

## 1: The Formation of Germany as a Nation State

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The Revolution of in the German Lands and central Europe "Germany" prior to having been a confederation of thirty-nine individually sovereign Empires, Kingdoms, Electorates, Grand Duchies, Duchies, Principalities and Free Cities , had a movement for a single parliament in and many central European would-be "nations" attempted to promote a distinct existence for their "nationality". Such nationalities living within the Habsburg Empire as the Czechs, Croats, Slovaks, Serbs and Romanians, find it more credible to look to the Emperor, rather than to the democratised assemblies recently established in Vienna and in Budapest as a result of populist agitation, for the future protection of their nationality. The Austrian Emperor and many Kings and Dukes regain political powers. Louis Napoleon, who later became the Emperor Napoleon III , elected as President in France offering social stability at home but ultimately follows policies productive of dramatic change in the wider European structure of states and their sovereignty. Some historical background to the Revolutions of Following on from the defeat of Napoleon which brought a French Revolutionary and Napoleonic period of turmoil which had lasted from to a close, the conservatively inclined alliance of powers that had been ranged against him attempted to re-impose the sovereign powers of Monarchies and Empires. These powers held Congresses to discuss the affairs of Europe and to orchestrate mutual efforts to maintain monarchical sovereignty. European states as then traditionally organised, in addition to constitutionalism, liberalism and nationalism, also faced challenges from an increase in population creating more demands for foodstuffs, housing and employment. Such industrialisation as had begun to occur had sometimes impacted seriously on established craft industries bringing about significant displacement into unemployment. Many young persons from middle class backgrounds finished their years of education or training and emerged into an economic situation that was unwelcoming to their skills. Levels of payment for both urban and rural workers tended to fall leaving many persons in a situation where they could hope to survive, health permitting and quite possibly in over-crowded and unsanitary conditions, but found it almost impossible to actually prosper. Moreover, there was then no such thing as any system of social security in place to cater to the needs of those unlucky enough to fall on hard times through unemployment, illness or injury - or their dependants. As with several instances of revolution in Europe previously that of was to have its major point of origin in France. Poor grain harvests, the appearance of blight - an extremely serious disease - in potato crops, and generally depressed economic conditions across much of Europe in led to sharply rising food prices, unemployment, and a radicalisation of political attitudes. Dramatic increases in the prices of food and fuel contributed to a situation where there were serious outbreaks of hunger-related Typhus fever, causing many fatalities. Trade was disrupted as there was less general spending as food came first where the poorest classes of people struggled to keep themselves fed and everyone found the necessities of life to be much more expensive. The levels of unemployment rose significantly. Such general economic dislocation brought with it increases in crime as persons broke the laws in their efforts to get food, fuel or cash. Those suffering from various forms of economic deprivation lost confidence in the authorities ability to help them and became somewhat resentful of occupational groups who could be seen as profiting from the crisis. In many cases the authorities found it very difficult to receive customary tax revenues as the population had a significantly reduced ability to pay. During these times France was yet a monarchy under Louis Philippe but with his "Liberal" monarchy having few real supporters. Elections were held on the basis of quite limited suffrage - only some , wealthy men, approximately one person in two hundred of an overall French population of 35 millions , could legally vote. Many French people felt excluded from any possibility of gaining wealth, many also felt that the bourgeois "Liberal" monarchy of Louis Philippe compared unfavourably with earlier "Glorious" eras of French Monarchy or Empire. On 14th January the authorities banned a "banquet", one of a series of some seventy or so that had been held in Paris and in the provinces to protest, within the law, against such things as limitations on the right of assembly and the narrow scope of the political franchise, with the

result that it was postponed by its organisers. At such politicised banquets participants could find the means to challenge the government by participating in toasts to such things as "electoral reform" or "parliamentary reform". Although the banned banquet, now re-set for the 22nd February, was cancelled at the last minute there was some serious disturbance in the Paris streets during which extreme individuals opposed to the government intermittently attacked groups of soldiers. In such circumstances and in other situations soldiers fatally injured protesting citizens. Faced with such unrest Louis Philippe dismissed Guizot, his unpopular Prime Minister, on the 23rd and himself abdicated on the 24th. In the wake of these dramatic developments there was an establishment of a Provisional Government of a French Republic. On the 25th February a group of socialists, armed and carrying red flags, gathered in front of the Hotel de Ville or City Hall in Paris where their insistence secured a decree which proclaimed that the newly formed provisional government would undertake to provide work and would also recognise workers rights to combine. It recognises that workers may organise in order to enjoy the profits of their labour. Across Europe those supportive of various forms of political liberalisation or political radicalism tended to see the Parisian developments as giving rise to an opportunity for the pressing of the case for liberalising or radical reform in their own cities and in their own states. On the 27th of February in the Grand Duchy of Baden "German" black-red-gold emblems were widely evident and demands were expressed for such things as freedom of the press, constitutional governance and an all-German parliament. These demands were widely publicised in other German states. Such demands became known as the "March Demands", and were insistently required by the citizens of other German states of their own rulers. Reforms were subsequently conceded, with varying degrees of reluctance, by the rulers of such historic and previously locally sovereign German states as Wurttemberg, Nassau, Hesse-Darmstadt, Bavaria and Saxony. It adopted, and unfurled over its palace in the longstanding confederal capital, Frankfurt, a black-red-gold standard and invited German States to send delegates to discuss Constitutional reform. In the unsettled and challenging times invitations had already been sent out several days earlier by a self-appointed group of liberals based in Heidelberg that were intended to lead to the convening in Frankfurt on the 31st March, of a preparatory parliament where invited prominent persons could participate in deliberations on matters of immediate concern to all Germans prior to eventual elections to an all-German parliamentary body which was primarily intended to undertake the framing of future constitutional arrangements for the Germanic lands. After an incident precipitated street fighting in Berlin, the capital of the Prussian Kingdom, King Frederick William withdrew his soldiers rather than see even more fatalities amongst his "beloved Berliners" and was subsequently seen by the populace to stand with his head bared in a demonstration of his regret, whilst the earthly remains of those Berliners killed in the street fighting were paraded with their wounds exposed. That same day Frederick William rode in a stately progress through the streets of Berlin, prominently wearing a black-red-gold sash, accompanied by his generals who also wore black-red-gold emblems, along with his similarly-decorated ministers. The king presented himself as behaving as German leaders had in earlier times when they had "grasped the banner in situations of disorder and placed themselves at the head of the whole people. They were open to being associated with contemporary German Liberalism and Nationalism having been adopted by "patriotic" Germany in the days of the Wars of Liberation against Napoleon but were also open to being thought of as being associated with the earlier "Holy Roman Empire of the German Nation. A triumphant procession took them from the prison to the palace, in carriages pulled by enthusiastic Berliners. Mieroslawski waved a black-red-gold banner, proclaiming that Poles and Germans were brothers. Some Berliners, meanwhile, carried red and white "Polish" flags. On the 22nd March the Berliners who had fallen in the street fighting were given a state funeral with their funeral observances being attended by representatives of all branches of the government, wearing their golden chains of office. The above outline map shows how the immense territories of the Habsburg Empire lay both within and outside the frontiers of the German Confederation. Lombardy and Venetia in the north of the Italian Peninsula, south-west of the Tyrol and east of the Adriatic, were also under Habsburg sovereignty. The representatives thereto sought the recognition of the Magyar tongue as being appropriate for use in the administrative and judicial courts - this was assented to by the Habsburg authorities. It was also agreed that Magyar should displace Latin and German as the principal language in the administrative and political life in

