Hoping to gain Austria's support in the inevitable struggle with France, which had become alarmed by Prussia's swift victories, Bismarck made the surrender terms lenient.
- Bismarck established the *North German Confederation* in 1867 to replace the loose union of the *German Confederation* that Napoleon had set up and that the Congress of Vienna had confirmed.
 - Twenty-one Germanic states of northern Europe united under the leadership of the Prussian king, with a two-house legislature:
 - The *Reichstag*, or lower house, to represent all the people and to be elected by universal male suffrage.

- The *Bundesrat*, or upper house, was created to represent the former nobility.
- The *Franco-Prussian War of 1870* broke out after a dynastic dispute over the Spanish throne led to a flurry of diplomatic exchanges between Prussia and France.
 - Bismarck deliberately altered the wording of the *Ems Dispatch*, an account of the German king's meeting with the French ambassador over the issue, and made the inflammatory revision public.
 - Napoleon III, bowing to public opinion and bad advice, declared war on Prussia in July 1870.
 - By September, the Prussian army had defeated the French in battle, taken the emperor prisoner, and begun a four-month siege of Paris.
 - The *Treaty of Frankfurt*, May 1871, gave *Alsace-Lorraine* to Germany and imposed a punishing *indemnity*, both of which the defeated French people were to resent for generations to come.
 - This treaty's harshness would lead the French to demand punishing terms for Germany in the *Treaty of Versailles* after the First World War.
 - Alsace-Lorraine would go back to France after the First World War.

Unification

Four southern German states – Baden, Bavaria, Hesse, and Württemberg – that did not already belong to the North German Confederation, joined after the flush of Prussian victory, and *the German Empire was born* in January 1871. The Prussian king became emperor, or *Kaiser*.

The Empire Under Kaiser Wilhelm I and Bismarck

Although the lower house of the imperial legislature, the Reichstag, was elected by universal male suffrage, it had little real power because the chancellor and his ministers were responsible to the Kaiser rather than to the legislature.

- Democracy in Germany took a backseat to autocracy.
- Bismarck's *Kulturkampf* (cultural struggle) was his repression of the so-called subversive elements in the empire, such as the Roman Catholic

Church and socialists.

- Reversing his original attacks on the Catholic Center Party by the late 1870s, he turned to the socialist “menace,” represented by the growing Social Democratic Party.
- When his official measures backfired, and the party grew even more popular, he pulled the rug out from under it by sponsoring a series of social reforms.
 - Workmen’s compensation, old-age pensions, and medical protection created one of the world’s most advanced social-welfare systems.
 - He took away any reason for the liberals to complain, and consolidated his power.
- When *Kaiser Wilhelm II* (r. 1888-1918) assumed the throne in 1888, he brought with him the archaic notion of divine right of rule and a deep resentment of Bismarck’s personal power.
 - In 1890, he dismissed Bismarck and up until his abdication at the close of the First World War in 1918, he dominated his chancellors.
 - His arrogance, ambition, and ineptitude in the early 1900s upset the balance of power and drove Europe toward world war.

Results of Nationalism

Nationalism became a very important force in world and European politics during the last half of the nineteenth century. It became one of the major causes of the First World War. That is why this chart is located here, even though many of the people listed lived during the twentieth century. National identities became increasingly important, and national autonomy for each ethnic group, in the form of national self-determination, became an ardent desire for many historically oppressed ethnic groups, just as it became an important justification for unification of Italy and Germany. The identity of a “we versus them,” discussed by Johan Gottfried Herder as part of his concept of the *volk* (folk of one nation), also explains much of the war and hardship of the twentieth century. Many of the worst conflicts in the world today still focus on this concept of one nation or ethnic group being better than or having more right to a land than any other nation or group. Nationalism also led to more popularly elected governments because of nationalist revolutions and unifications.

