

Viking Quest: World History Assignments

April 2015

Week: 7th-10th

- *Read Chapter 19-2 and 19-3*
- *Create an outline/Cornell/or other form of note taking guide for the section.*
- *Complete pgs. 588 # 1-8, Pg. 594 # 1-8*
- *Complete Study Guide Handouts*

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 19, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 589–594

REACTION AND REVOLUTION

KEY TERMS

conservatism a political philosophy based on tradition and social stability (page 590)

principle of intervention the belief that the great powers in Europe had the right to send armies into countries where there were revolutions, in order to restore legitimate monarchs to their thrones (page 591)

liberalism a political philosophy based largely on Enlightenment principles that held that people should be as free as possible from government restraint and that civil liberties should be protected (page 591)

universal male suffrage the right of all adult men to vote (page 592)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

In the 1800s, liberals were people who supported ideas such as individual freedom, freedom of speech, freedom of the press, and religious freedom. Do you think you would have been a liberal in the 1800s? Why or why not?

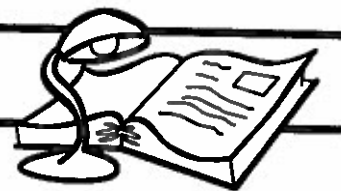
In the last section, you read about the Industrial Revolution. In this section, you will learn how liberalism and nationalism led to changes in Europe, including the revolutions of 1848.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Compare and contrast the philosophies of conservatism and liberalism.

Political Philosophy	Views:		
	Government	Religion	Civil Rights
Conservatism	1.	2.	3.
Liberalism	4.	5.	6.

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 19, Section 2 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

• The Congress of Vienna (page 589)

After the defeat of Napoleon, European rulers wanted to restore the old order. The great powers (Great Britain, Austria, Prussia, and Russia) met at the Congress of Vienna in September 1814 to arrange a final peace settlement. The leader of the congress was the Austrian foreign minister, Prince Klemens von Metternich. He claimed that he was guided by the principle of legitimacy. This meant that monarchs from the royal families that had ruled before Napoleon would be restored to their positions of power in order to keep peace and stability in Europe. The great powers rearranged territories in Europe because they believed that this would form a new balance of power. For example, to balance Russian territorial gains, new territories were given to Prussia and Austria.

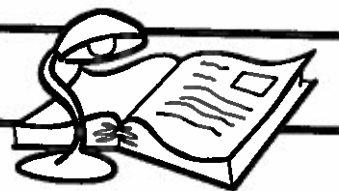
7. What were the four great powers that met at the Congress of Vienna?

• The Conservative Order (page 590)

The arrangements that were worked out at the Congress of Vienna were a victory for rulers who wanted to stop the forces of change begun by the French Revolution. These rulers, like Metternich, believed in the political philosophy known as **conservatism**. Conservatism is based on tradition and social stability. Most conservatives favored obedience to political authority and believed that organized religion was crucial to order in society. Conservatives hated revolutions and were unwilling to accept demands from people who wanted either individual rights or representative governments.

To maintain the new balance of power, Great Britain, Russia, Prussia, Austria, and later France, agreed to have meetings that would maintain the peace in Europe. These meetings were called the Concert of Europe. Eventually, most of the great powers adopted a **principle of intervention**. According to this principle, the great powers had the right to send armies into countries where there were revolutions in order to restore legitimate monarchs to their thrones. Britain refused to accept the principle, arguing that the great powers should not interfere in the internal affairs of other states. But the other great powers used military force to crush revolutions in Spain and Italy.

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Chapter 19, Section 2 (continued)

8. What was the principle of intervention?

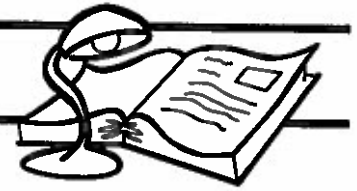
• Forces of Change (page 591)

Between 1815 and 1830, conservative governments tried to maintain the old order. But powerful forces for change were also at work. One of these forces was **liberalism**. Liberalism was a political philosophy based on Enlightenment principles. Liberals believed that people should be as free as possible from government restraint. They also believed in the protection of civil liberties (the basic rights of all people). Most liberals wanted religious toleration and the separation of church and state. They believed that laws should be made by a representative assembly (legislature) elected by qualified voters. Many liberals favored government ruled by a constitution. They believed that written constitutions would guarantee civil rights. Liberals did not believe in a democracy in which everyone had a right to vote, however. They feared mob rule and thought that the right to vote and hold office should be open only to men of property.