the Hungarian kingdom. The Hungarian-Magyar kingdom had been established after the Magyars, as a powerful and somewhat martial people, had migrated into the Carpathian basin where they established their sway over some of the neighbouring Slavic peoples with the result that the kingdom in was dominated by the Magyars but was also peopled by various Slavic and other minorities. By former losses of territory to the Ottoman empire had been recovered and Transylvania, together with certain areas of the Balkans, that had also been won from Ottoman control, were also seen as being open to becoming closely associated with the Kingdom of Hungary. The Latin tongue had been somewhat accessible to the other ethnicities represented at Pressburg as it was often represented in classical traditions of education besides being a prominent language of religion and scholarship. The Magyar tongue was more exclusive to the Magyars and has a reputation for being difficult to learn. The Magyars, in fact, although they formed the most numerous individual ethnic group in the Hungarian Kingdom, and the traditionally most powerful one, only comprised perhaps four-in-ten of the population of the kingdom which was also peopled by Romanians, Slovaks, Serbs and others. In the event Magyar interests tended to insist on the full utilisation of their tongue even in areas where they were not themselves in the majority. The nationalist, Kossuth, was prominent at a Diet of the Hungarian Kingdom held at Pressburg in securing the position of the Magyar tongue as the official language, and as the language of public education. After the proceedings of the Hungarian Diet were conducted through Magyar instead of Latin. The several ethnic groups domiciled under the auspices of the Hungarian Diet were also variously influenced by romanticisations of their own local traditions of nationality, the Croats, in particular, had experienced a pronounced development of a romanticised national consciousness, and were much inclined to resist potential Magyarisation focussing their aspiration on the recovery of an "Illyrian" language. Early in 1848, after hearing of the developments in France Kossuth made a speech in support of a constitutionally defined governmental system for Hungary at a session of the Pressburg Diet of 3rd March which concluded with words imparting hostility to then position of the Kingdom of Hungary together with hopes for a happier future: "The future of Hungary can never be secure while in the other provinces there exists a system of government in direct antagonism to every constitutional principle. Our task it is to found a happier future on the brotherhood of all the Austrian races, and to substitute for the union enforced by bayonets and police the enduring bond of a free constitution". Kossuth seemed to expect that the principal linkage with Austria would be that of a personal union through the monarchy of Kings of Hungary who were simultaneously Emperors of Austria. Magyar aspirations became somewhat distilled into twelve specific demands: Liberty of the press, and removal of all censorship. An annual diet at Pesth. Equality of all classes in the eye of the law. An equal distribution of taxes. The abolition of all territorial laws. VIII Trial by jury. That the army should swear fidelity to the constitution, and that the government should enlist native soldiers, and dismiss all foreigners. A general amnesty for political offences. Union of Transylvania with Hungary. There was also unrest in Vienna which culminated, on 13th March, already designated as the date for the discussion of reform petitions in the Lower Austrian diet the legislative chamber where the non-Hungarian lands of the empire held political debates, in public turmoil where several thousand university students paraded through the streets of Vienna in support of far-reaching liberalising reforms. These students were joined by many similarly dis-satisfied citizens. After the leaders of the students had proceeded into a government building to present their petition some of the numerous students gathered outside believed that those leaders had placed themselves in a situation where they could be captured by the authorities. Archduke Albrecht, a member of the imperial family, who held an high military rank, subsequently approached a crowd of protesting citizens, on foot, urging those gathered together to disperse, but was hit on the head by a missile. A situation continued for some time where figures of authority exhorted protesters to disperse and missiles were thrown by some protestors. Eventually, a company of soldiers whose commanding officer had been knocked unconscious by one of these missiles actually fired their weapons into the crowd - a number of injuries and a few fatalities occurred. These events led to the Emperor ordering a withdrawal of soldiers to their barracks within the city. Many Viennese citizens were deeply alienated by the use of military force against the civilian population. Shops were looted, factories were wrecked - yet soldiers, who might in other circumstances have been looked to as potential restorers of order, were now widely unwelcome on the streets. The Viennese Citizen Guard,

traditionally a somewhat ceremonial body composed of better-off burghers citizens, offered to assume responsibility for the maintenance of order, and demanded that an "Academic Legion" composed principally of students and academics was officially recognised and allowed to carry arms. Prince Metternich the Austrian statesman who had done so much since the humbling of Napoleon to organise the Princes of Europe in opposition to the spirit of Revolution that had been stirring since, and who had for years been serving the Habsburg Court as "Head of Chancellery and Minister of Foreign Affairs", lost the confidence of the Imperial Family and had little choice but to go quietly into exile. Metternich was a figure of European significance as a mainstay of reactionary governance: The Austrian authorities made the further concession of abolishing the formerly quite pervasive censorship of the press. Further insight into the political and social atmosphere then in place in Vienna can be perhaps gauged from the fact that a general amnesty for political offences was declared some days later. On the evening of the 15th March a mounted herald read a proclamation outside one of the gates of the palace which declared that the Emperor "had taken the necessary steps to convoke, as quickly as possible, representatives of all provincial Estates Potato blight, at that time a crop disease new to Europe, had catastrophically diminished the prospective supply of the mainstay foodstuff of such populous regions as Silesia, and there was a serious outbreak of cattle disease in Hungary. Even in good times those persons who actually cultivated the land often won only a meagre living for themselves after paying monies to the landlord as rent, to the church as tithes, and to the authorities as taxes. Such had been the traditional ordering of rural life for several centuries. In March the Austrian Emperor, or rather his advisors as then holder of that title, although widely respected, was a somewhat simple-minded and good-natured individual, authorised the announcement of the principle of the abolition of the Robot obligation "within a year, at the latest by 31 March". There was to be some compensation paid to the landlords with the amounts being settled upon by local Diets or political assemblies. Those persons who farmed as tenants had, in fact, often recently stopped performing the Robot obligations they were nevertheless deeply grateful to the Emperor for giving legal backing to the abolition of a burden they regarded as particularly onerous. Given that more than ninety per cent of the population of the Empire in those times were rural dwellers gratitude associated with the abolition of the Robot obligation tended to provide a basis for an acceptance of the continued authority of the Emperor in the countryside. Urban, relatively prosperous and educated middle class persons, intellectually engaged artisans and some liberal aristocrats were also more likely to have been influenced by romanticisations of nationality, which had become fashionable across Europe after circa 1800, where it was held that individuals should prize and cultivate the language and culture of the ethnic or national group within which they felt, or could feel, they belonged. The Habsburg authorities had actually tended to facilitate such linguistic and cultural enthusiasms seeing them as possible diversions of the energies of their participants away from potentially more problematic political activities. In association with such romanticisation of nationality, and the wider implications of such societally impacting national consciousness, a situation began to arise where less powerful emergent ethnic or national groups increasingly began to complain when locally powerful emergent ethnic or national groups, such as Germans, Magyars, Poles and Italians, attempted to impose their languages and cultures on them. During these times the Habsburg administration was faced with a wide array of demands for liberalising and nationalist concessions being made on behalf of its constituent peoples. The Poles of Galicia drew up an address, which was presented on March 19 to the governor of Galicia, Count Franz Stadion, demanding of the Austrian Emperor such things as:

### 2: The European Revolutions of : history

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Contact Author Introduction In modern times, there are many forms of government. Just in the United States, consider the many forms of government: However, the major political actors on the world stage today are the many nation-states that are a modern creation. Source The Beginning of the Nation-State Today, the nation-states are the most powerful political actors in the world. A nation-state is a ruling organization which consists of a group of people that maintain a national identity, occupy a bounded territory, and possess their own government. Countries like France, Japan, and the United States are examples of modern nation-states. The modern nation-state system began in Western Europe and would eventually encompass the globe. Today there are about nation-states and these states comprise the major political actors on the world stage. The nation-state system came about in medieval Western Europe as a result of the waning political dominance held by the feudal lords and the Catholic Church. As for the Reformation, it proposed that men need not get to heaven through the Church. Each believer was a priest before God. So now, both the road to knowledge and to heaven need not go through Rome. The Protestant Reformation would also work to bring about a state transformation throughout Europe: The Protestant Reformation helped shatter the religious unity of Europe, and it was linked with the emergence of nation-states with their own boundaries, legislatures, jurisdiction and therefore laws. It was a time of growing national consciousness. Vernaculars began to be used in universities, replacing Latin. There was a development of interest in national rather than Roman-based law. In Europe, legal nationalism eventually took the form of written national law codes. A major stress on feudalism came as a result of a rising bourgeoisie middle class in Europe. After the Crusades, the crusaders began to return to the west, bringing with them stories of the wealth in the east and bringing some of that wealth with them. This desire for wealth led to the development of improved trade routes between the east and west. As a result of the increased trade, towns began to develop as centers of commerce. Over time, some of these towns demanded independence or at least semi-independence from their feudal masters. Sometimes the leaders of the towns would revolt against their feudal overlords; at others times, they might buy their independence from their lord who was always in need of money. Some serfs, seeing these towns as havens of freedom, would leave their manor and flee to the towns where they could become freemen after a time. After awhile, the lord of the manor had to convince his serfs to stay on at the manor and allow them to farm their land as tenants. The flight of the serfs, coupled with the rising wealth among the new merchant classes participating in the emerging commercial society had the effect of bringing an end to feudal domination in western Europe and giving impetus to centralized national power. Land had been the source of wealth and status under feudalism, but that system was yielding to a rising commercial class that found its wealth in trade and money. Slowly, the feudal manors were losing their political dominance to trade and accumulation of money. Mobile capital was a resource for a new type of emerging state. In Western Europe, territory began to consolidate as the merchant classes desired powerful rulers that could protect them and their wares as they traveled from one destination to the next. Increasingly, people were no longer bound to their ruler by an oath; rather they were citizens of cities and towns that had certain privileges and rights because of their attachment to that city. Since the towns were sources of wealth, they were prime candidates for taxation by powerful rulers in exchange for protection. Over time, these rulers could consolidate more and more land under their control. But not only was feudalism stressed by the rising commercial society, it also stood in the way of commerce. Since there were so many of these petty fiefdoms, the merchants desired fewer of these domains which gave rise to the desire for a more consolidated Europe with fewer rulers, but greater protection for the merchants. The cover of Thomas Hobbes book "Leviathan" The close up of the book cover reveals that the links in the armor of the prince are little people, symbolizing that the sovereign is based on the people. If the nation-state system has a birthday, it would have to be , the year of the Treaty of Westphalia , which effectively brought an end to the Thirty Years War As a resolution to the war, the Treaty of Westphalia

