

UNIT: II
1.UNIFICATION OF ITALY
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Background of the Unification of Italy

The Italian Peninsula had fragmented into different city-states upon the demise of the Western Roman Empire in 476 AD. Although briefly united under the Ostrogothic Kingdom, it again fell to disunity following the invasion of the Eastern Roman Empire (Byzantine Empire) in the 500s.

The northern half of Italy was under the control of the Holy Roman Empire (a German-speaking Empire) beginning in the 8th century while the central and the southern half were intermittently governed between the Kingdom of Naples, Kingdom of Sicily and the Papal States.

The state of affairs continued well into the 17th century until the rise of the Italian city-states, such as Milan and Venice, changed the balance of power in the region. Wars would be fought between the states and the Holy Roman Empire culminating in the Peace of Westphalia in 1648. Although it would end the involvement of the Holy Roman Empire, most of Northern Italy would still be ruled by the Spanish branch of the Habsburgs, who ruled the Holy Roman Empire at the time. The Spanish Wars of succession would end the Habsburg Rule in Italy by 1714

Italy was thus divided into many small principalities, and it would remain that way until the outbreak of the French Revolution in 1789.

Italy under Napoleon

Towards the end of the French Revolution, Napoleon Bonaparte would begin a series of wars that would change the political landscape of Europe for years to come. Napoleon conquered the Italian city-states and turned it into a single administrative unit. As part of the French Empire, the Italian people would imbibe many ideas of the revolution such as liberty, equality and fraternity. Above all, active participation by the people in governance was encouraged, something unheard of in the Italian states for centuries

The empire established by Napoleon had served as a fuel for revolutionary ideas, as he even encouraged nationalism. Italy would be split again following the Napoleons' fall in 1815, its city-states divided among various European powers, with the Empire of Austria having the most power. But by this time the Italian people had enough of foreign involvement in their land and would begin a series of insurrections to drive the foreigners out and unite their country.

The Unification of Italy Begins

During the 1820s and 1830s, the movement for unification would grow finally culminating in revolutions break out in many Italian states in 1848. Although the revolutions would be suppressed, it did little to stem the tide of revolutionary activities. Guiseppe Garibaldi would emerge as the face of Italian unification during this period.

Guiseppe Garibaldi (1807-1848) was a revolutionary who had taken part in 1848 insurrection but had to go into exile when it failed. Lending his support to King Victor Emmanuel II of Piedmont, he would return to Italy in 1860 bringing with him an army consisting of volunteers from Sicily and Naples. In 1858, Victor Emanuel, along with other northern Italian states, had allied with France to permanently end Austrian involvement in the region.

The insurrection in 1860 would be a success as Garibaldi and his army of Redshirts would conquer the island of Sicily and Naples. Meanwhile, the northern states had joined up with Piedmont-Sardinia and accepted Victor Emmanuel II as their King. Garibaldi handed Naples and Sicily to him in November 1860 and by 1861 Italy was declared as a kingdom. Only Venice and Rome would remain under foreign control and they became a part of Italy in 1866 and 1871 respectively. Thus, the Unification of Italy was completed.

The aftermath of the Unification

Although the reunification was a reality, it leads to total domination of the Kingdom of Piedmont. Despite promises that regional authorities would participate equally in the government, it was the ruling class of Piedmont that dominated the government during the initial years.

The Italian people wanted a united Italy with a weak central government and strong states. What they got instead was a strong central government with little to no power exercised by the states.

The new Kingdom of Italy was structured by renaming the old Kingdom of Sardinia and annexing all the new provinces into its structures. The first king was Victor Emmanuel II, who kept his old title.

The new constitution was Piedmont's old constitution. The document was generally liberal and was welcomed by liberal elements. But this was resented by pro-clergy elements in Venice, Rome Naples and Sicily.

The first decade of the Kingdom of Italy saw civil wars raging in Sicily and Naples which was harshly suppressed. The inevitable long-run results were a severe weakness of national unity and a politicized system based on mutually hostile regional violence. Such factors remain in the 21st century

II.UNIFICATION OF GERMANY

Background of the Unification of Germany

Before unification, Germany was a collection of small kingdoms that came into existence following the Treaty of Verdun in 843. These kingdoms would form the basis of the Holy Roman Empire. Yet, there was no homogenous German identity until the 19th century. This was in part due to the autonomy of the princely states and most inhabitants not ruled directly by the Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire largely identified with their prince instead of the German emperor

This system of having small states within the empire was called “practice of *kleinstaaterei*” or “practice of small states”. It was during the onset of the Industrial Revolution that brought about an improvement in transportation and communication, ultimately bringing far-flung regions in close contact with each other

The scenario changed upon the defeat and dissolution of the Holy Roman Empire by France during the Napoleonic Wars in 1806. Even though a German Confederation was re-established following the French defeat in 1815, a huge wave of German nationalism swept through the region at the beginning of the 19th century. This wave of nationalism gave rise to the demands of a centralized authority by the mid 19th century.

