Unification and Consolidation of Germany and Italy 1815–90

History for the IB Diploma

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Contents

1 Introduction

This book is designed to prepare students for the Paper 3, Section 2 topic, *Unification and consolidation of Germany and Italy 1815–90* (in HL Option 5, Aspects of the History of Europe and the Middle East) in the IB History examination. It will provide an introduction to 19th century Italy, describing the impact of Napoleon Bonaparte and the rise of nationalism, the attempts to free Italy from foreign control between 1815 and 1848, and the causes, course and consequences of the 1848 revolutions in Italy. You will consider the rise of Piedmont in the 1850s and Cavour's leadership, as well as the alliance with France and the war with Austria in 1859 that led to an enlarged Piedmont in 1860. You will learn about the dramatic events of 1860 that resulted in Naples, Sicily and central Italy (excluding Rome) becoming part of a new Italian kingdom, the extension of unification by 1871, and the progress and problems of the new Italian state by 1890.

Following an introduction to Germany in the 19th century, the book explores the impact of Napoleon I on Germany, the unrest in Germany under Austrian domination and the rise of Prussia, and the economic unity in Germany after 1818. You will consider the causes, course and consequences of the 1848 revolutions in Germany, along with the role of Bismarck in bringing about unification between 1852 and 1871. Finally, the book describes the progress and problems of the new German empire and explores whether it was a true federal and parliamentary state, with comparisons drawn between Italy and Germany.

Activity

Research what is meant by the term 'nationalism'. Try to establish the reasons for the development of the desire for national unity in the 19th century.

Themes

To help you prepare for your IB History exams, this book will cover the main themes and aspects relating to the *Unification and consolidation of Germany and Italy 1815–90* as set out in the IB *History Guide*. In particular, it will deal with Italy and Germany in terms of these major areas:

- unrest in Italy from 1815 to 1848 – the historical background to the unrest and Napoleon's legacy; including the settlement of 1815, forces for change, the revolts that took place before 1848, and the causes, course and reasons for failure of the revolutions of 1848
- the Risorgimento, including the changing role of Piedmont, Cavour's diplomacy, Mazzini, Garibaldi and the events of 1859–61
- Italy between 1861 and 1890, including the problems of the 1860s, the extension of the Italian kingdom and Italy's development by 1890
- Germany between 1815 and 1862, with consideration of Germany before 1815, the Vienna Settlement, forces for change and reaction in the Bund, the Zollverein and the growth of nationalism
- the causes, events and outcome of the 1848 revolutions and the political and economic rise of Prussia
- Germany and unification between 1862 and 1871, including the rise of Bismarck and events to 1866, the role of Denmark and Austria, the North German Confederation, the war with France and the forging of the German empire
- Germany under Bismarck, including domestic and foreign policy between 1871 and 1890, how liberal the German empire was, political change, the problems of foreign policy, Bismarck and colonial policy, and Bismarck's fall and the situation by 1890.

Theory of knowledge

In addition to the broad key themes, the chapters contain Theory of knowledge (ToK) links to get you thinking about aspects that relate to history, which is a Group 3 subject in the IB Diploma. The Italian and German topic has several clear links to ideas about knowledge and history. The subject is highly political, as it concerns aspects of ideology. The term 'ideology' means a logically connected set of ideas that forms the basis of a political belief system or a political theory. As far as this book is concerned, the main relevant ideology is that of nationalism.

At times, the deeply political nature of this topic has affected the historians writing about these states, the leaders involved, and the policies and actions taken. Questions relating to the selection of sources, and the way historians interpret these sources, have clear links to the IB Theory of knowledge course.

For example, when trying to explain aspects of particular policies, political leaders' motives, and their success or failure, historians must decide which evidence to select and use to make their case and which evidence to leave out. You will need to reflect on the extent to which historians' personal political views influence them, both when selecting what they consider to be the most relevant sources and when making judgements about the value and limitations of specific sources or sets of sources.

You will need to consider: Is there such a thing as objective 'historical truth'? Or is there just a range of subjective historical opinions and interpretations about the past, which vary according to the political interests of individual historians?