allowed the German princes to decide the official religion of their domain be that religion Catholic, Calvinist, or Lutheran. More important throughout Europe, Westphalia signaled the beginning of state sovereignty that each of these kings would be the sole sovereign in his domain. Sovereignty is that power of which there is no higher appeal. Such was the effort of the English political philosopher Thomas Hobbes. In his work *Leviathan* Hobbes lays the foundation for a ruler that is not under God, but is the absolute ruler in his domain. On the day of his birth, said Hobbes, "my mother gave birth to twins, myself and fear. Today, sovereignty is a central concept that nation-states claim for themselves. However, democratic states tend not to say that the ruler is sovereign. Sovereignty might be resident either in the legislature as in the United Kingdom or in the people as in the United States. *The Growth of the Nation-States* By the time the United States ratified the Constitution in 1787, there were only about twenty nation-states in the world. However, that was soon to change as the nineteenth century approached with a series of independence movements against colonial powers like Spain and France that spurred the creation of new states. The years following World War I saw a large number of new nation-states and a corresponding decline in world empires such as the Ottoman and Austro-Hungarian empires. However, even after World War II, only about half of the modern states were in place. New anti-colonial movements led to the creation of more states after World War II. During the 1950s and 1960s, there were about ninety new states created. Coupled with the collapse of the Soviet Union and the emergence of a series of republics, the world had about 200 nation-states by the turn of the millennium. It had been thought that with the creation of international organizations like the United Nations and regional states like the European Union, the nation-state system would collapse just as did the feudal order from which the Westphalian system sprang. However, this has not happened. The nation-states still remain the most powerful political players on the international stage. *In the Name of the Law*. ISI Books, 2001. *A Comparative Introduction*, 2nd ed. Worth Publishers, 2001, 9.

### 3: European History/European Imperialism and Nationalism - Wikibooks, open books for an open world

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The formation of Germany as a nation state was one of the most important event in the history of the world. Napoleon Bonaparte first sowed the seeds of nationalism in Germany. In due course of time, the cultural unity among these states, the role of universities, rapid growth of industries etc. The rise of Ottovon Bismarck and his shrewd diplomacy gave a chance for the unification of Germany. The ideas and writings of the German Philosophers like Hegel and Schopenhauer, Scientists like Hemholtz and Virchow and the historians like Sybel and Droysen influenced the people of different parts of Germany. The Gention Universities like Jena, Leipzig, Munich and Berlin became centres for the dissemination of liberal national ideas and thoughts. The liberal movement also helped in the formation of German National Stage. In a festival was organised at Wartburg in the memories of the Reformation Movement and the battle of Leipzig which was fought during the reign of Napoleon. It created national consciousness among the German people. Later on, Kotzebue was murdered. It created the sense of Patriotism among the people of Germany. There he took some reactionary measures. According to this Decree, restrictions were imposed upon the newspapers. The organisation of the students union was banned. The universities were under the direct guidance of the government. All these measures gave a serious setback to the German Confederation of States. The Zollverein or Economic Union: Accordingly, Prussia and other German States joined this Union and free trade was established among them. Austria did not join it. This economic importance of Prussia helped in its military and political growth in the later period. In course of time, Prussia made rapid growth in the field of industries. The Prussian Finance Minister Massen abolished restrictions on tariff. Then rapid growth was made in the field of industries under the leadership of Prussia. The growth of railways, trade and commerce among the German States also helped in the growth of their economic life. Thus rapid industrialisation also helped in the unification of Germany. The Parliament of Frankfurt: The February Revolution of had a great impact on the German States. The Revolutionists of Prussia demanded for the establishment of the Constitutional rule in Prussia. Frederick William IV, the King of Prussia accepted the demands of the revolutionists and granted a liberal Constitution. It passed a proposal to establish a German Confederation of States excluding Austria. But Austria opposed this proposal. So, in the Olmutz Treaty was signed between Austria and Prussia Accordingly, Prussia was forced to return its proposal. It was an insult to Prussia. To take average of this insult, Prussia prepared herself. Role of Emperor William I: A new era was started in Prussia with the accession of Kaiser William I. After his accession he tried to make the Prussian army strong. He was a Shrewd man. He advised Emperor William I that only the Prussian ambassador Bismarck could play a leading role at this critical juncture. So, he called Bismarck to return Prussia. Ottovon Bismarck was the chief hero of the formation of Germany as a nation state. He was born in in an orthodox family at Brandenburg. After receiving education in Berlin and Göttingen, he joined the Prussian judicial department. After serving in several posts, he was appointed as the Ambassador of Prussia in Paris. Due to his leadership, the unification of Germany could be possible. The first diplomatic step of Bismarck was the intervention of the Schleswig-Holstein question. These two duchies were under the sway of Denmark in by the London Protocol. Most of the people of Schleswig were Danish while the people of Holstein were largely Prussians. Christian IX, the King of Denmark wanted to keep these two duchies under his control. At this time the combined army of Austria and Prussia under the leadership of Bismarck attacked Denmark in Denmark was defeated in this war and the Convention of Gastein was concluded in As per the convention, Prussia got Schleswig and Austria got Holstein. This was the first diplomatic step of Bismarck against Austria. Bismarck adopted the policy to isolate Austria in the continent. In , Bismarck helped Russia in the suppression of the revolt of Poland and got the friendship of Russia. He also got the support of Italy. This policy of Bismarck made Austria isolated in the European Politics. Austria did not want to keep Holstein under her control because it was far away from the country. Austria also demanded that Schleswig should

return to Denmark and also raised this question in the Parliament. Bismarck declared war against Austria in as Austria violated the Convention of Gastein. At first it was difficult for Prussia to defeat Austria. The Treaty of Prague and formation of Germany: According to this treaty Austria was expelled from Germany. After the treaty of Prague the formation of Germany was started. Question of Spanish Succession and Ems Telegram: By that time Queen Isabella of Spain fled away due to the outbreak of an army revolution. He also opposed the Hohenzollern candidature for Spanish throne. Beneditti met King William I at Ems and informed him about the fact. But William I refused to give such a written guarantee. He sent the description of his conversation with French ambassador by a telegram to Bismarck. He edited the telegram and sent it for publication. The French people thought that their ambassador had been insulted by the Prussian king while the German people thought that their king had been humiliated by the French ambassador. In this way, the field was prepared for war between France and Prussia. On July 14, France declared war against Prussia. At this critical juncture, the states of South Germany joined with Prussia. Prussia marched forward after defeating France in the battles of Wesnburg, Warth and Gravelet. Then the Prussian army marched towards France and occupied Paris. The Treaty of Frankfort and Unification of Germany: France signed the Treaty of Frankfort with Prussia on May 10, According to this Treaty, France ceded Belfort to Germany. France also ceded Alsace and Lorraine to Germany. France was also forced to pay Germany the reparation of war. Till the reparation was paid, the French army was remained in Germany. The nation state of Germany was created which was an important event in the history of the World. The Unification of Germany created a cardinal epoch in the world history. In the Hall of Mirrors, a new state named Germany was inaugurated. The creation of Germany was a stigma blunder in international affairs, a heavy price which Germany paid almost after 50 years while signing the Treaty of Versailles in in the same Hall of Mirrors.