Modern Leaders of Assorted European Countries, or “Musical Chairs”

From the early 1800s, the parliamentary system began to come into vogue across the Continent, although in a lurching manner. However, suffice it to say that the parliamentary system these countries adopted usually had several parties and coalition governments. Rarely would one party gain enough votes to form its own government, leading to the creation of coalition governments composed of several parties with different agendas. Party loyalties shifted frequently and sometimes without an apparent cause. When one party decided to withdraw from the government, (often for personal and seemingly ridiculous reasons), new elections would have to be held. Thus, there are many changes in European leadership to keep track of :

Rulers in bold mean STOP and memorize their names and know why they are important; these individuals will very likely be on the AP test.

Rulers in italics mean PAUSE and be familiar with who they are; they may be on the test and rate some attention.

Rulers in regular text mean KEEP GOING. Sure, one might be on the test every ten years as a distractor in one of the last multiple-choice questions, but that is a chance we are willing to take. These names are included mainly for continuity's sake, but most professors do not know who they are and you do not need to either.

Insofar as dates go, keep a ballpark figure of when people reigned, lived, and so on, but memorizing the exact dates is frustrating and not necessary.

France

The French change rulers as often as some people change clothes. The variety of rulers has been mostly unimportant, but a few French leaders after 1871 may indeed pop up on the exam.

Name	Duration in office	Which Government?
<i>Louis Adolphe Thiers</i>	1871-1873	<i>Third Republic (President)</i>
Marie E. P. M. de MacMahon	1873-1879	Third Republic (President)
François P. J. Grévy	1879-1887	Third Republic (President)
Sadi Carnot	1887-1894	Third Republic (President)
Jean Casimir-Périer	1894-1895	Third Republic (President)
François Félix Faure	1895-1899	Third Republic (President)
Émile Laubet	1899-1906	Third Republic (President)

Clement Armand Fallières	1906-1913	Third Republic (President)
Raymond Poincaré	1913-1920	Third Republic (President)
Paul E. L. Deschanel	1920-1920	Third Republic (President)
Alexandre Millerand	1920-1924	Third Republic (President)
Gaston Daumergue	1924-1931	Third Republic (President)
Paul Daumer	1931-1932	Third Republic (President)
Assassinated Albert Lebrun	1932-1940	Third Republic (President)
<i>Henri Philippe Pétain</i>	<i>1940-1944</i>	<i>Vichy Government (Chief of State)</i>
Charles de Gaulle	1944-1946	Provisional Government (President)
Felix Gouin	1946	Provisional Government (President)
Georges Bidault	1946-1947	Provisional Government (President)
Vincent Auriol	1947-1954	Fourth Republic (President)
Rene Coty	1954-1959	Fourth Republic (President)
Charles de Gaulle	1959-1969	Fifth Republic (President)
Georges Pompidou	1969-1974	Fifth Republic (President)
Valery Giscard d'Estaing	1974-1981	Fifth Republic (President)
François Mitterrand	1981-1995	Fifth Republic (President)
<i>Jacques Chirac</i>	<i>1995-2007</i>	<i>Fifth Republic (President)</i>
Nicolas Sarkozy	2007-2012	Fifth Republic (President)
François Hollande	2012	Fifth Republic (President)

Germany

The German nation came into existence in 1871 but did not gain democratic rule until after World War I. This is a list of German chancellors and the governments they represented.

Name	Duration in office	Which German Government?
Friedrich Ebert	1919-1925	Weimar Republic
Paul von Hindenburg	1925-1934	Weimar Republic
Adolf Hitler	1934-1945	Third Reich
Karl Doenitz	1945-1945	Third Reich
Konrad Adenauer	1949-1963	West Germany
Ludwig Erhard	1963-1966	West Germany
Kurt Georg Kiesinger	1966-1969	West Germany
Willy Brandt	1969-1974	West Germany
Helmut Schmidt	1974-1982	West Germany
Helmut Kohl	1982-1990	West Germany
Wilhelm Pieck	1949-1960	East Germany
Walter Ulbricht	1960:-1973	East Germany

Willi Stoph	1973-1976	East Germany
<i>Erich Honecker</i>	<i>1976-1989</i>	<i>East Germany</i>
Egon Krenz	1989	East Germany
Manfred Gerlach	1989-1990	East Germany
Sabine Bergman-Pohl	1990	East Germany
<i>Helmut Kohl</i>	<i>1991-1998</i>	<i>Germany</i>
Gerhard Schröder	1998–2005	Germany
Angela Merkel	2005-	Germany

United Kingdom

Though the cabinet system was begun under Charles II, the position of a prime minister answerable to Parliament did not really develop until Robert Walpole.