The rise of Prussia

The Congress of Vienna in 1815 had established a confederation of German states under the leadership of the Austrian Empire. For their part, the Austrians, in a bid to maintain their own influence over the German states, suppressed any expression of German nationalism and pitted the German states against one another. It ensured that no one state would become powerful over that of the other.

Prussia, the easternmost state of the German Confederation was one such state. It had briefly attempted unification of the German confederation under its rule in 1848 until the combined power of other states, with support from the Austrian Empire, foiled it.

With the appointment of Otto von Bismarck as the Prime Minister of Prussia, the situation began to change.

Otto von Bismarck had a burning ambition to transform Prussia into a formidable power and avenge the humiliating loss at Austria's hands years before. To this end, he brought major reforms into the Prussian army that made it into the most disciplined and professional fighting force in that part of the world.

The war that followed in 1866 (known as the Seven Weeks War) saw Prussia dealing a heavy blow on Austria and its German allies. So profound was the victory that it ended Austrian interference in German matters and allowed Prussia to lay the foundations of its own empire.

However, this would not be enough. Bismarck knew that only a new war with an old enemy would unite other German states, who had been traditional rivals of Prussia, to throw in their lot with the new Prussian empire. That enemy would be France

Franco-Prussian War of 1870-1871

France was ruled by Napoleon III, the nephew of Napoleon Bonaparte. Unlike his uncle, Napoleon III would lack both political acumen and military skill. He would become a perfect target for Otto von Bismarck's machinations.

Through a series of clever diplomatic manoeuvres and subtle provocations, Bismarck managed to provoke Napoleon III into declaring war against Prussia. The seemingly aggressive move by the French was enough to restrain other European powers from supporting Napoleon III. The result in the German states was a wave of anti-French sentiments.

When Bismarck marched the Prussian Army towards the French border in July 1870, they were joined by armies of the other German states. The resulting war would prove devastating for France with the most notable defeat being at Sedan in September 1870. It was enough for Napoleon III to tender his resignation as emperor to the French parliament and live out the rest of his life in England. But the war with the Prussians still continued regardless.

The war would continue until the fall of Paris to the Prussian Army in January 1871. In the meantime, Bismarck had gathered the German general's princes and Kings at Versailles and declared King William I of Prussia as the Emperor of the German Empire on January 18. On the same day, the new Constitution of the German Confederation came into force, thereby significantly extending the federal German lands to the newly created German Empire with Prussia at its helm.

As for the French, furious and smarting under the humiliation of their own monuments being used to further the cause of their enemies, they would avenge their defeat decades later.

Result of the German Unification

The Unification of Germany was a watershed moment in European history that would forever change its political landscape. With the arrival of a new unified German nation onto European politics, the other powers took note with mixed feelings of appreciation, awe and fear. An appreciation that a new state would change the balance of power within continental Europe, awe at the fact that motley collection of bickering German state could band together to defeat a common foe in such a short span of time and fear at the prospect of facing a new powerful enemy whose military prowess was unmatched by any European army at the time.

The new German state would for the first time write its own chapter on colonialism when it undertook expeditions to Africa and Asia. This naturally brought the German Empire into conflict with its European neighbours in the continent and elsewhere. The aggressive approach would further antagonise other nations such as Britain, France and Russia. The animosity between them would spark the fires of the first world war in 1914, which would end the German Empire through the Treaty of Versailles (whose terms were dictated by France) in 1919, ironically in the very same halls where the German Empire was first proclaimed.

III.NAPOLEAN III- DOMESTIC AND FOREIGN POLICY

Napoleon III:-

The Second French Empire was the Imperial Bonapartist regime of Napoleon III from 1852 to 1870, between the Second Republic and the Third Republic, an era of great industrialization, urbanization (including the massive rebuilding of Paris by Baron Haussmann), and economic growth, as well as major disasters in foreign affairs. The constitution of the Second Republic, ratified in September 1848, was extremely flawed and permitted no effective resolution between the President and the Assembly in case of dispute. In 1848, a nephew of Napoléon Bonaparte, Louis-Napoleon Bonaparte, was elected President of France through universal male suffrage, taking 74% of the vote. He did this with the support of the Parti de l'Ordre after running against Louis Eugène Cavaignac. Subsequently, he was in constant conflict with the members of the National Assembly.