### 4: Pretzel - Wikipedia

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His father, Karl Wilhelm Ferdinand von Bismarck , was a Junker estate owner and a former Prussian military officer; his mother, Wilhelmine Luise Mencken , was the well educated daughter of a senior government official in Berlin. He had two siblings: The world saw Bismarck as a typical Prussian Junker, an image that he encouraged by wearing military uniforms. Bismarck was well educated and cosmopolitan with a gift for conversation. In , while stationed as an army reservist in Greifswald , he studied agriculture at the University of Greifswald. In it he described Bismarck as a reckless and dashing eccentric, but also as an extremely gifted and charming young man. Around age thirty, Bismarck formed an intense friendship with Marie von Thadden, newly married to one of his friends. Their long and happy marriage produced three children: Johanna was a shy, retiring and deeply religious woman although famed for her sharp tongue in later life and in his public life, Bismarck was sometimes accompanied by his sister Malwine "Malle" von Arnim. Early political career Young politician In Bismarck, aged thirty-two, was chosen as a representative to the newly created Prussian legislature, the Vereinigter Landtag. There, he gained a reputation as a royalist and reactionary politician with a gift for stinging rhetoric; he openly advocated the idea that the monarch had a divine right to rule. His selection was arranged by the Gerlach brothers, fellow Pietist Lutherans whose ultra-conservative faction was known as the "Kreuzzeitung" after their newspaper, the Neue Preussische Zeitung , which was so nicknamed because it featured an Iron Cross on its cover. The monarch, though initially inclined to use armed forces to suppress the rebellion, ultimately declined to leave Berlin for the safety of military headquarters at Potsdam. Bismarck later recorded that there had been a "rattling of sabres in their scabbards" from Prussian officers when they learned that the King would not suppress the revolution by force. He offered numerous concessions to the liberals: Augusta would have none of it, and detested Bismarck thereafter, [14] despite the fact that he later helped restore a working relationship between Wilhelm and his brother the King. Bismarck was not yet a member of the Landtag, the lower house of the new Prussian legislature. The liberal movement perished by the end of amid internal fighting. Meanwhile, the conservatives regrouped, formed an inner group of advisers including the Gerlach brothers, known as the "Camarilla" around the King, and retook control of Berlin. Although a constitution was granted, its provisions fell far short of the demands of the revolutionaries. At this stage in his career, he opposed the unification of Germany , arguing that Prussia would lose its independence in the process. The parliament failed to bring about unification, for it lacked the support of the two most important German states, Prussia and Austria. Bismarck gave up his elected seat in the Landtag, but was appointed to the Prussian House of Lords a few years later. In Frankfurt he engaged in a battle of wills with the Austrian representative Count Friedrich von Thun und Hohenstein. He insisted on being treated as an equal by petty tactics such as imitating Thun when Thun claimed the privileges of smoking and removing his jacket in meetings. No longer under the influence of his ultraconservative Prussian friends, Bismarck became less reactionary and more pragmatic. As a result, he grew to be more accepting of the notion of a united German nation. He gradually came to believe that he and his fellow conservatives had to take the lead in creating a unified nation to keep from being eclipsed. He also believed that the middle-class liberals wanted a unified Germany more than they wanted to break the grip of the traditional forces over society. In a famous letter to Leopold von Gerlach, Bismarck wrote that it was foolish to play chess having first put 16 of the 64 squares out of bounds. As part of his "New Course", Wilhelm brought in new ministers, moderate conservatives known as the Wochenblatt after their newspaper. But Bismarck was sidelined from events in Germany and could only watch impotently as France drove Austria out of Lombardy during the Italian War of . As a further snub, the Regent, who scorned Bismarck as a Landwehrleutnant reserve lieutenant , had declined to promote him to the rank of major-general, a rank that the ambassador to St. Petersburg was expected to hold. This was an important refusal as Prussia and Russia

were close military allies, whose heads of state often communicated through military contacts rather than diplomatic channels. Bismarck stayed in St Petersburg for four years, during which he almost lost his leg to botched medical treatment and once again met his future adversary, the Russian Prince Gorchakov, who had been the Russian representative in Frankfurt in the early s. Over the next twelve years, Bismarck, Moltke and Roon transformed Prussia; Bismarck would later refer to this period as "the most significant of my life". Despite his lengthy stay abroad, Bismarck was not entirely detached from German domestic affairs. He remained well-informed due to Roon, with whom Bismarck formed a lasting friendship and political alliance. In May, he was sent to Paris to serve as ambassador to France, and also visited England that summer. These visits enabled him to meet and take the measure of several adversaries: Disraeli, who would become Prime Minister in the s, later claimed to have said of Bismarck, "Be careful of that man—he means every word he says". The new monarch often came into conflict with the increasingly liberal Prussian Diet Landtag. A crisis arose in, when the Diet refused to authorize funding for a proposed re-organization of the army. Wilhelm threatened to abdicate in favour of his son Crown Prince Frederick William, who opposed his doing so, believing that Bismarck was the only politician capable of handling the crisis. However, Wilhelm was ambivalent about appointing a person who demanded unfettered control over foreign affairs. It was in September, when the Abgeordnetenhaus House of Deputies overwhelmingly rejected the proposed budget, that Wilhelm was persuaded to recall Bismarck to Prussia on the advice of Roon. In the midst of this disarray, the European balance of power was restructured with the creation of the German Empire as the dominant power in continental Europe apart from Russia. Under the Constitution, the budget could be passed only after the king and legislature agreed on its terms. Thus, on the basis of the budget, tax collection continued for four years. Following the Alvensleben Convention of, the House of Deputies resolved that it could no longer come to terms with Bismarck; in response, the King dissolved the Diet, accusing it of trying to obtain unconstitutional control over the ministry—which, under the Constitution, was responsible solely to the king. Bismarck then issued an edict restricting the freedom of the press, an edict that even gained the public opposition of the Crown Prince. Despite or perhaps because of his attempts to silence critics, Bismarck remained a largely unpopular politician. His supporters fared poorly in the elections of October, in which a liberal coalition, whose primary member was the Progress Party, won over two-thirds of the seats. The House made repeated calls for Bismarck to be dismissed, but the King supported him, fearing that if he did dismiss the Minister President, he would most likely be succeeded by a liberal. Blood and Iron speech German unification had been a major objective of the revolutions of, when representatives of the German states met in Frankfurt and drafted a constitution, creating a federal union with a national parliament to be elected by universal male suffrage. Fearing the opposition of the other German princes and the military intervention of Austria and Russia, the King renounced this popular mandate. Thus, the Frankfurt Parliament ended in failure for the German liberals. Prussia must concentrate and maintain its power for the favorable moment which has already slipped by several times. The great questions of the time will not be resolved by speeches and majority decisions — that was the great mistake of and — but by iron and blood. Bismarck used both diplomacy and the Prussian military to achieve unification, excluding Austria from a unified Germany. This made Prussia the most powerful and dominant component of the new Germany, but also ensured that it remained an authoritarian state and not a liberal parliamentary democracy. Bismarck took an unpopular step by insisting that the territories legally belonged to the Danish monarch under the London Protocol signed a decade earlier. With support from Austria, he issued an ultimatum for Christian IX to return Schleswig to its former status. Denmark was ultimately forced to renounce its claim on both duchies. At first this seemed like a victory for Augustenburg, but Bismarck soon removed him from power by making a series of unworkable demands, namely that Prussia should have control over the army and navy of the duchies. Originally, it had been proposed that the Diet of the German Confederation, in which all the states of Germany were represented, should determine the fate of the duchies; but before this scheme could be effected, Bismarck induced Austria to agree to the Gastein Convention. Under this agreement signed on 20 August, Prussia received Schleswig, while Austria received Holstein. Bismarck used this as an excuse to start a war with Austria by accusing them of violating the Gastein Convention. Bismarck sent Prussian troops to occupy Holstein. Provoked, Austria