Another force for change was nationalism. Nationalism arose out of people's awareness of being part of a community with common institutions, traditions, language, and customs. This community is called a nation. After the French Revolution, nationalists came to believe that each nationality should have its own government. The Germans were separated into many different states but wanted a single German nation-state with one central government. The Hungarians were part of the Austrian Empire but wanted the right to establish their own government. Conservatives feared these changes and tried hard to repress nationalism, but many liberals supported nationalism. Most liberals believed that freedom would only be possible if people ruled themselves. So most liberals agreed with the nationalists that each people group should have its own state.

Beginning in 1830, liberalism and nationalism began to change the political order in Europe. In France, liberals overthrew the Bourbon king Charles X and established a constitutional monarchy. Louis-Philippe, a cousin of Charles X, became king. Nationalism brought changes in other countries. Belgium rebelled against the Dutch Republic and became an independent state. There were also revolutions in Poland and Italy, but they were soon crushed by the Russians and Austrians.

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Chapter 19, Section 2 (continued)

9. How did conservatives and liberals feel about nationalism in the early nineteenth century?

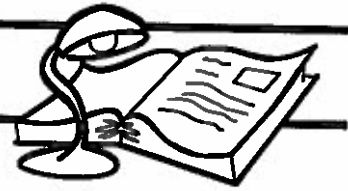
• The Revolutions of 1848 (page 592)

The forces of nationalism and liberalism erupted again in the revolutions of 1848. Beginning in 1846, there were severe economic problems in France. These problems brought suffering to the lower middle class, workers, and peasants. At the same time, the middle class demanded the right to vote, but the government of Louis-Philippe refused to make changes. In 1848, the monarchy was overthrown. A group of republicans set up a provisional (temporary) government. The republicans were people who wanted France to be a republic (a government in which leaders are elected). The provisional government called for the election of representatives to a Constituent Assembly that would draw up a new constitution. Election would be by **universal male suffrage** (that is, all adult men could vote). The new constitution was ratified on November 4, 1848. It set up a new republic, called the Second Republic. The Second Republic had a single legislature and a president who served for four years. The legislature and the president were both elected by universal male suffrage. Elections for the presidency were held in December 1848, and Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte (called Louis-Napoleon) won. He was the nephew of Napoleon Bonaparte.

News of the 1848 revolution in France led to revolutions in other parts of Europe. Cries for change led many German rulers to promise constitutions, a free press, and jury trials. An all-German parliament, called the Frankfurt Assembly, was held to prepare a constitution for a new united Germany. The members drafted a constitution but had no real way of forcing the German rulers to accept it. As a result, German unification was not achieved.

The Austrian Empire was a multinational state. It was a collection of different peoples, including Germans, Czechs, Magyars (Hungarians), Slovaks, Romanians, Slovenes, Poles, Croats, Serbians, and Italians. Many of these peoples wanted their own governments. In March 1848, there were demonstrations in the major cities in the Austrian Empire. In Vienna, revolutionary forces took control of the capital and demanded a liberal constitution. To appease the revolutionaries, the government gave Hungary its own legislature. In Bohemia, the Czechs demanded their own government. Austrian

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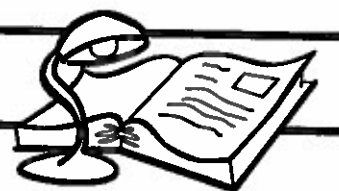
Chapter 19, Section 2 (continued)

officials had made concessions to appease the revolutionaries, but they were determined to reestablish control. Austrian military forces crushed the Czech rebels and the rebels in Vienna. In 1849, the Hungarian revolutionaries were also defeated.

In 1848, a revolt also broke out in Lombardy and Venetia, two provinces in Italy that were part of the Austrian Empire. Revolutionaries in other Italian states also took up arms and tried to create liberal constitutions and a unified Italy. By 1849, however, the Austrians had regained complete control over Lombardy and Venetia. Italy was not unified.