The assumptions made by earlier historians and writers about nationalism in Europe after 1815 have been challenged by recent research. There is also a great deal of historical controversy – for example, about the role of Bismarck in relation to other factors, such as economic growth and whether he was in control of events or merely an improviser in the face of change. You will discover there is a range of different interpretations and several historical debates surrounding Bismarck's policies and actions. (For more on the historical debate surrounding Bismarck, see Chapter 6, pages 166–67, and Chapter 7, pages 176–77.)

You are therefore strongly advised to read a range of publications giving different interpretations of the theory and practice, and the various economic, political and social policies covered by this book, in order to gain a clear understanding of the relevant historiographies (see Further reading, page 235).

IB History and Paper 3 questions

In IB History, Paper 3 is taken only by Higher-level students. For this paper, IB History specifies that three sections of an Option should be selected for in-depth study. The examination paper will set two questions on each section – and you have to answer three questions in total.

Unlike Paper 2, where there are regional restrictions, in Paper 3 you will be able to answer *both* questions from one section, with a third chosen from one of the other sections. These questions are essentially in-depth analytical essays. This is reflected in the time available, which is 2 hours 30 minutes. (For Paper 2, you had only 1 hour 30 minutes to write two essays.) It is therefore important to ensure you study *all* the bullet points set out in the IB *History Guide*, in order to give yourself the widest possible choice of questions.

Exam skills

Throughout the main chapters of this book, there are activities and questions to help you develop the understanding and the exam skills necessary for success in Paper 3. Your exam answers should demonstrate:

- factual knowledge and understanding
- awareness and understanding of historical interpretations
- structured, analytical and *balanced* argument.

Before attempting the specific exam practice questions that come at the end of each main chapter, you might find it useful to refer *first* to Chapter 9, the final exam practice chapter. This suggestion is based on the idea that, if you know where you are supposed to be going (in this instance, gaining a good grade), and how to get there, you stand a better chance of reaching your destination!

Questions and markschemes

To ensure that you develop the necessary skills and understanding, each chapter contains comprehension questions and examination tips. For success in Paper 3, you need to produce essays that combine a number of features. In many ways, these require the same skills as the essays in Paper 2.

However, for the Higher-level Paper 3, examiners will be looking for greater evidence of *sustained* analysis and argument, linked closely to the demands of the question. They will also be seeking more depth and precision with regard to supporting knowledge. Finally, they will be expecting a clear and well-organised answer, so it is vital to do a rough plan *before* you start to answer a question. Your plan will show straight away whether or not you know enough about the topic to answer the question. It will also provide a good structure for your answer.

It is particularly important to start by focusing *closely* on the wording of the question, so that you can identify its demands. If you simply assume that a question is *generally about this period/leader*, you will probably produce an answer that is essentially a narrative or story, with only vague links to the question. Even if your knowledge is detailed and accurate, it will only be broadly relevant. If you do this, you will get half-marks at most.

Another important point is to present a *well-structured* and *analytical argument* that is clearly linked to *all the demands of the question*. Each aspect of your argument/analysis/explanation then needs to be supported by carefully selected, precise and relevant own knowledge.

In addition, showing awareness and understanding of relevant historical debates and interpretations will help you to access the highest bands and marks. This does not mean simply repeating, in your own words, what different historians have said. Instead, try to *critically evaluate* particular interpretations. For example, are there any weaknesses in some arguments put forward by some historians? What strengths does a particular interpretation have?

Examiner's tips

To help you develop these skills, most chapters contain sample questions, with examiner tips about what to do (and what *not* to do) in order to achieve high marks. These chapters will focus on a specific skill, as follows:

- Skill 1 (Chapter 2) – understanding the wording of a question
- Skill 2 (Chapter 3) – planning an essay
- Skill 3 (Chapter 4) – writing an introductory paragraph
- Skill 4 (Chapter 5) – avoiding irrelevance
- Skill 5 (Chapter 6) – avoiding a narrative-based answer
- Skill 6 (Chapter 7) – using your own knowledge analytically and combining it with awareness of historical debate
- Skill 7 (Chapter 8) – writing a conclusion to your essay.