called for the aid of other German states, who quickly became involved in the Austro-Prussian War. With the strategic genius of Moltke, the Prussian army fought battles it was able to win. Bismarck had also made a secret alliance with Italy, who desired Austrian-controlled Veneto. Bismarck had only minor injuries. Subsequently, Cohen-Blind committed suicide while in custody. The war lasted seven weeks; Germans called it a Blitzkrieg "lightning war", a term also used in Bismarck insisted on a "soft peace" with no annexations and no victory parades, so as to be able to quickly restore friendly relations with Austria. Furthermore, Austria had to promise not to intervene in German affairs. To solidify Prussian hegemony, Prussia forced the 21 states north of the River Main to join it in forming the North German Confederation in 1867. The confederation was governed by a constitution largely drafted by Bismarck. Executive power was vested in a president, an hereditary office of the kings of Prussia, who was assisted by a chancellor responsible only to him. As president of the confederation, Wilhelm appointed Bismarck as chancellor of the confederation. Legislation was the responsibility of the Reichstag, a popularly elected body, and the Bundesrat, an advisory body representing the states. The Bundesrat was, in practice, the stronger chamber. Bismarck was the dominant figure in the new arrangement; as Foreign Minister of Prussia, he instructed the Prussian deputies to the Bundesrat. Prussia had only a plurality 17 out of 43 seats in the Bundesrat despite being larger than the other 21 states combined, but Bismarck could easily control the proceedings through alliances with the smaller states. This began what historians refer to as "The Misery of Austria" in which Austria served as a mere vassal to the superior Germany, a relationship that was to shape history until the end of the First World War. Bismarck had originally managed to convince smaller states like Saxony, Hesse-Kassel, and Hanover to join with Prussia against Austria, after promising them protection from foreign invasion and fair commercial laws. He was also given a cash grant by the Prussian Landtag, which he used to purchase a country estate in Varzin, now part of Poland. Military success brought Bismarck tremendous political support in Prussia. In the elections of 1867 the liberals suffered a major defeat, losing their majority in the House of Deputies. Bismarck suspected it would split the liberal opposition. While some liberals argued that constitutional government was a bright line that should not be crossed, most of them believed it would be a waste of time to oppose the bill, and supported it in hopes of winning more freedom in the future. He alone had brought about a complete transformation of the European international order. He had told those who would listen what he intended to do, how he intended to do it, and he did it. He achieved this incredible feat without commanding an army, and without the ability to give an order to the humblest common soldier, without control of a large party, without public support, indeed, in the face of almost universal hostility, without a majority in parliament, without control of his cabinet, and without a loyal following in the bureaucracy. He no longer had the support of the powerful conservative interest groups who had helped him achieve power. The most senior diplomats in the foreign service The Queen and the Royal Family hated him and the King, emotional and unreliable, would soon have his 70th birthday.

### 5: Watch The Great War | American Experience | Official Site | PBS

*The nation state of Germany was created which was an important event in the history of the World. The Unification of Germany created a cardinal epoch in the world history. In the Hall of Mirrors, a new state named Germany was inaugurated.*

Peri Pamir Introduction The subject of nationalism is extremely complex, not the least because of the many different sources and manifestations of the phenomenon. This paper will deal essentially with certain contemporary forms of nationalism which have emerged or intensified in Europe and the former Soviet Union during the s. In order to place this discussion in perspective, a brief background of the historical experience is provided at the outset as well as a consideration of some of the basic concepts relating to this phenomenon. As the ensuing discussion will show, it is almost impossible to come up with a uniform definition of nationalism. In its historical context, it is an ideological movement aimed at attaining and maintaining the identity, unity through social cohesion and autonomy through national self-determination of a "nation," or a peoples united under a "national" banner Smith, In other words, it is the most potent ideology in nation state building and consolidation. However, as we will seek to illustrate, nationalism, particularly in the contemporary era, has also been a vehicle for disaffected ethnic or cultural communities to voice their dissatisfaction with the status quo. The sources of discontent may be related to a variety of factors such as denial of cultural identity, political discrimination, repression, or economic deprivation. In these cases, it is a movement of minority groups which springs up in reaction to the policies or performance of the central state. At other times, it is a counter-reaction, either on the part of the political authorities, or of threatened social groups, in response to the political authorities, and therefore embodies different objectives. But in most cases, the central state, whether directly or indirectly, plays a key role in manipulating or being the target of nationalist sentiments. Hence, in this paper, nationalism has a broad meaning ranging from being the defining ideology of political movements seeking some form of autonomy or independent statehood; of groups striving to achieve or to improve their cultural, political, social and economic rights within a given state; of protest movements on the part of communities threatened by either state policies or by other social groups; to the core ideology employed by the state to galvanize public support for its policies or to reaffirm its legitimacy. The typology offered attempts to distinguish between these various contemporary manifestations of nationalist sentiment and discusses their impact on democracy as a means of distinguishing between the progressive and reactionary forms of nationalism. Historical and Conceptual Background The historical paradoxes of nationalism To understand the contemporary forms of nationalism, it is useful to keep in mind the paradoxical goals which this ideology has served in the historical process of nation state building. Eighteenth and nineteenth century European nationalism was a unifying force which brought together people of diverse backgrounds at the price of subordinating their ethnic identities to the larger territorial unit dominated by the secular state. The background to this evolution went back to the emergence of the secular state following the decline of the feudal and the rise of the industrial system, when effective power shifted from the unity of Church and State to that of Nation and State. Consequently, ethnic loyalties, which sometimes transcended the boundaries of these states, were seen to be subversive and every attempt was made to suppress them. The dominant ideology became that of nationalism, which idealized the secular state and deprecated the maintenance of any linguistic, religious or other sentiments that might conflict with loyalty to it. Nationalism became synonymous with patriotism Richmond, A similar trend followed the creation of nation states after the collapse of the multinational Russian, Austro-Hungarian and Ottoman empires in the aftermath of World War I. In the Balkans, in particular, nation states were created often with little or no regard for the rights and aspirations of the substantial ethnic groups trapped within their borders. The principle of state sovereignty, which evolved from the legitimization of national self determination made these new nation states as unsympathetic to demands for self determination from dissatisfied groups within their jurisdiction as were the Romanov, Habsburg and Ottoman rulers to the national claims that were advanced against their rule in the 19th century. The aftermath of the decolonization process and the creation of nation states in Asia, Africa, the Caribbean

and the Pacific after followed a similar pattern. Those states which achieved their independence through the principle of self determination held the view that a broader definition of the concept could become counterproductive. Hence the paradoxical qualities of nationalism in its modern historical expression reside in the fact that it has served several conflicting purposes. It has acted as the principal ideology which enabled nations to seek self determination and political statehood. It also provided the subsequently created states with the ideological justification for holding "the nation" together. And third, it has enabled dissatisfied minority or ethnic groups within the nation states to challenge state authority by questioning its claim to legitimacy which, in a democratic system, formally rests on the doctrine of self determination and popular sovereignty. Hence, nationalism, in this sense, has ironically contributed to the formation, and survival as well as to the dismemberment of nation states. The relationship between each of these concepts as they relate to nationalism are discussed below. Self determination, national sovereignty and international responsibility

The concept of self determination, as articulated in the Charter of the United Nations Art. Consequently, the principle of territorial integrity and respect for existing frontiers or the preservation of the unitary state as a major factor of international stability predominated over the right to self determination where this implied the dismemberment of existing states and secession. However, advances in the field of democracy and fundamental freedoms over the last decades, accompanied by the growing consensus that the use of force is neither desirable nor effective in stifling aspirations for self determination, have led to situations where conflicts between the concept of self determination and the unitary state have become increasingly more difficult to resolve. The experience of the Kurds, the Slovenes, the Croats and the Bosnians has demonstrated that separatist pressures can no longer be regarded as strictly internal affairs, especially since the resistance to their struggle has had the effect of invalidating the fundamental assumption linking territorial inviolability - and, implicitly, the denial of self determination - to international peace and stability. Consequently, the human rights performance of a state, including its treatment of its minorities, is steadily becoming a matter of legitimate international concern. Embodied in this attitude is the developing consensus, strengthened since the Gulf war experience, that state sovereignty can no longer provide governments immunity in cases of violations of human rights, particularly in its repression of its minorities. Another related issue is the changed world environment since the end of the cold war in Europe. Whereas before the cause of ethnic minorities was often exploited by the superpowers or their allies as a way of obtaining geopolitical leverage e. While this may be the case, there is also much confusion as to who has right to self determination, where the limits of national sovereignty and unity lie, and whether and when the territorial integrity of nation states should remain unconditionally unchallenged. What are the main overriding criteria for self determination and independent statehood? Are there any legal distinctions between the rights of those minorities which belong to a group which already has a state e. Does the right to self determination include the right to secession and independent statehood? When should the international community recognize the rights of a peoples to decide on its own international status, and when should the territorial unity of the nation state be protected as reaffirmed in the Helsinki Final Act? Nations and nation states

