UNIT 3 – The French Revolution

Introduction
This unit is about the main causes of the French Revolution and the most important events. The unit begins in 1789, when France was a monarchy and continues up to the reign of Napoleon.

The causes of the French Revolution
By the late 18th century, France was on the brink of revolution. The reasons had been building up over many years, and mainly concerned the great difference between the nobility and the clergy, and everybody else. The French population was divided into three estates.

- The First estate was made up of the clergy. It numbered about 100,000 people.
- The Second estate was made up of the nobility. It numbered around 400,000 people.
The Third estate was made up of the bourgeoisie, wage earners, and the peasantry. It made up the majority of the French population. The first and second estates enjoyed certain privileges that the third estate did not. Firstly, although they were the richest, they did not have to pay taxes. They were also the only members in society who could hold positions of importance such as Officers in the army. This caused great discontent within the state.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The first and second estate</th>
<th>The third estate</th>
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<tr>
<td>Nobles had almost complete authority over peasants.</td>
<td>Peasants were forced to do military service.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nobles did not have to do military service.</td>
<td>Peasants could not hunt or fish on nobles' estates.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nobles were exempt from most taxes.</td>
<td>Peasants had to pay taxes to their lord, the king and the Church.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nobles collected tolls from people using roads and markets.</td>
<td>Peasants had to use the lord's mill, oven and wine-press, and pay for them.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Many nobles and clergy lived in great luxury in châteaux and palaces.</td>
<td>Peasants made up 90% of the population.</td>
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The Kings through their ministers and local officials ruled absolutely. This means that they had complete authority over France. The Parliament (Estates-General) had not been called since 1614!

**TASKS:**
1. Which aspects of the French system didn't the Third Estate like?
2. Match the words and definitions:
   a) revolution 1) the upper class
   b) estates 2) the lower class, 90% of the population
   c) bourgeoisie 3) a great change in a short period of time
   d) nobility 4) the Church
   e) clergy 5) the class system in pre-revolutionary France
   f) peasants 6) middle class
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TEXT 1
Cartoon of 1789
The Peasant, shown carrying the burden of maintaining the feudal lords and the clergy. The text reads: “One hopes this will end soon.”

TEXT 2
An Englishman's view of French peasants, 1787-1790
I was joined by a poor woman who complained of the times. Her husband had only a morsel of land, one cow and a poor horse. But they had to pay 20 kg of wheat and three chickens as feudal dues to one lord, and 60 kg of oats, one chicken and five pence to another, along with very heavy taxes to the king’s tax collectors: “The taxes and feudal dues are crushing us.”

Arthur Young: Travels in France, 1792

TEXT 3
Yearly incomes compared
Archbishop of Paris 50,000 livres
Marquis de Mainvillette 20,000 livres
Prince de Conti 14,000 livres
A Paris parish priest 10,000 livres
A typical village priest 750 livres
A master carpenter 200 livres
The livre was replaced by the franc in 1795. In the 1780s, there were about 4 livres to £1.

TEXT 4
The People should have power, 1775
Man is born free. No man has any natural authority over others; force does not give anyone that right. The power to make laws belongs to the people and only to the people.

A pamphlet, banned by the French government in 1775, Jean Jacques Rousseau

TASKS:
3. Look back at the information in the texts above. List the reasons why many people in France were critical of:
   a) the nobility    b) the King    c) the clergy
4. What might a French peasant have complained about in 1789?
5. Look at text 1. Explain what the cartoonist meant. Remember to explain the significance of the three characters, as well as the text in it.
6. How does the author of text 2 describe the life of peasants? (Give examples)
7. Study texts 1 to 4. Do the texts explain why poor people in France resent the rich. Explain your answer.
8. Rousseau (text 4) was an influential writer at this time. Along with other writers like Voltaire, he wanted France to have a more democratic form of government. Who would be most influenced by his words and why? Justify your answer.
9. Why was text 4 banned in 1775? Which members of French society wanted to ban it?
In the Tennis Court

In a desperate attempt to collect even more taxes, King Louis called a meeting of the Estates-General in 1778. However, the people from the Third Estate used the meeting as a chance to tell the King what they thought was wrong with France and their lives and demand improvements. When the King refused to listen, members of the Third Estate went to a nearby Tennis Court and made an **oath** saying that they would not move until the King had made improvements. In the Tennis court several people made speeches.