Some of these tips will contain parts of a student's answer to a particular question, with examiner's comments, to give you an understanding of what examiners are looking for.

This guidance is developed further in Chapter 9, the exam practice chapter, where examiner's tips and comments will enable you to focus on the important aspects of questions and their answers. These examples will also help you avoid simple mistakes and oversights that, every year, result in some otherwise good students failing to gain the highest marks.

For additional help, a simplified Paper 3 markscheme is provided in Chapter 9. This should make it easier to understand what examiners are looking for in examination answers. The actual Paper 3 IB History markscheme can be found on the IB website.

This book will provide you with historical knowledge and understanding to help you answer all the specific content bullet points set out in the IB *History Guide*. Furthermore, by the time you have worked through the various exercises, you should have the skills necessary to construct relevant, clear, well-argued and well-supported essays.

Background to the period

The 18th century was dominated by kings and empires. Most European monarchs believed in the 'divine right of kings' (the idea that monarchs were appointed by God and so were answerable only to God). They therefore ruled as absolute monarchs, with little interference from parliaments. The chief exceptions to this rule were:

- The United Provinces (the Netherlands), Venice and Switzerland were the only republics of any importance in Europe. These were conservative in nature, and both the United Provinces and Venice had overseas empires.
- In Britain, the kings were constitutional monarchs and there was a parliament that was partly elected, though only by a relatively small number of voters. Part of parliament consisted of unelected nobles and churchmen.

The Enlightenment

Some monarchs – for example, the rulers of Austria, Prussia, Russia and Spain – have been described as 'enlightened despots'. They aimed to modernise their lands while keeping control of their people. They were considered 'enlightened' because they tried to put into practice some of the new reforming ideas that spread across Europe in the 18th century (a period known as the Enlightenment). They were considered 'despots', or absolute rulers, because they had unlimited power and allowed no democratic voting.

However, there were forces for change in the 18th century:

- The intellectual movement known as the Enlightenment gave rise to theories that questioned the power of kings. Some writers attacked the old privileges of king, lords and Church. For instance, Jean-Jacques Rousseau suggested that there was a contract between ruler and ruled, rather than simply an obligation to obey.
- The revolution of the American colonies against British rule, starting in 1774 and ending with American independence in 1783, encouraged the spread of ideas about representative government. These included the view that those who were taxed had a right to discuss laws and have a say in how their country should be run.

The spread of revolutionary ideals

In 1789, there was revolution in France after the king attempted to introduce a new body, the Estates-General, to discuss public affairs during a financial crisis. French people began making political demands, including calling for a new constitution, new freedoms of speech and new rights. They demanded the overthrow of the monarchy and the establishment of a French republic.

The revolution put the people of France at war with the French monarchy, and the king became a virtual prisoner of the Paris crowds. The Republic of France was proclaimed in 1792 and the French king, Louis XVI, was executed in January 1793.

Revolutionary ideas from France quickly spread into Europe, taken by brilliant French generals into Italy and Germany. These new ideas included those of 'liberty, equality and fraternity (brotherhood)' and the Declaration of the Rights of Man, which saw 'citizens' (rather than 'subjects') as having a right to vote for those who ran the state.

Prior to the 18th century, Italy and Germany were made up of many small, independent states headed by their own absolute rulers. During the Revolutionary and Napoleonic Wars (1792–1815) these states were partly unified under French rule, and so the new French ideas took hold there. This undermined the 18th century tradition of loyalty to monarchs.

Napoleon established his rule over France in 1799 and assumed the title of emperor in 1804. Under him, France became the leading power in Europe. Napoleon became a focus for nationalist feeling. He also introduced modern administration and law to Italy and Germany. In this way, he inadvertently sowed the seeds of later resistance to French rule. Revolutionary ideas from France – of the right of different nationalities to rule themselves; of the will of the people to be represented in assemblies and elected parliaments – were not forgotten after Napoleon's fall in 1814–15. These modern ideas continued to be expressed in the new Italian and German states.