It would appear then that the drive for self determination, which has acted as the principal inspiration for many modern day nationalist movements, challenges the legitimacy of the state by placing in question its claim to represent the popular will of the nation. We will now turn to the dynamic between the nation and the state as a means of understanding the basis for what is broadly known as ethno-nationalism. Part of the confusion concerning the nature of the relationship between nation and state arises from the different sometimes overlapping meanings ascribed to the former concept depending on the particular context, which are briefly enumerated below: Given these definitions, a "nation or multi-national nation state" can connote: The nationalist belief, as expressed by Guiseppe Mazzini in the 19th century, maintained that every nation each particular ethno-linguistic group had the right to form its own state, and that there should be only one state for each nation. This claim has been historically impractical since, by current accounting, there exist practically no ethno-linguistically homogeneous nations. The territorial distribution of the human race is older than the idea of ethnic-linguistic nation-states and therefore does not correspond to it. Development in the modern world economy, because it generates vast population movements, constantly undermines ethnic-linguistic homogeneity. Multi-ethnicity and plurilinguality are quite unavoidable, except temporarily by

mass exclusion, forcible assimilation, mass expulsion or genocide - in short, by coercion Hobsbawm, In reality, therefore, the definitions are not so clear cut as states are generally multinational and hence, rarely homogeneous and nations are quite often polyethnic. Nationalism in the Contemporary Era A number of contemporary developments, one pertaining to the European continent and the former Soviet Union, the other occurring on a world scale but affecting Europe closely, provide some basis for our understanding of the resurgence of nationalism in modern times. Expressing itself in the form of nationalist or self determination movements, notably in the Balkans and in several republics of the former Soviet Union, these groups have been seeking protection of minority rights, territorial autonomy or sovereign statehood. It is interesting to note that both trends have had the effect of challenging state sovereignty, though the tendency towards fragmentation - or the weakening or collapse of central political authority - has also delivered a direct blow to the concept of the territorial integrity of the nation state. The other development has its origins in the increase in international migration as a result of global economic and political developments. Over the last decade or so, Europe has become a main destination for people fleeing economic and political distress, traditionally from the South but increasingly from Eastern Europe. This development, in turn, has created fertile ground for the emergence of xenophobic right-wing groups in Western Europe which are exploiting economic discontent to justify hostility to "outsiders" perceived as competing for limited resources. As we will see later, the xenophobic reaction is not confined to Western Europe, but has come to the fore as a platform of protest in the economically unstable former socialist societies as well. Contemporary forms of nationalism: Because of the diversity of the conditions, it is manifested in many different forms which makes it difficult to draw clear distinctions between them. Nevertheless, to the extent possible, the following analysis will concentrate on three broad - and sometimes overlapping - contemporary varieties, namely, state nationalism, ethno-nationalism and, finally, what we call "protest" nationalism, encompassing both right-wing nationalist movements in Europe and the former Soviet Union as well as the phenomenon of religious fundamentalism. Given the background of the preceding section, which has sought to establish the relationship between certain key concepts, we will try to show that in each case nationalism is a reaction to something which is directly or indirectly related to the policy or the performance of the state. State nationalism In a practice widely resorted to by governments, state nationalism embraces the nation as a whole, thus transcending ethnic distinctions. It is the creation of mass public sentiment in favor of the state and is used by the latter to mobilize popular support for its policies most prominently in wartime or to reaffirm its legitimacy. State nationalism can be expressed in a multitude of ways. Most prominently, it is an instrument wielded in the process of nation state building where the state is created and sustained around the concept and the glorification of the nation e. It can also allude to state manipulation of nationalist ideology to promote unity against external opposition e. Externally, it can refer to policies aimed at extending the territory of the state into areas which the state claims as belonging to its nation e. Internally, one could describe as nationalist actions taken by the state against specific groups or individuals amounting to a denial of cultural pluralism and justified on grounds of the anti- or un-national "unpatriotic" character of those groups or individuals e. Ethnicity and Ethno-nationalism 6 Although no common definition of ethnicity exists, it is generally described as the awareness on the part of a particular community of having a separate identity on the basis of common history, race, language, religion, culture and territory. Where that community constitutes a minority, which is often the case, ethnicity is also used synonymously with minority or identity groups, which is sometimes also loosely extended to migrant or refugee communities. Most ethnic groups are oriented towards recognition and expression of their cultural identity and the protection of their rights as a group to share in the benefits of the state in which they live. An increasing number, however, are seeking various forms of political recognition or autonomy. Irrespective of the regions involved, the complaints appear to be the same: Broadly speaking, therefore, ethnicity becomes a form of nationalism when it assumes a political and often territorial dimension that challenges the status quo, and, in some cases, the legitimacy and stability of the state in question by becoming a catalyst for intra- or inter-state conflict. Some would argue that the most dynamic ingredient of nationalism is ethnicity; indeed, that nationalism is in essence the political expression of ethnicity. It is clear that ethnic divisions have existed since time immemorial. Conflicts or tensions have been present even when apparently latent and grievances

nursed for generations. What concerns us here are the factors which have given rise to contemporary ethno-nationalism, some of which are enumerated below. At the national level, the resurgence of ethno-nationalism can be sought in the failure or inability of the modern nation state to serve the national community and to meet the needs of its minority populations in terms of an equitable distribution of resources and opportunities. Economic deprivation and disparity, as witnessed in numerous cases, has often acted as a powerful catalyst igniting the flame of nationalist revolt and in crystallizing a sense of ethnic identity. Not only does the denial of cultural and political rights and the lack of active power-sharing for minority groups through constitutional arrangements fail to close the poverty gap, but this failure combines, in some cases, with frustration over the slow development of democratic forms of government - a combination that helps to explain some of the political bases for ethnic resurgence. Furthermore, the tendency of the modern nation state to resort to political discrimination, repressive action etc. Such actions invariably result in strengthening aspirations for separate ethno-national identity. A related consequence of state policies also resulting in ethno-nationalism happens when migrant communities fleeing ethnic, political and economic victimization settle in the more industrialized societies and create new hybrid cultural identities distinct from the society in which they have settled. The growing hostility to their presence frequently expressed through racist rejection is leading these groups to declare their specificity and to rally around different forms of cultural or political expression. Though most Muslims in Western Europe numbering over 8 million say they want to integrate, it can be argued that it is the enmity and coldness of the native European populations which push them to assert their identity through religious and cultural differences. In Central and Eastern Europe, on the other hand, the principal stimulus for ethnic revival springs from the multinational and multiethnic composition of most of the societies in the region. Such reactions have invariably sprung from or led to repressive government policies, thereby periodically creating serious tensions between the states or communities concerned. In addition, almost all the countries harbor revisionist claims against one another. However, although such tensions have occasionally strained inter-state relations since World War II, they have never jeopardized national and regional stability to the extent witnessed since the collapse of the socialist state system, the war in Bosnia being its most tragic illustration. The situation in the former Soviet Union is analogous, demonstrated most dramatically by the liberation struggle of the Chechen people and the inter-ethnic conflicts within the Transcaucasian republics. Several reasons are ascribed to this development, some of which are outlined below. The "deep freeze" effect: Others claim that it is the disintegration of central power and not the strength of national feeling that has forced certain republics, such as Kazakhstan and Macedonia which did not previously dream of separation, to assert their independence as a means of self-preservation. Or, stated differently, nationalism, in this case, becomes a means of filling the political void left by the rapid breakdown of central political authority, or of retrospectively celebrating new-found statehood. The seeming inability of the nation state to satisfy the demands of ethno-cultural minorities and the lack of an accepted international premise for the recognition of self-determination as in the case of Chechnya no doubt constitute additional reasons for the eruption of ethnic tensions in the region.