Below are bits of these speeches:

I deserve better treatment than this. I have just written a letter to my local newspaper about how hard I work and how much money my factory makes, yet I have no say in how this country is run. Down with the King.

The King does nothing to stop the local aristocrat’s animals wandering all over my land, ruining my crops. I am fed up.

Marie Antoinette is a disgrace. She spends money as if it were going out of fashion. The King just sits back and lets her. He is a disgrace too.

**TASK:**

9. Now write your own Tennis Court Speech:
The Storming of the Bastille
The Paris mob, hungry because there was not enough food from poor harvests, took the law into their own hands. On July 14th, 1789, the mob rioted and attacked the royal fortress prison called the Bastille. They saw the Bastille as a symbol of everything that was wrong with France. It was a symbol of the King and his government and the Paris mob wanted it destroyed. The Paris mob killed the governor of the prison, Marquis de Launay. The Soldiers in and around Paris refused to stop the attack, showing that King Louis XVI had also lost control of the army.

Tasks:
10. Write the meanings of these key words: mob, Bastille, Constitution, and Feudal documents.
11. Why did the Paris mob storm the Bastille?
12. Why did the peasants burn the feudal documents?

The New Constitution 1789-1791
Over the next two years, the members of the Three Estates, as the Assembly worked together to work on a new constitution for France. The main features of this New Constitution were:

- The Assembly was to be elected every two years, by men who paid a certain level of taxation. About two thirds of the male population gained the vote, they were called “active citizens”.
- The King was to be called King of the French, not King of France.
- The King could delay the passing of a law for three years.
83 new departments were created to become centres for local government.
Judges, deputies, tax-collectors and priests were to be elected by “active citizens”.
A new taxation system, based on income, and a new currency, the assignat, was created.
Church lands were nationalized. Income from their sale would pay off government debt.
The Church tax (tithe) was abolished.
Marriages (previously they only took place in a church) had to be celebrated as civil ceremonies in front of state officials. Divorce was introduced.
Priests had to take an oath of loyalty to the state; some saw this as an attack on the power of the bishops and on the Pope.

THE DECLARATION OF THE RIGHTS OF MAN (extract)

Men are born equal and remain free and equal in rights which are liberty, property, security and resistance to oppression. Liberty is being able to do whatever does not harm others.
The law should express the will of the people. All citizens have a right to take part personally, or through their representatives, in the making of the law. Every citizen can talk, write and publish freely, unless the liberty is abused in a way which breaks the law.

August 1789

TASKS:
13. Read the Declaration of the Rights of Man. Which parts are fair? Which people of France previously did not have those rights?
14. Which people were still not equal after the Declaration? Explain.
15. Mention the changes from the Assembly in August-September 1789.
16. How did changes affect:
   • the king
   • local government
   • the economy
   • the Church
17. In your opinion, which of the changes are the most important? Explain.
18. Which people might not have agreed with the new Constitution?
The King and the Revolution

King Louis XVI

Louis XVI became king in **1774**. He was an absolute monarch because no Constitution limited his power. Like many other European monarchs, Louis believed that his power had been given by God. He was dominated by his wife, Marie-Antoinette, who was the Austrian Emperor's sister.

On the 5th and 6th of October **1789** the Paris mob went to Louis's palace at Versailles and attacked it. They captured Louis and his family and sent him to the Tuilleries in Paris.

In **1791**, when the Constitution was finally proclaimed, Louis signed an oath of loyalty to it.

In the night of June 20-21, 1791, Louis and his family tried to escape to Montmedy, near the Austrian Netherlands. They were disguised and had false passports. He hoped to be supported by nobles who had also escaped there, get the support of Austria and return with an army.

War and Republic

Austria

Austria was situated just over the border with France and it had an absolute monarchy. The Austrian Emperor was Marie-Antoinette's brother and he had been protecting nobles who had fled from revolutionary France. In April **1792**, the French government declared war against Austria.

VOCABULARY:

• **CONSTITUTIONAL MONARCH** - A king or queen who has to obey the constitution.
• **JACOBINS** – Supporters of the revolution who saw war as a threat to it.
• **REPUBLIC** - A country without a king or queen.
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The war is bad for France
The war had a bad start for France. A lot of officers had been nobles before the revolution and had fled the country after châteaux (or castles) were burnt in 1792. The new soldiers were enthusiastic but inexperienced. As the war went badly, the economy became worse. There was no confidence in the new paper money, the assignat, and prices rose. Many young men had become soldiers so the harvest had not been gathered and food prices rose too and people became hungry.