Romanticism

The 18th century was characterised by a revival of classical forms in the arts and a culture based on the past. The established tradition was one of respect for authority, multinational empires and the right of kings and princes to rule. However, by 1815 romanticism spread across Europe. Romantic artists and writers aimed to express personal feeling in freer forms than were common in the formal style of the classical period, and to celebrate the wonders of nature. In the majority of art, music, literature and culture, the individual and not the community was now celebrated. Romanticism meant less respect for authority: individuality was viewed as more important, and freedom of expression and the creation of new forms to express feelings were encouraged. Dress and manners became less formal; there was renewed interest in the history of nationalities and a greater desire for nationalities to bond together. In this way, the old aristocratic world that the rulers tried to restore in 1815 was replaced by nationalism, liberalism and romanticism. All three played a significant role in the demands for German and Italian unity, as this book will show.

Terminology and definitions

To understand the various ideas that emerged in Germany and Italy
during the period under study, you will need to be familiar with
a few basic terms, including nationalism and liberalism. This is
complicated by the fact that terms such as these have meant – and
still mean – different things to different people, both to historians
and to contemporaries. The main terms and distinctions you need to
understand are listed in the following pages.

You will also need to understand what is meant by right, centre and left
in politics. This will help explain, for example, the divisions of 1848–49
and the struggles after the unification of both Italy and Germany.

The political spectrum: left/centre/right in the 19th century
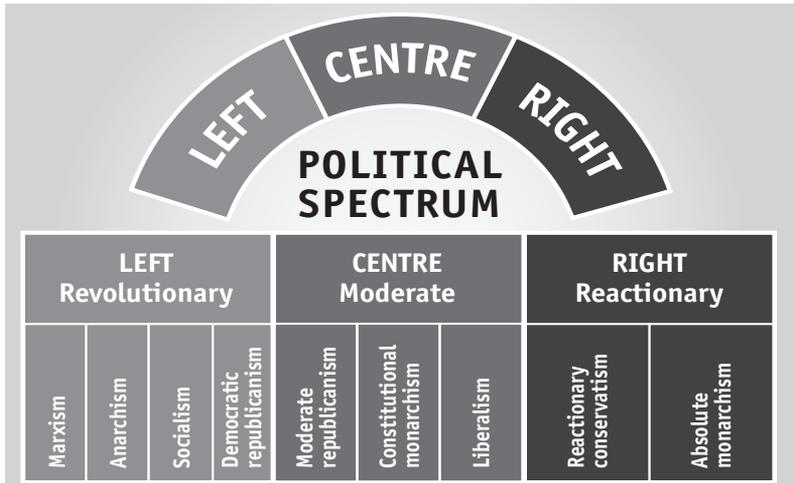
Liberalism

This word comes from the Latin *liber*, meaning free. Liberalism in
the period you are going to study means a belief in political freedom.
This involves:

- freedom from absolute monarchs and states
- freedom under the law – the right to a fair trial
- freedom to express political views
- freedom to elect parliaments to discuss laws.

Many of these ideas originate from the American Declaration of Independence of 1776 and the French Declaration of the Rights of Man of 1789. These reflect the view that all men have the natural right to be free.

Liberalism also means economic freedom. Liberals believed that government should not interfere with people's desire to improve their lives through their own efforts. Liberals thought that taxes on internal trade restricted prosperity and should be abolished. They believed that if trade within nations were free, people's labour and profits would not need to be taxed much.

In terms of religion, liberals argued that people should be free to choose whether to believe in and practise religion or to have none – that is, the churches should not impose their beliefs.

The limit that liberals placed on this freedom was that it should not restrict the right to freedom of others. People should not be free to commit crimes, for instance.

Liberals were not necessarily democrats. Many liberals thought that only those with a share in society should vote – this excluded the poor and those who did not pay taxes. To some, democracy was flawed because it gave the 'ignorant' a voice as well as the informed, educated classes. Also, tyrants such as Napoleon had used universal suffrage (the right of all men to vote) to get support, often by falsifying election results.