10. What revolutions took place in Europe in 1848?

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Chapter 19, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 596–603

NATIONAL UNIFICATION AND THE NATIONAL STATE

KEY TERMS

militarism reliance on military strength (page 598)

kaiser the title of the emperors of the Second German Empire (page 599)

plebiscite popular vote on a particular issue (page 600)

emancipation setting people free from slavery or serfdom (page 601)

abolitionism a movement to end slavery (page 602)

secede to withdraw from a political group or nation (used especially for the withdrawal of the Southern States from the Union at the start of the U.S. Civil War) (page 603)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever wondered what our country would be like today if the South had won the Civil War? Have you ever thought what it would be like if each state were its own separate country with its own government and national leaders? How would this affect your life?

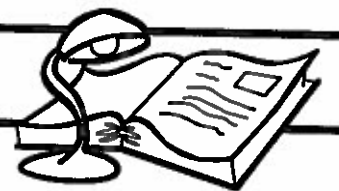
In the last section, you learned how the forces of liberalism and nationalism led to changes and revolutions in Europe in the first half of the nineteenth century. In this section, you will learn how nationalism contributed to the unification of Germany and Italy. You will also learn how divisions over slavery and other issues threatened national unity in the United States and led to the U.S. Civil War.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Identify some of the causes and effects of the following wars.

Causes	War	Effects
1.	Crimean War	2.
3.	Franco-Prussian War	4.
5.	United States Civil War	6.

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Chapter 19, Section 3 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **Breakdown of the Concert of Europe** (page 596)

The revolutions of 1848 had not achieved unification in Germany and Italy. By 1871, however, both Germany and Italy would be unified. The changes that made this possible began with the Crimean War. This war was the result of conflicts between Russia and the Ottoman Empire. The Ottoman Empire had long controlled much of the territory in the Balkans in southeastern Europe. Russia was interested in expanding its territories into the Ottoman lands in the Balkans. In 1853, the Russians invaded the Balkan provinces of Moldavia and Walachia. In response, the Ottoman Turks declared war on Russia. Great Britain and France also declared war on Russia because they were afraid that Russia would gain control of this area. The Crimean War was poorly planned and poorly fought. Heavy losses caused the Russians to seek peace. By the Treaty of Paris in 1856, Russia agreed to allow Moldavia and Walachia to be placed under the protection of all the great powers.

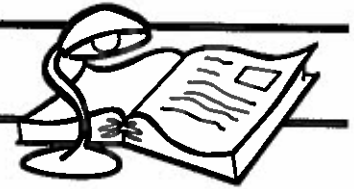
The Crimean War destroyed the Concert of Europe. Austria and Russia became enemies, because Austria had its own interests in the Balkans and had refused to support Russia in the war. Russia withdrew from European affairs for 20 years. Austria was now without friends among the great powers. This new situation opened the door for the unification of Italy and Germany.

7. How did the Crimean War destroy the Concert of Europe?

- **Italian Unification** (page 597)

After the failure of the revolution of 1848, people began to look to the northern Italian state of Piedmont for leadership in achieving the unification of Italy. The ruler of the kingdom of Piedmont was King Victor Emmanuel II. The king named Camillo di Cavour his prime minister in 1852. Cavour knew that Piedmont's army was not strong enough to defeat the Austrians. He would need help, so he made an alliance with the French emperor Louis-Napoleon. He then provoked the Austrians into declaring war in 1859. The final result of this conflict was a peace settlement that gave the French Nice and Savoy. (Cavour had promised Nice and Savoy to the French for making the alliance.) Lombardy was given to Piedmont, but Venetia was still controlled by Austria. Cavour's success caused nationalists in some other northern Italian states (Parma, Modena, and Tuscany) to overthrow their governments and join their states to Piedmont.

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Chapter 19, Section 3 (continued)

In southern Italy, Giuseppe Garibaldi, an Italian patriot, raised an army of a thousand volunteers. They were called Red Shirts because of the color of their uniforms. Garibaldi's forces landed in Sicily, which was ruled by France. By the end of July 1860, they controlled most of the island. In August, they crossed over to the mainland and marched up the Italian peninsula. Naples, which was ruled by France, fell in early September. Garibaldi turned over his conquests to Piedmont. On March 17, 1861, a new kingdom of Italy was proclaimed under King Victor Emmanuel II. But the task of Italian unification was not yet complete, because Venetia was still held by Austria and Rome was under the control of the pope.