Louis XVI was blamed because people thought that he wanted France to lose the war and become the monarch once again.

The King is overthrown
In the summer of 1792, the French National Guards joined the Paris mob and attacked the King's palace, the Tuilleries. They did not want a king so he was taken prisoner and France became a Republic.

Then the mob started looking for more traitors: clergy, nobles and those who had supported the king or criticised the Revolution.

VOCABULARY:

- TERROR – Emergency government (1792-1794)
- TRIBUNAL – A hearing at court.
- SANS-CULOTTES – Urban workers who backed the revolution.
- EXILE – being sent away from one’s country as a punishment
- GUILLOTINE – machine used for cutting off people’s heads.
- LIBERTY -Freedom from oppression.
- REFERENDUM - a way of deciding a political question by direct vote.
The *Reign of Terror* began and between 1100 and 1400 prisoner were killed. This massacre horrified the rest of Europe.

**The Execution of the King**

Louis XVI was judged and his future was decided by vote. 321 deputies thought he should be exiled but 374 said he should be put to death.

He was executed on the 21st of January 1793. Paris was surrounded by 80,000 armed men to make sure that there would be no problems.

He had a final meeting with his family, attended mass at 6 o’clock in the morning and passed on some instructions to Clery, his servant. At 10:22 his head came off at the guillotine. His body was quickly taken to a mass grave in a cemetery.

**The Reign of Terror**

The years after Louis XVI's execution are called the Reign of Terror. Thousands of people suspected of anti-revolutionary activities or helping France's enemies were sent to the guillotine.

After Louis XVI's death in 1793, the war was going badly for France. In March there was a peasant revolt in Vende. In August the Jacobins declared that “Terror is the order of the day”. At the end of the summer, many areas of France were rebelling against the radical Jacobin government. Stability was in danger so the Convention took some emergency measures: a *Committee of Public Safety* was created to make sure the Revolution would survive and there were also *revolutionary tribunals*, to fight traitors.
Other people who were executed
One of the first to be executed was Marie-Antoinette, the former Queen. More than 12,000 officials were guillotined, others were drowned, or killed some other way. They meant to preserve the revolution and most of the people who died were from the first and second state. Out of the 12,000 people guillotined, 1,031 were nobles, 2,923 were middle classes, 674 were from the clergy and 7,878 were workers or peasants.

The Terror
The Committee of Public Safety was controlled by the Jacobins. Its most important figure was Maximilien Robespierre. The Committee allowed revolutionary tribunals to convict people without hearing evidence; it was called the Law of Prairial. In 1793 Convention passed the Law of Suspects: people could be sent to prison without trial.

There were many incidents in this period:
- In Lyon, a Jacobin ordered the execution of 300 people by canon fire as the guillotine was too slow.
- In Nantes, boats containing 200 people were taken to the middle of the River Loire and sunk so that everyone drowned. Birds ate the bodies in the river and water was so contaminated that fishing was banned.
- In Paris, thousands of people watched the executions. It was a public show.

Eventually, people grew tired of the executions and by mid-1794 the Terror had died out and Robespierre was blamed, arrested and taken to the guillotine in July 1794.

The Directory
The constitution changed once again after the Terror. The Jacobins and the Sans-cullottes were forced out of power and a more moderate form of power was looked for. It was decided that there should be five directors who would...
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make sure that laws were carried out. However, the new government, the Directory, has serious problems and by 1798 it reached a crisis point.

As the situation was getting worse, one of the Directors started looking for a general who could control France. Napoleon Bonaparte was chosen. He was one of the most successful military generals in France.

Find out more at...

- these websites:
  - http://www.SchoolHistory.co.uk
  - http://www.socialstudiesforkids.com/subjects/frenchrevolution.htm

- these books from the school library:

- this book:

- and these films:
  - A Tale of Two Cities (1989), England and France during the French Revolution
  - War and Peace (1972), Russia during the Napoleonic Era
UNIT 4 – The Directory

The Directory

After the Terror ended in 1794, the Jacobins and the Sans-cullottes were forced out of power and politicians tried to find a moderate form of government that French people liked. It was decided that there should be five directors who would see that laws were carried out. This new government was called the Directory.

They had serious problems to deal with:

- The government was running out of money because the foreign wars they were fighting were costly.
- There were severe food shortages.
- The French army had been badly defeated in wars in Italy.
- There were plots from royalists and extreme revolutionaries.