Ascension To Power

Contrary to the Party's expectations that Louis-Napoleon would be easy to manipulate (Adolphe Thiers had called him a "cretin whom we will lead [by the nose]"), he proved himself an agile and cunning politician. He succeeded in imposing his choices and decisions on the Assembly, which had once again become conservative in the aftermath of the June Days Uprising in 1848.

The provisions of the constitution that prohibited an incumbent president from seeking re-election appeared to force the end of Louis-Napoleon's rule in December 1852. Not one to admit defeat, Louis-Napoleon spent the first half of 1851 trying to change the constitution through Parliament so he could be re-elected. Bonaparte traveled through the provinces and organized petitions to rally popular support but in January 1851, the Parliament voted no.

Louis-Napoleon believed that he was supported by the people, and he decided to retain power by other means. His half-brother Morny and a few close advisers began to quietly organize a coup d'état. They brought Major General Jacques Leroy de Saint Arnaud, a former captain from the French Foreign Legion and a commander of French forces in Algeria, and other officers from the French army in North Africa to provide military backing for the coup.

On the morning of December 2, troops led by Saint-Arnaud occupied strategic points in Paris from the Champs-Élysées to the Tuileries. Top opposition leaders were arrested and six edicts promulgated to establish the rule of Louis-Napoleon. The Assemblée Nationale was dissolved and universal male suffrage restored. Louis-Napoleon declared that a new constitution was being framed and said he intended to restore a “system established by the First Consul.” He thus declared himself President for Life, and in 1852, Emperor of France, Napoleon III.

France was ruled by Emperor Napoleon III from 1852 to 1870. During the first years of the Empire, Napoleon’s government imposed censorship and harsh repressive measures against his opponents. Some six thousand were imprisoned or sent to penal colonies until 1859. Thousands more went into voluntary exile abroad, including Victor Hugo. From 1862 onward, he relaxed government censorship, and his regime came to be known as the “Liberal Empire.” Many of his opponents returned to France and became members of the National Assembly.

Legacy

Napoleon III is best known today for his grand reconstruction of Paris, carried out by his prefect of the Seine, Baron Haussmann. He launched similar public works projects in Marseille, Lyon, and other French cities. Napoleon III modernized the French banking system, greatly expanded and consolidated the French railway system, and made the French merchant marine the second largest in the world. He promoted the building of the Suez Canal and established modern agriculture, which ended famines in France and made France an agricultural exporter. Napoleon III negotiated the 1860 Cobden–Chevalier free trade agreement with Britain and similar agreements with France’s other European trading partners. Social reforms included giving French workers the right to strike and the right to organize. Women’s education greatly expanded, as did the list of required subjects in public schools.

Foreign Policy

In foreign policy, Napoleon III aimed to reassert French influence in Europe and around the world. He was a supporter of popular sovereignty and nationalism. Despite his promises in 1852 of a peaceful reign, the Emperor could not resist the temptations of glory in foreign affairs. He was visionary, mysterious, and secretive; had a poor staff; and kept running afoul of his domestic supporters. In the end he was incompetent as a diplomat. Napoleon did have some successes: he strengthened French control over Algeria, established bases in Africa, began the takeover of Indochina, and opened trade with China. He facilitated a French company building the Suez Canal, which Britain could not stop. In Europe, however, Napoleon failed again and again. The Crimean war of 1854–56 produced no gains, although his alliance with Britain did defeat Russia. His regime assisted Italian unification and in doing so, annexed Savoy and the County of Nice to France; at the same time, his forces defended the Papal States against annexation by Italy. On the other hand, his army’s intervention in Mexico to create a Second Mexican Empire under French protection ended in failure.