The Italians gained control of Venetia as a result of the Austro-Prussian War of 1866. The kingdom of Italy was an ally of Prussia in the war. Prussia won the war and gave Venetia to the Italians. In 1870, during the Franco-Prussian War, French troops withdrew from Rome. Their withdrawal made it possible for the Italian army to annex Rome on September 20, 1870. Rome then became the capital of the united Italian state.

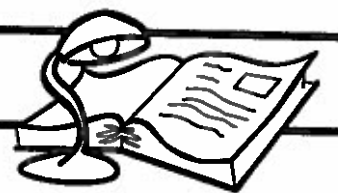
8. How did the Austro-Prussian and Franco-Prussian Wars contribute to the unification of Italy?

• German Unification (page 598)

After the Frankfurt Assembly was unable to achieve German unification, Germans looked to Prussia to take the lead in this cause. Prussia had become a strong and prosperous state. It was also known for its **militarism** (reliance on military strength). In the 1860s, King William I tried to enlarge the Prussian army. When the Prussian legislature refused to levy new taxes for the army, William I appointed a new prime minister, Count Otto von Bismarck. Bismarck is known for his practice of *realpolitik* ("the politics of reality")—politics based on practical matters rather than on theory or ethics. From 1862 to 1866, he governed Prussia without the approval of the parliament. He collected taxes and strengthened the army. He also followed an active foreign policy that soon led to war. Bismarck created friction with the Austrians and forced them into a war on June 14, 1866. The Austrians were no match for the Prussian army and were defeated on July 3.

Prussia now organized the German states north of the Main River into a North German Confederation. The southern German states were largely Catholic and feared Prussia. But they also feared the French and agreed to sign military alliances with Prussia for protection against the French. In 1870, Prussia and France came into conflict because a relative of the Prussian king

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Chapter 19, Section 3 (continued)

was a candidate for the throne of Spain. Bismarck took advantage of the misunderstandings between the French and Prussians and pushed the French into declaring war on Prussia on July 19, 1870. This conflict was called the Franco-Prussian War. The French were no match for the Prussian army. The southern German states also joined the war effort against the French. On September 2, 1870, an entire French army and the French ruler, Napoleon III, were captured. France surrendered on January 28, 1871. France had to pay 5 billion francs (about \$1 billion) and give up the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine to the new German state.

Even before the war ended, the southern German states had agreed to enter the North German Confederation. On January 18, 1871, William I of Prussia was proclaimed **kaiser** (emperor) of the Second German Empire. German unity had been achieved. With its industrial resources and military might, this new German state became the strongest power on the European continent.

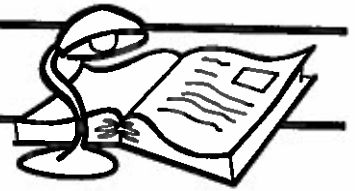
9. How did Prussia achieve German unity?

• Nationalism and Reform in Europe (page 600)

In 1832, the British Parliament passed a bill that increased the number of male voters. The new voters were mainly members of the industrial middle class. By giving the industrial middle class an interest in ruling Britain, Britain avoided revolution in 1848. In the 1850s and 1860s, Parliament continued to make social and political reforms that helped the country to remain stable. Another reason for Britain's stability was its continuing economic growth. After 1850, the working classes began to share in the prosperity. Wages for laborers increased more than 25 percent between 1850 and 1870. The British feeling of national pride was well reflected in Queen Victoria. She ruled from 1837 to 1901—the longest reign in English history. Her sense of duty and moral responsibility reflected the attitude of her age, which is known as the Victorian Age.