As things were worse for the Directory in France, one of the Directors (government leaders) began to look round for a general who could control France.

The choice fell on Napoleon Bonaparte, one of France's most successful military generals.
He was born in Corsica in 1769. He was put in charge of the French army fighting the Austrians in Italy. He came to power in 1799 in the "coup d’état" Brumaire.

Following the Coup, a new Constitution was introduced and Napoleon was made First Consul of France.

In a series of campaigns, he defeated all the great continental powers (Austria, Prussia, Russia) and became master of Europe.

Napoleon was a skilful politician and diplomat. French armies proved unbeatable on the battlefield and he was very ambitious.

Crowned Emperor in 1804, Napoleon had the powers of a dictator. For example, he ended freedom of speech and sometimes imprisoned enemies without a trial.

On the other hand he believed that men should be rewarded because of their achievements, rather than because of their noble birth.

The new law system was called the Napoleonic Code. This code was also used in South America, Japan and Europe. (It was also the Code used in Louisiana in the United States)

Britain was Napoleon’s most dangerous opponent. He tried to invade England but he was defeated at Trafalgar (1805) and that made the invasion impossible, so he tried to close all European ports to British trade.

England supported Napoleon’s enemies in Europe with money and soldiers, sending an army led by the Duke of Wellington to help rebels against Napoleon in Spain and Portugal.
In 1812 he invaded Russia. He reached Moscow but the Russians burnt their own city and they had to move out. It was a freezing winter. Half a million Frenchmen died during the long retreat.

This disaster encouraged Napoleon’s enemies to fight against him. He was defeated at Leipzig.

He was sent into exile on a Mediterranean island, Elba in 1814. A year later, he returned to Paris and regained control for 100 days.

After that, he was finally defeated by Wellington at Waterloo and he was sent to the island of St. Helen in the middle of the Atlantic Ocean where he died a few years later.
Changes in France under Napoleon

He changed the education system: Four grades of school were set up: primary, secondary, lycées (schools run on military lines) and technical schools.

Science and Maths became more important subjects in secondary schools. He introduced the Baccalauréat (=Bacharelato).

Changes in government:

➔ He became emperor of France and could not be removed from power.
➔ There were 2 National assemblies, with members chosen by Napoleon from candidates elected by the people.
➔ All men could vote, but after 1804, there were no elections.
➔ All laws were made by the Assemblies.

Changes in society:

➔ Napoleon made sure that peasants could keep their land by eradicating feudalism.
➔ He restored the Catholic church to its former importance through the Concordat, and the peasant no longer had to pay tithes.
➔ Napoleon offered stability to the nobles. He set up the “legion of Honour” (1802) and it’s still one of the highest honours in France today.
➔ He ordered the building of new roads, canals and bridges.
➔ Several memorials to the revolution and to Napoleon were erected to improve the image of Paris, for example L’arc de Triomphe (1813).

Concordat: The Pope agreed that the Church would not get its land back. In return, Catholicism was accepted as the religion of the majority. Bishops were chosen by Napoleon, and agreed on by the Pope.
The Code Napoleon

- Feudal rights were ended.
- Trial by jury was guaranteed.
- Parents were given power over their children.
- Wives were not allowed to sell or give away property.
- A wife could only own property with her husband’s written consent.
- Fathers were allowed to imprison their children for any time up to a month.
- All people were declared equal before the law. There were no longer any special privileges for nobles, clergy or rich people.

**TASKS:**

9. Which aspects of Napoleon’s education system did not change?
10. In what ways were the governments of King Louis XVI and Napoleon different?
11. In what ways were they similar?
12. Read the Napoleonic Code. List the points of the code which you think are: - fair or unfair. Give reasons.
13. How did Napoleon try to control religion in France?
14. What was his attitude towards: - peasants, - nobility, - women.
15. How did Napoleon improve French cities?
16. Which country was Napoleon’s first enemy?
17. What did Napoleon do against it?
18. Why did he fail in Russia?
19. When was Napoleon finally defeated?
20. Where did he die?
UNIT 6 – Imperialism and nationalism

- Congress of Vienna – 1815
- Liberals and nationalists
- Revolutions in 1820 and 1830
- 1848 revolution
- Scramble for Africa
  - Different types of colonies
- Imperialism in Asia

Congress of Vienna (1815)

Between 1815 and 1848, the affairs of Europe were dominated by the activities of five great powers: Austria, Russia, Prussia, Great Britain and France.