### 6: SparkNotes: Nations and States: The Rise of the Nation-State

*Excerpt from 'America's Pastor: Billy Graham and the Shaping of a Nation' A German shepherd, snoozing on the driveway, lifted a wary eye. I felt unexpected.*

Origin[ edit ] Bruns-Memorial in Reckahn, "He was a teacher" The basic foundations of a generic Prussian primary education system were laid out by Frederick the Great with his Generallandschulreglement, a decree of , authored by Johann Julius Hecker. Prussia was among the first countries in the world to introduce tax-funded and generally compulsory primary education. It provided not only basic technical skills needed in a modernizing world such as reading and writing , but also music singing and religious Christian education in close cooperation with the churches and tried to impose a strict ethos of duty, sobriety and discipline. Mathematics and calculus were not compulsory at the start and taking such courses required additional payment by parents. Frederick the Great also formalized further educational stages, the Realschule and as the highest stage the gymnasium state-funded secondary school , which served as a university-preparatory school. Friedrich Eberhard von Rochow , a member of the local gentry and former cavalry officer in Reckahn, Brandenburg, installed such a school. Von Rochow cooperated with Heinrich Julius Bruns , a talented teacher of modest background. The two installed a model school for rural education that attracted more than 1, notable visitors between and Hecker had already in founded the first "Lehrerseminar", but the density and impact of the seminary system improving significantly until the end of the 18th century. Passing the Abitur was a prerequisite to entering the learned professions and higher echelons of the civil service. The state-controlled Abitur remains in place in modern Germany. The Prussian system had by the s attained the following characteristics: The concept as such faced strong resistance both from the top, as major players in the ruling nobility feared increasing literacy among peasants and workers would raise unrest, and from the very poor, who preferred to use their children as early as possible for rural or industrial labor. In Wilhelm von Humboldt , having been appointed minister of education, promoted his idea of a generic education based on a neohumanist ideal of broad general knowledge , in full academic freedom without any determination or restriction by status, profession or wealth. While Prussian military drill in the times before had been about obedience to orders without any leeway, Fichte asked for shaping of the personality of students: Previous attempts to establish "Utraquism" schools bilingual education in the east of Prussia had been identified with high illiteracy rates there. The Prussian Kings, Calvinists among Lutherans, feared the influence of the Lutheran state church and its close connections with the provincial nobility, while Pietists suffered from persecution by the Lutheran orthodoxy. Bolstered by royal patronage, Pietism replaced the Lutheran church as the effective state religion by the s. Pietist theology stressed the need for "inner spirituality" de: Innerlichkeit , to be found through the reading of Scripture. Consequently, Pietists helped form the principles of the modern public school system, including the stress on literacy, while more Calvinism-based educational reformers English and Swiss asked for externally oriented, utilitarian approaches and were critical of internally soul searching idealism. Prussian ministers, particularly Karl Abraham Freiherr von Zedlitz , sought to introduce a more centralized, uniform system administered by the state during the 18th century. The implementation of the Prussian General Land Law of was a major step toward this goal. However, there remains in Germany to the present a complicated system of burden sharing between municipalities and state administration for primary and secondary education. The various confessions still have a strong say, contribute religious instruction as a regular topic in schools and receive state funding to allow them to provide preschool education and kindergarten. In comparison, the French and Austrian education systems faced major setbacks due to ongoing conflicts with the Catholic Church and its educational role. Political and cultural role of teachers[ edit ] Generations of Prussian and also German teachers, who in the 18th century often had no formal education and in the very beginning often were untrained former petty officers, tried to gain more academic recognition, training and better pay and played an important role in various protest and reform movements throughout the 19th and into the 20th century. Namely the Revolutions of in the German states and the protests of saw a strong involvement of future teachers. However German notion of homeschooling was less than favorable,

Germans deemed the school system as being necessary. Heinrich Spoerls "escapist masterpiece" [25] novel and movie *Die Feuerzangenbowle* tells the till the present popular story of a writer going undercover as a student at a small town school after his friends in Berlin tell him that he missed out on the best part of growing up by being homeschooled. Spread to other countries[ edit ] State-oriented mass educational systems were instituted in the 19th century in the rest of Europe. They have become an indispensable component of modern nation-states. Such systems were put in place when the idea of mass education was not yet taken for granted. The Napoleonic Wars first allowed the system to be enhanced after the crushing defeat of Prussia itself and then to spread in parallel with the rise and territorial gains of Prussia after the Vienna Congress. While the Russian Empire was among the most reactionary regimes with regard to common education, the German ruling class in Estonia and Latvia managed to introduce the system there under Russian rule. Unlike in Prussia, the Swedish system aimed to expand even secondary schooling to the peasants and workers. As well in Finland, then a Russian grand duchy with a strong Swedish elite, the system was adopted. Education and the propagation of the national epic , the *Kalevala* , was crucial for the Finnish nationalist Fennoman movement. The Finnish language achieved equal legal status with Swedish in France and the UK failed until the s to introduce compulsory education, France due to conflicts between a radical secular state and the Catholic Church. In Scotland, local church-controlled schools were replaced by a state system in In England and Wales, the government started to subsidise schooling in , various measures followed till a local School Boards were set up under the Forster Act of , local School Boards providing free taxpayer financed and compulsory schooling were made universal in England and Wales by the Act of , schooling having been made compulsory by the Act of However, unlike Nazi Germany and the Soviet Union, both private schools and education by means other than schooling remained legal in the United Kingdom. United States[ edit ] Early 19th-century American educators were also fascinated by German educational trends. In , John Griscom gave a favorable report of Prussian education. The Prussian approach was used for example in the Michigan Constitution of , which fully embraced the Prussian system by introducing a range of primary schools, secondary schools, and the University of Michigan itself, all administered by the state and supported with tax-based funding. However, the concepts in the Prussian reforms of primordial education, *Bildung* and its close interaction of education, society and nation-building are in conflict with some aspects of American state-sceptical libertarian thinking. Upon his return to the United States, he incorporated his experiences in his advocacy for the common school movement in Massachusetts. Mann persuaded his fellow modernizers, especially those in his Whig Party , to legislate tax-supported elementary public education in their states. New York state soon set up the same method in 12 different schools on a trial basis. Most northern states adopted one version or another of the system he established in Massachusetts, especially the program for " normal schools " to train professional teachers. The mission-type concept, which was kept by later German armed forces, required a high level of understanding, literacy and intense training and education at all levels and actively invited involvement and independent decision making by the lower ranks. Socialist Konrad Haenisch , the first education minister Kultusminister , denounced what he called the "demons of morbid subservience, mistrust, and lies" in secondary schools. They failed to introduce an *Einheitsschule*, a one-size-fits-all unified secular comprehensive school , throughout Germany. Weimarer Schulkompromiss Weimar educational compromise of confirmed the tripartite Prussian system, ongoing church influence on education, and religion as a regular topic, and it allowed for peculiarities and individual influence of the German states, widely frustrating the ambitions of radical leftist educational reformers. Erich Hylla " provided various studies with titles such as "School of Democracy" of the US education system for the Prussian government in the s. Legacy of the Prussian System after [ edit ] Alois Hundhammer , a Bavarian defender of the educational legacy of Prussia, photographed in After , the Weimar educational compromise again set the tone for the reconstruction of the state-specific educational system as laid out in the Prussian model. In the US occupation forces failed completely in their attempt to install comprehensive and secular schooling in the US Occupation Zone. This approach had been endorsed by High Commissioner John J. McCloy and was led by the high-ranking progressive education reformer Richard Thomas Alexander , [38] but it faced determined German resistance. Spellman , who intervened with the US forces; the reform attempts were abolished as soon as The individual

states maintain Kulturhoheit cultural predominance on educational matters. The Humboldt approach, a central pillar of the Prussian system and of German education to the present day, is still influential and being used in various discussions. The present German universities charge no or moderate tuition fees. The country faces ongoing controversies about the Prussian legacy of a stratified tripartite educational system versus Comprehensive schooling and with regard to the interpretation of the PISA studies.

### 7: Culture of Germany - history, people, clothing, traditions, women, beliefs, food, customs, family

*This option allows students to study in depth the arrival of the Normans and the establishment of their rule. The depth study will focus on major aspects of Norman rule, considered from economic, religious, political, social and cultural standpoints of this period and arising contemporary and historical controversies.*