Liberals did not always believe in social reforms or helping the poor, because they thought this would interfere with the people's individual responsibility for their own lives. They also were against raising taxes, as they thought people should be free to keep what they earned.

Reactionary

The reactionaries were those who were against the new liberal ideas and reacted against change. They were the defenders of established traditions and the old order.

One example of a reactionary is the Austrian statesman Clemens von Metternich. Metternich wanted to prevent discussion about change and bring back respect for traditional authority – the monarch, the aristocracy, the Church – after the French Revolution.

Nationalism

Nationalism is the belief that progress and happiness will follow if people of the same nationality live in the same state.

Nationality was usually seen in terms of a common language or culture. However, this was difficult to define in practice. Furthermore, not all nationalists believed in the same nation. For example, some believed in a *Grossdeutschland* – a 'greater Germany' made up of all Germanic peoples including those in Austria – while others believed in a smaller Germany, or *Kleindeutschland*, made up of Protestant north Germans. Similarly, some believed in a northern 'Italy' while others thought that all Italians, including those living in the south, should be included. What united nationalists was a dislike of foreign rule.

Republicans

Some nationalists were also republicans. They believed in an end to hereditary monarchy and in rule by elected heads of state and assemblies.

France had set up a republic in September 1792, following a joint Austrian–Prussian invasion of France in August, and suspicions that the king was in touch with the invaders. However, a combination of French defeats, radical political ideas, popular unrest and further evidence of roal contacts with enemy forces, led to the king's trial for treason in December 1792 and his execution in January 1793. Republics were therefore associated with violent revolution in the 19th century.

Some republicans were also nationalists, but not all nationalists were republicans. In the end, both the united Germany and the united Italy were monarchies.

Summary

By the time you have worked through this book, you should be able to:

- understand what Italy and Germany were like before 1815, and what problems were faced by those who wished to unite them
- understand and account for the various attempts to unite Germany and Italy before and during 1848 and 1849, and the reasons for their failures
- understand why changes after 1849 made unification possible in both countries, and make a judgement about the importance of key personalities in the development of unification
- understand the developments after unification, and make a judgement about how well the rulers of Italy and Germany coped with the problems that arose because of unification
- make comparisons between developments in the two countries.

2 The unification of Italy 1796–1848

Timeline

1789 French Revolution begins; new ideas of liberty and progress

1792 Apr: French Revolutionary Wars begin; Italy becomes a battleground between France and Austria

1796 Mar: Napoleon leads French army and defeats Piedmont and Austria

1797 Oct: Peace of Campo Formio

1802 Jan: Republic of Italy established by France

1804 Dec: Napoleon becomes emperor; Italy is part of his empire

1805 Mar: Kingdom of Italy established

1806 Mar: Kingdom of Naples set up

1814 Apr: Napoleon abdicates; Congress of Vienna discusses peace settlement

1815 Jun: Treaty of Vienna; Austria dominates Italy

1820–21 a series of revolts across Italy – all fail

1831 Jul: Young Italy republican movement founded by Giuseppe Mazzini

1846 Jun: election of Pope Pius IX raises hopes of a united Italy

1848 Jan: revolt in Sicily

Mar: revolts in Milan and Venice

May: invasion of Lombardy by Piedmont

Jul: Battle of Custoza – Austria defeats Piedmont under Carlo Alberto

1849 Apr: French troops sent to Rome to protect the pope

Mar: Battle of Novara; abdication of Carlo Alberto; Vittore Emanuele II becomes king of Piedmont

Jun: defeat of Roman Republic

Aug: defeat of Venetian Republic

Key questions

- What was Italy like before 1796?
- What impact did the French Revolution and Napoleon have on Italy?
- Why was there unrest in Italy between 1815 and 1848?
- Why did the 1848 revolutions fail and how important were they?