The British party system developed around the time of the American Revolution. The *Tories* were the *conservative* party while the *Whigs* were the more *progressive* party. Eventually these evolved, respectively, into the Conservative (old Tory) and Liberal (old Whig) parties. The Liberal Party went on to become the Labour Party. During times of national emergencies (the First World War, the Second World War, and the Falkland Islands War), the two parties would “overcome their differences” and form coalition governments, which usually broke apart once peace was in sight.

Listed below are all of the British prime ministers since Walpole.

Name	Duration in office	Which Political Party?
<i>William Pitt the Younger</i>	1783-1801	<i>Tory</i>
Henry Addington	1801-1804	Tory (Later, Viscount Sidmouth)
<i>William Pitt the Younger</i>	1804-1806	<i>Tory</i>
<i>Baron Grenville</i>	1806-1807	<i>Whig</i>
Duke of Portland	1807-1809	Tory
Spencer Perceval	1809-1812	Tory
Earl of Liverpool	1812-1827	Tory
George Canning	1827	Tory
Viscount Goderich	1827-1828	Tory (Later, Earl of Ripon)
<i>Duke of Wellington</i>	1828-1830	<i>Tory (Led British troops in defeat of Napoleon at Waterloo)</i>
Earl Grey	1830-1834	Whig
Viscount Melbourne	1834	Whig
<i>Sir Robert Peel</i>	1834-1835	<i>Tory</i>
Viscount Melbourne	1835-1841	Whig
<i>Sir Robert Peel</i>	1841-1846	<i>Conservative</i>
Lord John Russell	1846-1852	Whig (Later Earl of Russell)

Earl of Derby	1852	Conservative
Earl of Aberdeen	1852-1855	Liberal/Conservative
<i>Viscount Palmerston</i>	1855-1858	<i>Liberal</i>
Earl of Derby	1858-1859	Conservative
<i>Viscount Palmerston</i>	1859-1865	<i>Liberal</i>
Earl Russell	1865-1866	Liberal
Earl of Derby	1866-1868	Conservative
Benjamin Disraeli	1868	Conservative
William Gladstone	1868-1874	Liberal
Benjamin Disraeli	1874-1880	Conservative
William Gladstone	1880-1885	Liberal
Marquess of Salisbury	1885-1886	Conservative
William Gladstone	1886	Liberal
Marquess of Salisbury	1886-1892	Conservative
William Gladstone	1892-1894	Liberal
Earl of Rosebery	1894-1895	Liberal
Marquess of Salisbury	1895-1902	Conservative
<i>Arthur Balfour</i>	1902-1905	<i>Conservative</i>
Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman	1905-1908	Liberal
<i>Herbert Asquith</i>	1908-1916	<i>Liberal</i>
David Lloyd George	1916-1922	Coalition
Andrew Bonar Law	1922-1923	Conservative
<i>Stanley Baldwin</i>	1923-1924	<i>Conservative</i>
<i>Ramsay MacDonald</i>	1924	<i>Labour</i>
<i>Stanley Baldwin</i>	1924-1929	<i>Conservative</i>
<i>Ramsay MacDonald</i>	1929-1931	<i>Labour</i>
<i>Ramsay MacDonald</i>	1931-1935	<i>National</i>
<i>Stanley Baldwin</i>	1935-1937	<i>National</i>
Neville Chamberlain	1937-1940	National
Winston Churchill	1940-1945	Coalition
Clement Attlee	1945-1951	Labour
Sir Winston Churchill	1951-1955	Conservative
<i>Sir Anthony Eden</i>	1955-1957	<i>Conservative</i>
Harold Macmillan	1957-1963	Conservative
Sir Alec Douglas-Home	1963-1964	Conservative
Harold Wilson	1964-1970	Conservative
Edward Heath	1970-1974	Conservative
Harold Wilson	1974-1976	Labour