The Prussian chancellor Otto von Bismarck provoked Napoleon into declaring war on Prussia in July 1870, beginning the Franco-Prussian War. The French troops were swiftly defeated in the following weeks, and on September 1, the main army, which the emperor himself was with, was trapped at Sedan and forced to surrender. A republic was quickly proclaimed in Paris, but the war was far from over. As it was clear that Prussia would expect territorial concessions, the provisional government vowed to continue resistance. The Prussians laid siege to Paris, and new armies mustered by France failed to alter this situation. The French capital began experiencing severe food shortages, to the extent that even the animals in the zoo were eaten. As the city was bombarded by Prussian siege guns in January 1871, King William of Prussia was proclaimed Emperor of Germany in the Hall of Mirrors at Versailles. Shortly afterwards,

Paris surrendered. The subsequent peace treaty was harsh. France ceded Alsace and Lorraine to Germany and had to pay an indemnity of 5 billion francs. German troops were to remain in the country until it was paid off. Meanwhile, the fallen Napoleon III went into exile in England where he died in 1873.

Structure Of Second French Empire

The structure of the French government during the Second Empire was little changed from the First. But Emperor Napoleon III stressed his own imperial role as the foundation of the government. If government was to guide the people toward domestic justice and external peace, it was his role as emperor, holding his power by universal male suffrage and representing all of the people, to function as supreme leader and safeguard the achievements of the revolution. He had so often, while in prison or in exile, chastised previous oligarchical governments for neglecting social questions that it was imperative France now prioritize their solutions. His answer was to organize a system of government based on the principles of the “Napoleonic Idea.” This meant that the emperor, the elect of the people as the representative of the democracy, ruled supreme. He himself drew power and legitimacy from his role as representative of the great Napoleon I of France, “who had sprung armed from the French Revolution like Minerva from the head of Jove.”

The anti-parliamentary French Constitution of 1852, instituted by Napoleon III on January 14, 1852, was largely a repetition of that of 1848. All executive power was entrusted to the emperor who as head of state was solely responsible to the people. The people of the Empire, lacking democratic rights, were to rely on the benevolence of the emperor rather than on the benevolence of politicians. He was to nominate the members of the council of state, whose duty it was to prepare the laws, and of the senate, a body permanently established as a constituent part of the empire.

One innovation was made, namely that the Legislative Body was elected by universal suffrage, but it had no right of initiative as all laws were proposed by the executive power. This new political change was rapidly followed by the same consequence as of Brumaire. On December 2, 1852, France, still under the effect of Napoleon’s legacy and the fear of anarchy, conferred almost unanimously by a plebiscite the supreme power and the title of emperor upon Napoleon III.

The Legislative Body was not allowed to elect its own president, regulate its own procedure, propose a law or an amendment, vote on the budget in detail, or make its deliberations public. Similarly, universal suffrage was supervised and controlled by means of official candidature by forbidding free speech and action in electoral matters to the Opposition and gerrymandering in such a way as to overwhelm the Liberal vote in the mass of the rural population.

For seven years France had no democratic life. The Empire governed by a series of plebiscites. Up to 1857 the Opposition did not exist. From then till 1860 it was reduced to five members: Darimon, Émile Ollivier, Hénon, Jules Favre, and Ernest Picard. The royalists waited inactive after the new and unsuccessful attempt made at Frohsdorf in 1853 by a combination of the legitimists and Orléanists to recreate a living monarchy out of the ruin of two royal families.

IV. TURKISH REPUBLIC

Facing defeat after World War I, The Ottoman Empire, together with her allies, was compelled to sign the Mondros Armistice on October 30, 1918, which granted the victors total control in their redesign of the Ottoman State. Among the terms of the armistice was a provision that the entente powers could occupy areas deemed to be of strategic importance.

These powers began to occupy Anatolia on November 1, 1918. Following the Greek occupation of Izmir, a national resistance movement was formed by the Society of the Defence of Rights (Müdafaa-i Hukuk) to repel the occupation forces. The military branch was called "Kuvay-i Milliye".

Despite the Society's best intentions, the movement remained disorganized until the arrival of Mustafa Kemal at Samsun. In addition to launching the War of Independence, Kemal and his associates also began planning a new regime, in which the rule of State would be replaced by the rule of its citizens.

Even under these unprecedented conditions, Mustafa Kemal and his comrades remained loyal to the rules of a democratic regime, and took the first steps towards establishing a republic. On April 20, 1920, the Turkish Grand National Assembly (TGNA) was founded to conduct the War of Independence despite the Ottoman parliament in occupied Istanbul.

A Turkish victory at the battle at Dumlupınar on August 26, 1922, called the "Battle of the Commander-in-Chief" (Başkomutanlık Savaşı), coupled with the liberation of Izmir on September 9, 1922 brought an end to the War of Independence. On July 24, 1923, the Lausanne Peace Treaty was signed and the TGNA announced on October 13, 1923 that Ankara was the new capital.