This chapter explains the disunity in Italy before 1815 and briefly outlines the impact of the French Revolution and the Napoleonic Wars in creating a more unified Italian nation. There was increasing interest in the creation of this 'new Italy', and the hope that greater unity would result in a moral regeneration. This idealism was particularly associated with the writer and political agitator Giuseppe Mazzini, who inspired many young Italians. However, Italy's rulers had little interest in a new state. Austria was the dominant power after 1815, and its strong armies were a barrier to Italian nationalism. The leading Italian state was Piedmont, and some nationalists saw their greatest hopes in a movement led by this northern kingdom. For a while, it even seemed that Pope Pius IX might lead a more unified Italy. However, the revolts of 1848 proved this was not to be. The king of Piedmont was an unenthusiastic nationalist and Austria defeated his armies, while the pope turned strongly against national unity. Italian nationalists led daring revolts, but by 1849 they were defeated and the Austrians and the old rulers were back in control.

Overview

- There was little sense of being 'Italian' in 1796, since regional loyalties, laws, dialects and customs were more important than national ideals.
- The French Revolution and France's subsequent invasions and control brought greater political unity to Italy. Napoleon Bonaparte forced Italians to live in new states with a new type of government and new laws. Italian nationalism was a consequence of this unpopular French rule.
- Some Italians were inspired to work towards increased unity after 1815, when the old order was restored and Italy once again fell under foreign control – this time by Austria.
- Some Italian nationalists formed secret societies and were idealistic writers and agitators. The most important of these was Giuseppe Mazzini.
- Piedmont was the strongest of the Italian states and there were hopes that it might lead Italy towards unification. In the 1840s, some nationalists looked to the papacy to take charge of a new Italy.
- However, Italian nationalists were a minority. When revolution broke out on a large scale in 1848, it failed because there was too much disunity in Italy and Austria was too powerful.

What was Italy like before 1796?

Italy on the eve of the Napoleonic era

Before 1796, 'Italy' was a concept rather than a country.
Contemporaries referred to Italy in a similar way that we might refer
to the 'Arab world' or 'the West'. It was made up of many different
states with different traditions, languages and levels of economic and
social development. The Austrian statesman Clemens von Metternich
described Italy in 1847 as 'a geographical expression'. The different
states and regions had little in common. There was no official
language; no common form of government; no education system; no
standard currency, weights and measures or even time measurement.
There were economic barriers; difficulties in crossing frontiers; poor
communications; and barriers to travel, such as mountain ranges.
There was only a distant tradition of Italian unity that dated from
Roman times.

A map of Italy in 1749

Piedmont-Savoy or the Kingdom of Sardinia

The Italian state of Piedmont-Savoy developed as its rulers – the dukes of Savoy and kings of Sardinia – acquired new lands. Savoy was occupied by France in 1792 and its people considered themselves to be French. It was separated by mountains from Piedmont, which was viewed as Italian. This divided state also included the island of Sardinia, which had a dialect and culture of its own. The capital of Piedmont-Savoy was Turin (Torino).

Lombardy

The province of Lombardy, the former duchy of Milan, lay to the east of Piedmont and was ruled by Austria. It had an impressive capital in Milan and an efficient administration. Its citizens were well educated, and benefited from fair taxes and a legal system based on the principle of equal rights for all.

The Republics of Venice and Genoa

These were two self-governing states. They were ruled by heads of state, called doges, who were elected by the upper classes. Venice had colonies along the Adriatic coast and was one of the great cities of Europe. Genoa was a major trading centre.

Modena and Parma

These were small states ruled by dukes and duchesses and allied to the ruling family of Austria, the **Habsburgs**.

The Habsburgs The Habsburg family was one of the key ruling houses of Europe. They had been Holy Roman Emperors since the 15th century. The empire was a great area of land in central Europe. Although its emperors were in theory elected by certain key bishops and princes, in practice the rulers of Austria – the Habsburg family – were always chosen, from the late 15th century through to the abolition of the Holy Roman empire in 1806 under Napoleon. After 1806, the Habsburg family ruled the Austrian empire – which included lands in Italy – from their capital, Vienna. The Austrian empire was defeated in Italy in 1860 and in Germany in 1866, and became known as the Austro-Hungarian empire from 1867 until its demise after the First World War, when it was broken up into separate states.