James Callaghan	1976-1979	Labour
Margaret Thatcher	1979-1990	Conservative
John Major	1990-1997	Conservative
Tony Blair	1997-2007	Labour
Gordon Brown	2007-2010	Labour
<i>David Cameron</i>	2010	<i>Conservative</i>

Russia

This “democracy” was born out of the Revolution of 1905 and has seen a series of either ineffectual or oppressive rulers hold the top elected post in the nation since that time.

Name (Anglicized)	Reign	Notes
Prince Georgi Lvov	1917	Provisional Government
<i>Alexander Kerensky</i>	1917	<i>Provisional Government</i>
Vladimir Ilyich Lenin	1917-1924	Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
Joseph Stalin	1924-1953	Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
Georgi M. Malenkov	1953-1955	Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
Nikolai A. Bulganin	1955-1958	Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
Nikita S. Khrushchev	1958-1964	Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
<i>Leonid I. Brezhnev</i>	1964-1982	<i>Union of Soviet Socialist Republics</i>
Yuri V. Andropov	1982-1984	Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
Konstantin U. Chernenko	1984-1985	Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
Mikhail S. Gorbachev	1985-1991	Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
<i>Boris Yeltsin</i>	1991-1999	<i>President of Russian Republic</i>
Vladimir Putin	2000-2008	President of Russian Republic
Alexander Medvedev	2008-2011	President of Russian Republic
Vladimir Putin	2011-	President of Russian Republic

Unification of Italy and Germany Chart

Year	Italy	Germany
1848	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Revolutions erupted throughout Europe after the French Revolt. • They were quickly put down after an unsuccessful revolt. • <i>Giuseppe Garibaldi</i> fled back to Uruguay with other expatriates. • Victor Emmanuel ruled Piedmont Sardinia after the Austrians repressed the revolts. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Frederick William IV refused to accept the crown of a united Germany “from the gutter” when the Frankfurt Assembly offered it to him. • The revolutions in Germany led to Frederick William IV reorganizing the government and promising to be more attuned to the people.
1852	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Count Camilo Senso di Cavour</i> became 	

	prime minister of Piedmont Sardinia.	
1859	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The French saved Piedmont Sardinia from Austrian invasion. • The French then betrayed them in a separate peace, which infuriated many Italians. • Tuscany, Modena, Parma, and Romagna all vote to join Piedmont Sardinia. 	
1860	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Giuseppe Garibaldi</i> and his 1,000 <i>Red Shirts</i> invaded Sicily and started to move northward up the peninsula. . • He wanted to establish a <i>republic</i>. • Victor Emmanuel and Cavour wanted a monarchy. • Garibaldi was met with overwhelming support from the people who joined his forces. • He met Cavour outside the Papal States, and a deal was made to create a <i>constitutional monarchy</i> in Italy. 	
1861	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All of Italy, save Rome and Venice, became part of a unified Italian Peninsula with a parliament. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Wilhelm I became the King of Prussia. • Named Otto von Bismarck his chief minister.
1864		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prussia defeated Denmark in the battle of Schleswig-Holstein.
1861-1866		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bismarck engaged in a constitutional struggle 1866 with the Prussian parliament. • He utilized his <i>gap strategy</i> to ensure monarchical privilege.
1866	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Venice joined Italy in 1866 after Austria's defeat 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prussia defeated Austria in the <i>Seven Weeks' War</i>. • Demonstrated Prussia was most powerful Germanic military.
1867		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bismarck organized the North German Confederation of the 21 northern, mostly Protestant, German states.
1870	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rome was added to Italy when French troops left during the Franco-Prussian War. • The entire Italian Peninsula was united 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bismarck manufactured causes for a war with France as a means of uniting the German states against a common enemy.

	into one nation for the first time since the fall of Rome.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Franco-Prussian war was a rout in which the Parisians were besieged and shelled. All of the German states' united behind Wilhelm I and Bismarck.
1871		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Wilhelm I was declared the first <i>Kaiser of Germany</i>, and Bismarck was named chancellor.