Before 1815, the French under Napoleon extended their Empire far beyond the original borders of France. However, in 1814, the “Grand Alliance” powers of Austria, Prussia, Russia and Britain finally succeeded in defeating Napoleon.

With the return of peace, the victors met in a Congress in Vienna to arrange a settlement designed to prevent such wars from ever happening again.

Their decisions, which became known as the Vienna Settlement, were influenced by their belief that future peace could only be assured if there was a “balance of power” in Europe. This meant that territory and influence in Europe would be shared between the great powers, in a way that would prevent domination by any one country.

Metternich, the Foreign Minister of the Austrian Empire organised the Vienna Congress. Talleyrand represented the defeated France on behalf of the newly restored Louis XVIII.
One of the biggest problems that the peacemakers had was to make sure that France could never expand again in the way it had during the wars. For these reasons, the allies tried to created strong buffer states on the boundaries of France (Cordon Sanitaire):

- Belgium (the old Austrian Netherlands) and Holland (the old United Provinces) were to become the United Kingdom of the Netherlands.
- The independence and neutrality of the Swiss Confederation of 22 cantons was recognised by all.
- The formerly independent Republic of Genoa was incorporated into the kingdom of Piedmont-Sardinia to strengthen this border. Nice and most of Savoy from France were also given to Piedmont.
- The powers were determined to break the strong French influence that Napoleon had imposed on Italy. Consequently Italy was divided up in similar ways as before the French conquests with separate states.
- Austria acquired the northern and eastern Italian states of Lombardy and Venice.
- Austrian influence was also established in the central Italian duchies of Parma, Modena and Tuscany.
- The Pope returned to the Papal States (with the help of Austrian troops) and Ferdinand I returned to Naples.
- The old Holy Empire, which had been made up of 360 separate states in Germany, was not re-established. It was replaced by an union of 38 states which formed the German Confederation. It had a central diet at Frankfurt, under an Austrian President.

To preserve this settlement, the allies re-established.

- **The Quadruple Alliance**: in this alliance each power promised it would resist any further attempt by Napoleon or his family to return to France and would contribute 60,000 men to stop any attempt to overturn the peace settlement in France and the rest of Europe. It was formed by Great Britain, Austria, Prussia and Russia.
• **The Holy Alliance**: Proposed by Tsar Alexander I. It was formed by Prussia, Russia and later by France. The idea was to defend absolutism everywhere and the alliance between absolutism and the church.

**Liberals and Nationalists**

**Liberals**

They wanted to change things so that there would be greater freedom for the individual. Liberals generally favoured constitutional or republican government.
Nationalists
They believed that all those of the same race or background should be united in a single country. Some liberals were also nationalists.

Revolutions in 1820 and 1830

The 1820 revolution began in Spain because commander Riego rebelled against Ferdinand VII, an absolute monarch, giving way to the *triennio liberal*. The king had to swear the 1812 Cádiz Constitution. The movement finished in 1823 when the Holy Alliance sent an army to Spain and absolutism was re-established.

Revolution spread over Europe but it was successful only in Greece because it became independent from Turkey.

In 1830 the revolution began in France. The Bourbon King Charles X tried to govern without the “*Carta Otorgada*” that Louis XVIII ordered.

Charles X was expelled from the country and Louis Philippe de Orleans became the new king with bourgeoisie support.

As in 1820, revolution spread quickly across Europe but it only succeeded in Belgium which became independent from Holland (picture on the right).
1848 Revolution
The revolutions of 1848 spread across most of the European continent. They were caused by the economic crisis of 1846-1847, which increased existing social and political tensions.

The revolutionaries were united by their belief in liberalism and nationalism but divided by their varying interpretations of these ideas.

Apart from the constitutional monarchies of Britain and France, Europe was a collection of states ruled by absolute monarchs. By the middle of the 19th century, these societies were undergoing fundamental change.

In addition to these social and economic changes two major political ideas were increasingly espoused by the middle class:

- **Liberalism**: essentially human rights and freedoms, first put into practice during the French and American revolutions of the 18th century.

- **Nationalism**: people of the same race and speaking the same language should have the right to form an independent state. It is important also to consider the particular circumstances of 1846-1848:
  - The bad harvests of 1845-1846 leading to chronic food shortages across much of Europe.
  - Financial crisis; expensive food affected manufacturing. Increased unemployment made it even more difficult for the masses to feed themselves.