In France, Louis Napoleon asked the people to restore the empire. In this **plebiscite** (popular vote), 97 percent responded with a yes vote. On December 2, 1852, Louis-Napoleon became Napoleon III, Emperor of France. The Second Empire had begun. The government of Napoleon III was authoritarian. He controlled the armed forces, police, and civil service. Only he could introduce legislation and declare war. There was a Legislative Corps that gave an appearance of representative government, but its members could not initiate legislation or affect the budget. Napoleon III completely controlled the government and limited civil liberties. Nonetheless, the first five years of his reign

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Chapter 19, Section 3 (continued)

were a huge success. Railroads, harbors, roads, and canals were built. Iron production tripled. Napoleon III also carried out a vast rebuilding of the city of Paris. In the 1860s, however, oppositions to some of Napoleon's policies grew. In response, Napoleon III gave the legislature more power. In a plebiscite held in 1870, the French people gave Napoleon III another victory. After the French were defeated in the Franco-Prussian War, however, the Second Empire fell.

Until the Austro-Prussian War, the Austrian Empire had been able to keep the ethnic groups in its empire from gaining independence. Austria's defeat in 1866, however, forced the Austrians to make concessions to the Hungarians. The result was the Compromise of 1867. This compromise created the dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary. Austria and Hungary each had its own constitution, its own legislature, its own bureaucracy, and its own capital. The two countries shared a common army, foreign policy, and system of finances. They also had a single monarch. Francis Joseph was both Emperor of Austria and King of Hungary.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century, Russia was overwhelmingly agricultural and autocratic. After the Russians were defeated in the Crimean War, Czar Alexander II decided to make serious reforms. Serfdom was the biggest problem in czarist Russia. On March 3, 1861, Alexander issued an **emancipation** edict that freed the serfs. Peasants could now own property and marry as they chose. The government provided land for the peasants by buying it from the landlords. But there were problems with the new land system. The landowners kept the best lands for themselves, so the Russian peasants did not have enough good land to support themselves. Alexander II attempted other reforms but soon found that he could please no one. He was assassinated in 1881 by a group of radicals. His son, Alexander III, turned against reform and returned to the old methods of repression.

10. What was the Compromise of 1867?

• Nationalism in the United States (page 602)

In the United States, two factions fought over the division of power in the new government. The Federalists favored a strong central government. The Republicans wanted the federal government to be subordinate to the state governments. These early divisions ended with the War of 1812. There was a surge of national feeling. The election of Andrew Jackson as president in 1828 opened a new era in American politics. Property qualifications for voting had been reduced. The right to vote was extended to all adult white males.

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Chapter 19, Section 3 (continued)

By the mid-nineteenth century, national unity was again an issue. Slavery had become a threat to that unity. The economy in the southern states was based on growing cotton on plantations, using slave labor. At the same time, **abolitionism**, a movement to end slavery, arose in the North. Abolitionism challenged the southern way of life. As opinions over slavery grew more divided, compromise became less possible. After Abraham Lincoln was elected president in 1860, a South Carolina convention voted to **secede** (withdraw) from the United States. In February 1861, six more southern states did the same. A rival nation, the Confederate States of America, was formed. In April, fighting erupted between North and South—the Union and the Confederacy. The American Civil War lasted from 1861 to 1865. It was an extremely bloody war. The Union had more men and resources and gradually wore down the Confederacy. On January 1, 1863, Abraham Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation declared that most of the nation's slaves were "forever free." The Confederate forces finally surrendered on April 9, 1865. National unity had prevailed in the United States.

11. What was the main issue that divided Federalists and Republicans in the United States before the War of 1812?

• Emergence of a Canadian Nation (page 603)

The Treaty of Paris in 1763 gave Canada to the British. By 1800, most Canadians wanted more freedom from British rule. But there were serious differences among Canadians. Upper Canada (now Ontario) was mostly English-speaking, and Lower Canada (now Quebec) was mostly French. In 1840, the British Parliament formally joined Upper and Lower Canada into the United Provinces of Canada. Canadians began to push for self-government. John Macdonald, the head of Upper Canada's Conservative Party, was a leader in this cause. The British were afraid of losing Canada to the United States and finally gave in to Canadian demands. In 1867, Parliament passed the British North American Act. This act established a Canadian nation, the Dominion of Canada. It had its own constitution, and John Macdonald became the first prime minister. Canada now had a parliamentary system and ruled itself, but foreign affairs were still in the hands of the British government.

12. What was the main difference between Upper Canada and Lower Canada?