Tuscany

The Grand Duchy of Tuscany, with its capital Florence, was ruled by a Habsburg relative of the Austrians.

The Papal States

This was the name given to great areas of central Italy that were ruled directly by the pope in Rome.

The Kingdom of the Two Sicilies

The southern part of Italy was called the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies because of the union of the island of Sicily with the large southern state of Naples, under a ruling family of Spanish origin. Naples was one of Europe's biggest cities, with a population of 300,000.

Activity

Test yourself – on a blank map of Italy, make sure you can identify the following: Turin; Venice; Rome; Naples; Sicily; Piedmont; the Papal States; Lombardy.

This knowledge is essential if you are to understand how the different parts of Italy came together.

The political situation in Italy

- There were three republics – Genoa, Venice and Lucca – but these were oligarchies (states in which decisions were made only by the wealthy).
- Piedmont was an absolute monarchy – that is, the word of the king was law. The Papal States were ruled as an absolute monarchy (with the pope as absolute ruler), as were Naples and Sicily.
- The smaller duchies, such as Parma, had no political freedom.
- Austria, ruling Lombardy directly, was a major influence on other areas through alliances and family connections.

The economic situation in Italy

In many areas, there was little trade between regions or even between cities and their agricultural lands. Many rural areas simply grew enough food to live on. The northern agricultural lands were fertile and there was some investment and development in these areas. Piedmont and Lombardy were among the few regions of 18th century Europe to introduce modern farming techniques, such as drainage and crop rotation. Elsewhere, agricultural practices had changed little over the centuries. Outside the fertile Lombard plains, farmland was often of inferior quality. There were extensive marshes that were hazardous and difficult to cultivate, and those who lived in the mountain areas were poor.

Trade for the urban markets was limited because of poor communications. Travel was difficult – carriages encountered substandard roads and the threat of bandits was common. In most rural areas, there was no real cash economy. Many people lived in shanty towns and caves, unable to read or write. They had a low life expectancy and survived on a diet of polenta (a thick mush made from cornmeal) rather than bread. Industrial development was also limited. The landowners invested little in manufacturing, and the main industry was silk. There was some trade and a history of commercial finance, but much of Italy was economically backward.

Culture and society

Italy was famous for its cities. Culturally, Italian art, music and architecture were very influential across Europe. The villas of the architect Andrea Palladio were widely copied, and Italian opera was a major artistic export. However, these cultural achievements did not bind the Italian states together very much.

Italian literature was written in a dialect used by the educated classes of Tuscany. However, by the late 18th century there was some doubt whether this dialect would survive, as educated Italians mostly communicated in French. Across the Italian states, there were various regional dialects that made communication difficult between people from different areas. Those living in remote areas were cut off, not only by poor roads and lack of transport, but by speaking in a little-known local language. People from the more developed regions rarely, if ever, visited the south of the country.

Activity

As a class, produce a series of wall charts for a museum exhibition on Italy in the 18th century. Describe the political, economic, cultural, architectural and geographical Italy that visitors would have seen or read about in their journeys in the late 18th century.

Discussion point

Working in pairs, each person chooses one of the following roles:

- You are a tutor to a rich young man in 1788. Explain to him why Italy is an important place to know about and what he can expect on a visit there.

- You are a young, rich man who plans to visit Italy. You need to ask some questions about your forthcoming tour.

If there are things that either tutor or visitor are unsure of, stop and do some more research. When you are ready, act out the conversation for the class.

What impact did the French Revolution and Napoleon have on Italy?

In 1789, revolution broke out in France. The French monarchy gradually lost power and was then overthrown. Initially, a constitutional monarchy was introduced, in which the king shared power with elected representatives of the people. However, in 1792 this gave way to a republic – a state without a king. In 1793, the French king Louis XVI and his queen Marie Antoinette were tried and executed. The other monarchies in Europe were shocked by this and opposed revolution, but French armies moved into Europe to spread revolutionary ideas.