Ideology and Culture

Liberalism

Classical **Liberalism**, an offshoot of the ideals of liberty and equality of the French Revolution, set as its political goals legal equality, freedom of the press, nationalism, freedom of assembly and of speech, and above all, representative government. Reacting to monarchical absolutism and to the reactionary repression (as represented by the policies of Austria's Prince Metternich, whose conservative attempt to roll back the ideals of the French Revolution amounted to a crusade against liberalism), the liberalism of the early nineteenth century generally opposed government intervention.

- **Laissez-faire**, a form of economic liberalism and a principle espoused most convincingly by Adam Smith, argued for a free market system unfettered by government regulations.
 - While this concept fostered economic growth, the theories of economists Thomas Malthus and David Ricardo (see Chapter 6) were often used to back up the predatory business practices of early capitalists and industrialists, that can be supported by Smith as well.
- After the first few decades of the nineteenth century, liberalism was espoused mostly by the middle class and tended to ignore the rights and aspirations of the working class.

Socialism

Early **socialism** was a reaction to *the* gross inequities created by the Industrial Revolution. The exploitation of workers by the early capitalists convinced the **utopian socialists** (see Chapter 6) that one of the best remedies for this was to have governments intervene in the economy.

- Their program included government control of property, economic equality for all, and government economic planning.

- **Charles Fourier** (1772-1837), a Frenchman, described a scheme for a utopian community based on a socialist idea.
- His countryman, **Louis Blanc**, pushed a program for the democratic takeover of the state by workers to guarantee full employment.
- The impracticality of their programs relegated the early *utopian socialists* to a minor political role, and modern socialism was largely shaped by the theories of Karl Marx. (See Chapter 6.)

Anarchists

Anarchists stated that all forms of government were oppressive and, therefore, the best government was none at all. They ignored the ideas of Thomas Hobbes and went even farther than Marx against the current forms of government. They believed that society should be based upon voluntary associations of people.

- Popular in Russia.
- Main proponents: Mikhail Bakunin and George Sorel.

Romanticism

Romanticism, a glorification of the emotional component of human nature, was a reaction, to the rationalism and restraint of the Enlightenment. The excesses of the French Revolution and the destructiveness of the Napoleonic Wars eroded faith in the “inevitable perfectibility” of humankind through Reason.

- Romantic artists, composers, and writers shared a world view:
 - -Willingness to express the deepest and most turbulent emotions.
 - -Fervent belief in personal freedom.
 - -Awe of nature.
 - -Reverence for history.

Some Representative Figures

William Wordsworth (1770-1850): English, a poet who glorified the beauty and solemnity of nature.

Victor Hugo (1802-1885): French, a poet and dramatist best remembered for his vibrant novels, such as *The Hunchback of Notre Dame*, which explored the darker side of the human experience.

John Constable (1776-1837), an English painter who said: “Nature is spirit visible.” He painted bucolic scenes that attempted to cast rural life in an

idyllic fashion, typifying the emotional examination of nature and history seen in this artistic movement.

George Sand (1804-1876): French, a countess who took a man's name as her pen name. She wrote modern, autobiographical, emotionally revealing novels about unconventional love.

Ludwig van Beethoven (1770-1827): German, his musical genius is expressed in virtually every musical form of his day, from songs to symphonies, and his evolution as a romantic is evident in the course of his composing. The symphonic music of his later period makes full use of the expanded orchestra, a romantic innovation that added three times as many instruments as the classical orchestra known to Mozart, and expressed the profound emotionality of romantic music.