The decision of king Louis Philippe to forbid a hostile political meeting (the Bouquet movement) led to rioting on the streets of Paris so the king abdicated.
UNIT 6
Imperialism and nationalism

The revolution spread across the German states, the Italian states, Austria …

Despite the failures everywhere, 1848 was a turning point:

- **Constitutions** in Prussia and Piedmont (crucial to future Italian unification) and the establishment of **universal male suffrage** in France and the encouragement of **liberalism** elsewhere, for example in the Netherlands.
- In Austria, feudalism had ended and the empire was now in decline.
- The division between liberalism and nationalism. After 1848 nationalism became a tool of conservative leaders, such as Bismarck.

### Scramble for Africa

In 1870 most of Africa was still independent. But from 1870-1900 there was competition between European powers to claim parts of Africa as colonies. This is called the scramble for Africa. It happened because:

There was **competition for the resources** of African countries, e.g. raw materials such as gold, diamonds...

1. The industrial revolution in Europe motivated countries to claim **new markets** to sell goods to.

### TASKS:

9. Say if these sentences are true or false. If false, correct them.
   
a) The 1820 revolution began in France.

b) The movement finished in 1824, when the Quadruple Alliance sent an army to Spain and true democracy was re-established.

c) The 1830 revolution began in France.

d) In the 1830 revolution Greece became independent from Austria.

e) In the 1820 revolution Belgium became independent.

10. What does the word “revolution” mean?

11. Explain three causes of the 1848 revolution.

12. Did the 1848 revolution succeed everywhere?

13. What does the expression “universal suffrage” mean?

14. Why do we say that European politics changed significantly after the events of 1848-49?
UNIT 7 – The Unification of Italy and Germany

Italy between 1815 and 1848

In 1815 Italy was divided up into a number of states as it had been before the Napoleonic wars. It was dominated by the influence of Austria and its chancellor, Metternich.

- Lombardy and Venetia were part of the Austrian Empire.
- Parma, Modena and Tuscany were ruled by relatives of the Austrian Emperor.
- The Kingdom of the Two Sicilies (Naples and Sicily) and the Papal States looked to Austria as their protector.
- Only Piedmont-Sardinia was independent of Austrian influence.

The system of government in all the Italian states was autocratic.

The Napoleonic period stimulated liberal and nationalist ideas in Italy. Secret societies, like the Carbonari, spread these ideas.
There were liberal revolts in Naples (1820), Parma and Modena, and the Papal States (1830). All were suppressed with Austrian help.

The Risorgimento movement encouraged people to campaign for an independent, united Italy.

In 1848 there were revolutions in Italy but they failed for two main reasons:

- The Italians could not defeat Austrian military power unaided.
- The Italian revolutionaries were divided over their aims:
  - Mazzini, who founded the young Italy movement in 1831, aimed for a republic.
  - Charles Albert, who became king of Piedmont-Sardinia in 1831, aimed for a monarchy of northern Italy only.
  - And others like Gioberti aimed not for unification but for a confederation of Italian states under the papacy (Pius IX in that time).

The creation of a united Italy (from 1849 – 1870)

By 1849 only Piedmont under its new king, Victor Emmanuel II, had a constitutional government.

Cavour was appointed Prime Minister (1852). His reforms improved communications, trade and finances. Cavour also realised that Piedmont would need a powerful ally against Austria and he reached an agreement with Napoleon, the Pact of Plombieres, by which France promised to help to expel Austrian troops from Lombardy and Venetia.

The Franco-Piedmontese armies occupied Lombardy, defeating the Austrians at Magenta and Solferino. At this point however, Napoleon made peace (the Truce of Villafranca), leaving Venetia in Austrian hands.
There were rebellions in other parts of northern Italy so Cavour used plebiscites to form Parma, Modena, Tuscany and the Romagna to Piedmont and Lombardy in a new kingdom in northern Italy in 1860.

In the south, inspired by Cavour’s success, Garibaldi collected a force of a thousand volunteers, the famous Redshirts (he had led them in a war in Uruguay, and they brought their red shirts to Europe with them). In 1860 they sailed from Genoa to Sicily. He quickly gained control over the whole island. They crossed to the mainland and in September Naples was captured. He then intended to march on Rome.