The French Revolutionary Wars had a major impact on Italy. French forces invaded Savoy in 1792, in order to secure France's southern boundary. This resulted in the spread of new political ideas into Italy, with reformers in the cities giving voice to the key revolutionary ideals of 'liberty, equality and fraternity (brotherhood)'.

Napoleon

In 1794, France's Army of Italy, which had defended France's frontiers, crossed the border at Genoa. The army was inadequately supplied, poorly paid and undisciplined. It made little progress until a young general called **Napoleon Bonaparte** took charge of it. Napoleon was able to lead the army to a swift victory over Piedmont's and Austria's troops. He then imposed his own rule on Austria in 1797, effectively redrawing the map of northern Italy. Napoleon even experimented with internal reforms in the lands he conquered.

Napoleon Bonaparte (1769–1821) Napoleon was of Italian descent. He was born in Corsica while the island was still part of Genoa, and lived there during French occupation. He trained in France as an officer, rose to be a successful artillery officer and was a commander by the age of 32. His brilliant military campaign gave France control of Italy. After a campaign in Egypt, he led a successful coup against the French revolutionary government in 1799 and became the First Consul of France. He became Emperor of France in 1804, and defeated Prussia, Russia and Austria between 1805 and 1807. Under his leadership, France dominated Europe, but Napoleon was eventually defeated by wars with Spain and Russia in 1812 and the British army and navy. He abdicated in 1814 and was exiled to the Italian island of Elba. He returned in 1815 only to be defeated again and exiled to the Atlantic island of St Helena, where he died in 1821.

Changes in Italy as a result of the campaign of 1796–97

Napoleon's campaign of 1796–97 resulted in various territorial changes:

- at the Treaty of Campo Formio in October 1797, the Austrians acquired Venice and gave Belgium and Lombardy to France
- the king of Naples sent an army to fight the French in 1798, but this was defeated and Naples was occupied; two new republics – the Roman Republic and the Neapolitan Republic – were established here as pro-French satellite states (states that were in theory independent but were in reality ruled by France)
- French troops occupied the Kingdom of Sardinia in December 1798.

In addition, some major elements of revolutionary France were introduced into Italy. The republics acquired a constitution (a set of rules by which a country is governed) based on the French constitution, and there were elections and major changes in law and government.

In 1798, Napoleon led an army in Egypt. He then returned to France, organised a successful coup against the French government and became First Consul of the Republic in 1799. By this time, Austrian troops had entered Italy and reversed Napoleon's gains of 1796–97. Napoleon crossed the Alps once more and inflicted a humiliating defeat on Austria at Marengo in 1800. French forces once again dominated Italy, resulting in another reorganisation of states.

Napoleon introduced radical changes to Italy between 1802 and 1810.

- In January 1802, the Republic of Italy was established. In 1805, after Napoleon took the title of Emperor of France, this became the Kingdom of Italy. The Republic's original boundaries expanded so that the kingdom controlled one-third of Italy's territory and 6.5 million inhabitants.
- Venice and its Illyrian provinces on the Adriatic also became part of the French empire.
- In 1806, following Napoleon's spectacular victories in central Europe, he sent troops into Naples and established the Kingdom of Naples. This new kingdom was not ruled by a traditional royal family but by one of Napoleon's most trusted generals, Joachim Murat.
- In addition to the two kingdoms, Napoleon annexed (brought under the control of France) several Italian territories: Piedmont became part of France in 1802, followed by Liguria (Genoa) in 1805, Tuscany in 1808, and Parma and Piacenza in 1809.

- The Papal States were gradually broken up, and the pope was exiled in 1809 when Rome also became part of France.

A map showing French control of Italy by 1810

The significance of the changes

The French conquest of Italy meant that disparate Italian territories were now united under French control. The Italian response to this was significant: there were calls for Italians to unite against foreign domination, and among some educated Italians there emerged the desire for greater national unity led by Italians themselves.

Activity

Prepare a short presentation on the importance of the Napoleonic period for Italy.