Realism

Realist and materialist themes and attitudes influenced art and literature as painters and writers depicted the lives of ordinary people and drew attention to social problems. **Realism**, the literary movement that had replaced literary romanticism by the middle of the nineteenth century, portrayed a kind of *determinism*, the belief that human nature and human destiny are formed by heredity and environment, and that human behavior is governed by natural laws that preclude free will.

- Writers devoted their work to a depiction of everyday life, especially of the working class and especially of its more unsavory aspects.
- Focused on the here and now.
- Often shocked readers with their objective depictions of life in the cities, the slums, and the factories.
 - Frenchmen **Emile Zola** (1840-1902), **Honore de Balzac** (1799-1850), and **Gustave Flaubert** (1821-1880).
 - Englishwoman **George Eliot** (Mary Ann Evans) (1819-1880).
 - Russians **Fyodor Dostoyevsky** and **Leo Tolstoy**.
 - The popular **Charles Dickens** was also a well-known Realist author.
 - Spurning the romantic obsession with distant times and distant places.

Impressionism

The popularization of photography in the nineteenth century encouraged a group of artists, the **Impressionists**, to avoid realistic depiction (better

served by photography) and to capture, instead, the transitory feeling of a scene, the personal “impression.”

- Most famous in France, but spread like the Renaissance around the world.

- **Pierre-Auguste Renoir** (1841-1919)
- **Claude Monet** (1840-1926)
- **Edouard Manet** (1832-1883)
- **Edgar Degas** (1834-1917)
- **Mary Cassatt** (1844-1926)

Feminism

Feminists such as Flora Tristan began to push for women’s political rights, economic rights, and better working conditions.

- In 1858 Barbara Bodichon set up the *English Women’s Journal*.
 - Organ for discussing employment and equality issues directly concerning women and the reform of laws pertaining to the genders.
- The Women’s Social and Political Union (WSPU) was founded in Manchester in October 1903 by Emmeline Pankhurst.
- Her sister, Christabel, once disrupted a speech by Winston Churchill in order to make a statement about women’s lack of rights.
- Women fought for suffrage and other citizenship rights that they did not get until after the First World War.

Science

After the first few decades of the nineteenth century, and directly as a result of the technological requirements of the Industrial Revolution, “pure” scientific discoveries found application in explaining how the machinery and techniques of industrial processes worked.

- Physicists were able to formulate principles of *thermodynamics* applicable to a variety of technological systems, such as the operation of engines, which converted heat into motion.
- The theories of biology were used by researchers, such as **Louis Pasteur** (1822-1895), to preserve food and to improve medical procedures.
- A burgeoning chemical industry provided a variety of new products from medicines to synthetic dyes.
- The generation of electricity created whole new industries in

transportation and lighting.

- **Charles Darwin** (1809-1882) was not the first theorist to formulate the concept of evolution, but his meticulous research and voluminous specimens added weight to his idea that life evolved in its myriad forms from a common ancestor, through the process of a *struggle for survival*.
 - The mechanism that aided this was the development of anomalies in a given species, which would actually aid in the survival of that species.
 - His insight predates the development of the science of *genetics*.
 - For instance, when the only foliage available for grazing was on high trees, the mutant long-neck giraffe would outlive and out-propagate his short-neck cousins, thus, his characteristics would be more successfully passed on to later generations.
 - Darwin's theory had a powerful effect on the intellectual life of Europe.
 - It was used by skeptics to attack the biblical account of creation and religion itself.
 - **Herbert Spencer** (1820-1903) used Darwin's theories to argue that history and human society reflect a struggle for supremacy resulting in the *survival of the fittest*:
 - The rich, the rulers, the powerful nations are "fit"; the poor, the downtrodden masses, the world's colonies are "weak."
 - This *Social Darwinism* appealed to those in power and to racists and imperialists of every stripe.
- **Friedrich Nietzsche** (1844-1900), a German philosopher and contemporary of Darwin, argued that Christianity presented a "slave morality" that fettered the creativity of great individuals, the *ubermensch* (superman), who must free himself from conventionality and redefine life and morality.