Preparation was underway for the establishment of a strong republic. On October 29, 1923, the Republic was proclaimed. Atatürk was then elected first President of the Republic of Turkey.

Atatürk's Reforms

Atatürk dedicated his life to legal, political and social reforms. First, important changes were made in the legislature. On April 20, 1924, the new Constitution was ratified, and in 1925 the traditional Crop Tax was lifted. In 1926 the Law of Obligations, and the Civil, Commercial and Criminal Codes were revised along western lines. The closing of Dervish retreats, the Hat Law, and the adoption of the Gregorian calendar all created deep-rooted changes in the state and community. The same year the Latin alphabet was adopted to replace the Arabic script.

The state structure was secularized in line with the sovereignty of the nation. The War of Independence, the Amasya Declaration, the Erzurum and Sivas Congresses, the establishment of the TGNA and the ratification of the 1921 Constitution all reflected the sovereign rights of the Turkish nation. This dealt a blow to the concept of a theocratic state. After the victory, the Sultanate and Caliphate were abolished (1922, 1924 respectively), the republic was proclaimed (1923), and the Canonical and Pious Foundations Ministry was closed (1924), all pointing to secularization. The article in the Constitution stating that the religion of the State was Islam, was deleted in 1928 and in 1937, the principle of secularism was inserted. The multi-party parliamentary system was introduced in 1946.

Turkey's model secularism differed from the classic western form in that though separation of religion and state was adopted, the State assumed control of religious affairs. All Turkish citizens are free to practice their own religion and 98 % of the population is Moslem. No one is forced to attend religious gatherings, disclose their religious belief, and neither can they be discriminated against because of their religious practices.

With the proclamation of the Republic, efforts were exerted to bring the traditional structure of the community to a level of contemporary civilization. The woman's rights movement gained impetus during the Reform period and Atatürk granted women the same rights as men. The "women's revolution" brought about legal changes in the law concerning control of religious affairs by the State (1924), and the Apparel Law of 1926. Thus, the educational system was

also secularized and women had the same right to an education as men. The veil was also abolished. Furthermore, the Civil Code ascertained a women's status in society not by a religious, but by a legal formula. Thus, polygamy was abolished. Both men and women were granted the same rights in the eyes of the law in regard to marriage, divorce and inheritance. Women were given the right to vote and be elected to municipal councils in 1930 and to the National Assembly in 1934.

Women's Rights today: The Constitution embraces the basic principle of sexual equality. There is no discrimination in public enterprises with regard to salaries. The International Labour Organization (ILO) agreement of 1951, stipulating equal pay for equal work was signed by Turkey in 1966. On July 24, 1985, the TGNA approved the agreement drawn up by the UN denouncing discrimination based on sex.

Atatürk also attached importance to developing relations with neighbouring countries and multilateral agreements such as the Balkan Agreement and the Sadabat Pact. Reciprocal visits of Turkish and Greek Prime Ministers were encouraged and the agreements signed were instrumental in creating an atmosphere of peace in the region. In 1936, the problem of the Bosphorus Straits was solved by the Montreux Convention followed in 1938 by a solution to the Hatay problem in accordance with Turkey's wishes.

During the past 76 years there have been economic and financial growth, and an increase of trade and human relations which safeguard universal values. The Republic of Turkey has achieved important developments in government administration, has established a pluralist parliamentary democratic regime that believes in secularism, has re-constructed its society, and has developed international relations and ties with related international organizations and institutions. The Republic has evaluated the latest developments in its geographical region, safeguards the principles of Atatürk, promotes its cultural, art and folkloric heritage, and has established a firm educational structure including sports activities.

In short, Turkey is proud of the reformist steps it has taken in relation to man's view of the world, aware of what it has accomplished so far, and sure of itself both today and tomorrow. Possessing all the advantages of its strong republic, bound to the principles of democracy, respect for human rights and aware of its national interests, the Republic of Turkey exerts every effort to solve its problems and constantly endeavours to improve the living standards of its citizens, all the while working to establish new and permanent friendship throughout the world. The Republic of Turkey, with its 76 years of experience, is sure that what it has accomplished thus far is a guarantee of what it can and will do in the future. Ever conscious of universal values, with deep respect for democracy and human rights, Turkey looks ahead to a healthy and happy future with hope, enthusiasm and determination.

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