Cavour realised that if Garibaldi attacked Rome, the Catholic powers of Europe might intervene. Cavour sent troops into the Papal States to protect them against Garibaldi. Cavour occupied the Marches and Umbria (the eastern part of the Papal states) but kept clear of Rome itself.
The Unification of Italy and Germany

Garibaldi handed his conquests to Victor Emmanuel and by the end of 1860 the whole of Italy except Venetia and the area around Rome had been annexed by Piedmont. In 1861 the first Italian parliament met in Turin.

Venetia became part of Italy in 1866 as a consequence of the Seven Weeks war, in which Italy fought against Austria as the ally of Prussia.

Rome was a different problem: the Pope had had the protection of French troops since 1848; but because of the Franco-Prussian war of 1870-71, Rome was occupied by Italians troops and became the capital.

The Pope refused to recognise the loss of Rome and become a prisoner in the Vatican until an agreement was made with Mussolini in 1929.

The kingdom of Italy

Victor Emmanuel II of Piedmont was the first king of Italy and the head of a constitutional monarchy. It lasted less than a century giving way to the dictatorship of Mussolini.

The economic development was not rapid. There were a lot of differences between the North and the South.
The unification of Germany

In 1815 Germany was divided into 39 separate states, which formed the German Confederation.

The Bundestag (Federal Assembly) consisted of representatives of the governments of the states. It was presided over by Austria. The two biggest states were Austria and Prussia.

In 1848 there were revolutions throughout Germany. These led to the election of a Parliament for the whole of Germany, the Frankfurt Parliament. They argued for a little Germany (Kleindeutschland) which would exclude Austria, while others wanted a Great Germany (Grossdeutschland) which would include the Austrians lands except Hungary.

The Parliament offered the crown of a federal Germany in turn to the Austrian Emperor and the King of Prussia, but they both declined. The Parliament broke up in 1849, having failed to unite Germany. Despite this, nationalist feelings remained strong in Germany.

The foundation for the unification of Germany under Prussia was laid by the Zollverein (customs union) in 1834, which established free trade throughout most of Germany with the exception of Austria.

Otto Von Bismarck was elected Prime Minister by the king William I of Prussia. He came from a family of Junkers (Prussian Landowning gentry). Between 1864 and 1871 Bismarck engaged in three wars which brought about the unification of Germany.
Three wars that brought about the unification of Germany

1. The Danish war (1864): In cooperation with Austria, Bismarck made war on Denmark because the king of Denmark wanted to make Schleswig part of Denmark and the majority of the people of Schleswig were German. By the Convention of Gastein he took Schleswig and Austria Holstein.

2. The Austrian war (1864):
   1) First, Bismarck made an alliance with Italy, which wanted Venice. At a meeting with Napoleon III at Biarritz he made promises of future compensation for France.
   2) Secondly he provoked war. It only lasted 7 weeks.
   3) Finally, the Austrian army was defeated at Sadowa in Bohemia. The new North German Confederation was set up.

3. The Franco – Prussian war (1870 – 71):
   There was a problem with the succession to the Spanish throne. One of the candidates, Prince Leopold, was a member of the Hohenzollern family, of which William I was the head. Napoleon III demanded that Leopold should withdraw. William announced his rejection of the French demand in a telegram (the Ems Telegram) but Bismarck altered it so that the French government could only take it as a rebuff. Public opinion in Paris was angry and demanded war.

   The war was a triumph for Prussia, Alsace and Lorraine became part of Germany and the south of Bavaria, Baden and Württemberg were swept into a unified Germany. In 1871 William I was proclaimed Emperor of Germany.
UNIT 7
The Unification of Italy and Germany

### TASKS:

1. Define or explain who they were: redshirts, risorgimento, Zollverein, Camilo Cavour, Otto Von Bismarck, William I, Victor Emmanuel II.

2. Which parts of modern Europe did Prussia include?

3. Did Bismarck promote the war against France?

4. Complete the dates with something important for the Unification of Italy or Germany:
   - 1815
   - 1849
   - 1860
   - 1862
   - 1864
   - 1866
   - 1871

5. Differences and “similarities”:
   - Compare the Italian and German unification.
     - when did they happen?
     - were there any parts that were the leaders?
     - why did they want unification?
     - did economic cooperation help?
     - was the military factor important? Why?
   - Explain the importance of Bismarck, Cavour, Garibaldi.
Find out more at...

○ these websites:
  ✔ www.schoolhistory.co.uk (general information for students- simple language)
  ✔ www.wikipedia.com (general information)

○ these books (from the school library):

○ Verdi’s operas