Lye pretzels are popular in southern Germany, Alsace, Austria, and German-speaking Switzerland as a variety of bread, a side dish or a snack, and come in many local varieties. Almost every region and even city has its own way of baking them. Often, they are sliced horizontally, buttered, and sold as Butterbrezel, or come with slices of cold meats or cheese. Sesame, poppy, sunflower, pumpkin, or caraway seeds, melted cheese, and bacon bits are other popular toppings. Some bakeries offer pretzels made of different flours, such as whole wheat, rye or spelt. In Bavaria, lye pretzels accompany a main dish, such as Weisswurst sausage. Basically, with the same ingredients, lye pretzels come in numerous local varieties. Sizes are usually similar; the main differences are the thickness of the dough, the content of fat and the degree of baking. Typical Swabian pretzels, for example, have very thin "arms" and a "fat belly" with a split, and a higher fat content. The thicker part makes it easier to slice them for the use of sandwiches. In Bavarian pretzels, the arms are left thicker so they do not bake to a crisp and contain very little fat. Around Christmas, they can be made of soft gingerbread "Lebkuchen" with chocolate coating. In southern Germany and adjoining German-speaking areas, pretzels have retained their original religious meanings and are still used in various traditions and festivals. In some areas, on January 1, people give each other lightly sweetened yeast pretzels for good luck and good fortune. Sometimes children visit their godparents to fetch their New Years pretzel. On May 1, love-struck boys used to paint a pretzel on the doors of the adored. On the other hand, an upside-down pretzel would have been a sign of disgrace. In the Rhineland region, sweet pretzels are made with pudding-filled loops pudding pretzels. Boys give their girlfriends pretzels or cakes in pretzel form. In return, if a girl wants to increase his attention, she will give him a decorated egg on Easter. The pretzel custom is reversed on Pretzel Sunday during leap years. These are shortly boiled in water before baking and afterwards sprinkled with salt. Schloss Burg is renowned for a year-old speciality, the "Burger pretzel". Its texture and flavour resembles rusk or zwieback. The town of Weidenberg celebrates the "Pretzel weeks" during the carnival season when anise flavored pretzels are served with special dishes such as cooked meat with horseradish or roast. In earlier times, the children were very poor, coming from an orphanage, and each received a Kringel pretzel as a reward. Hence, the name "Pretzelfun" was adopted, because this gift was considered a highlight. Today, the children come from schools, but they still get the pretzels. On finishing the race, they are presented with a sweet pretzel. The city of Speyer prides itself to be the "pretzel town", and around the second weekend of July, from Friday to Tuesday, it holds an annual funfair and festival called "Brezelfest", which is the largest beer festival in the Upper Rhine region, and attracts around 1,000,000 visitors. The festival includes a parade with over 100 bands, floats, and clubs participating from the whole region, and 22,000 pretzels are thrown among the crowds. The pretzel booths on the main street are permanently installed and were specially designed when the whole downtown area was redone for the 100th anniversary. In the 20th century, soft pretzels became popular in other regions of the United States. Cities like Philadelphia, Chicago, and New York became renowned for their soft pretzels. Prior to that, street vendors used to sell pretzels on street corners in wooden glass-enclosed cases. The average Philadelphian today consumes about twelve times as many pretzels as the national average. Snack food hard pretzels were shaped as sticks around 3 millimetres Ø. A thicker variety of sticks can be 1 centimetre Ø. Unlike the soft pretzels, these were durable when kept in an airtight environment and marketable in a variety of convenience stores. Large-scale production began in the first half of the 19th century, more so during the 1850s. A prime example was in 1854, when highly innovative American Machine and Foundry Co. The variety of shapes and sizes became a contest of imagination in the marketing of the pretzels taste. During the 19th century, people in Philadelphia would use the small slender pretzel stick as a common accompaniment to ice cream or would crumble pretzels as a topping. This combination of cold sweet and salty taste was very popular for many years. Eventually, this led to the development of an ice cream cone tasting like a pretzel. Philadelphia style soft pretzels Southern

German and Swiss German immigrants who became known as the Pennsylvania Dutch introduced soft shaped pretzels with different shapes and pretzel bakery businesses. A 7-minute film, demonstration of championship hand twisting at 57 per minute and tasting were highlights. Prohibition eventually shut down the breweries which led to the decline of pretzel sales in Freeport, but the city never lost its pretzel pride. Contestants are chosen to be crowned Pretzel Prince and Princess and a festival mascot by the name of "Pretzel Bill" stemming from the Billerbeck Bakery name dresses as a 6-foot tall walking talking pretzel who hands out pretzels from floats and takes photos with the local festival goers. The Spanish, French call it bretzel, the Italian brezel, the Dutch favor sweet variants called krakeling, Norwegian and Danish call it a kringle , and the Swedish call it kringla. In Polish it is precel, in Hungarian and Croatian it is perec, and in Serbian it is pereca. Unsourced material may be challenged and removed. May Jan Steen , Baker with pretzels, from Rijksmuseum The pretzel has become an element in popular culture, both as a food staple, and its unique knotted twist shape which has inspired ideas , perspectives , attitudes , memes , [51] images , and other phenomena. Although historically, the pretzel has influenced culture, it has recently been heavily influenced by mass media. Landscape architecture and sculpture memorialized the strong identity that the city of Philadelphia had with pretzel cuisine of local bakers and popularity in Philadelphia. The Philadelphia Recreation Department renamed in a facility formerly identified as Manayunk Park, located on the block of Silverwood Street as "Pretzel Park. Amusement ride of the Pretzel Loop design in roller coaster elements maximizes the g-forces on riders, increasing the "thrill element" of riding a roller coaster. On a pretzel loop, riders are upside down at the beginning, and on their backs and going backwards at the bottom. Fashion inspired sling bikini is a pretzel bathing suit design emerged in the early s, as a new fashion product of Spandex. It is a bikini variant , haltered maillot that crisscrosses the front and fastens to the waistline. With the advent of the s fabric known as Lycra , these bikinis first emerged and became most popular on the beaches of Europe, including Saint-Tropez , Marbella , Mykonos , and Ibiza. A circulating internet video shows a press conference of US president George W. Bush from January , in which he recalls choking on a pretzel: Listen to your mother.

### 8: Prussian education system - Wikipedia

*Section 4 Shaping the Peace Shaping the Peace it be made safe for every peace-loving nation which, Germany to accept full responsibility for the war and.*

Prior to the s, in Europe, the nation-state as we know it did not exist. Back then, most people did not consider themselves part of a nation; they rarely left their village and knew little of the larger world. If anything, people were more likely to identify themselves with their region or local lord. At the same time, the rulers of states frequently had little control over their countries. Instead, local feudal lords had a great deal of power, and kings often had to depend on the goodwill of their subordinates to rule. Laws and practices varied a great deal from one part of the country to another. The timeline on page 65 explains some key events that led to the rise of the nation-state. In the early modern era, a number of monarchs began to consolidate power by weakening the feudal nobles and allying themselves with the emerging commercial classes. This difficult process sometimes required violence. The consolidation of power also took a long time. Kings and queens worked to bring all the people of their territories under unified rule. Not surprisingly, then, the birth of the nation-state also saw the first rumblings of nationalism, as monarchs encouraged their subjects to feel loyalty toward the newly established nations. The modern, integrated nation-state became clearly established in most of Europe during the nineteenth century. Russia is a great example of consolidation of power by monarchs. Throughout most of the medieval era, what became Russia was a minor principality centered on the city of Moscow. Over the course of a few hundred years, the rulers of Moscow took over more land, eventually expanding to cover much of what is now Russia. This expansion came through a mix of diplomacy and war. When Ivan IV “also known as Ivan the Terrible” came of age and assumed the throne in , he was crowned the first czar. He proceeded to devastate the nobility by means of a secret police and gained the loyalty of commercial classes by giving them positions in a new state bureaucracy. These actions led to the deaths of thousands. The Catholic Church and the Rise of the Nation-State Newly emerging nation-states in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries had a complex relationship with the predominant transnational power of the time, the Catholic Church. At times, partial nation-states were useful tools for the Catholic Church. On several occasions, for example, France and Spain intervened in Italy at the invitation of the Pope. But some monarchs wanted control over their national churches in order to get absolute power. This break with the Catholic Church gave the English something to rally around, thus encouraging them to develop loyalty toward the English nation-state. At the same time, some devout Catholics in England refused to convert; their displeasure ultimately led to repression and civil war. Despite a brutal war, the Catholics were unable to overturn Protestantism. The treaty that ended the war, called the Peace of Westphalia, decreed that the sovereign ruler of a state had power over all elements of both the nation and the state, including religion. Thus, the modern idea of a sovereign state was born. Centralization Centralization, or the process by which law- and policymaking become centrally located, helped spur the development of nation-states. Final power rested with the central government, which made the laws and practices more uniform across the country. A single centralized authority, rather than many diverse local authorities, allowed nation-states to quickly develop their economies. Merchants could trade throughout the nation without worrying about local taxes and regulations. Also, the nation-state was much stronger militarily than the feudal state. Rulers were able to create national armies, which were not dependent on the nobility. The armies could receive consistent training so that all units could work well together. In many cases, the newly emerging nation-states dominated the older forms of political organization. In the eighteenth century, nobles held most of the power in Poland. The monarch was very weak. As a result, Poland could not defeat its powerful neighbors Austria, Prussia, and Russia. These three centralized nation-states partitioned Poland on three different occasions”, , and “eventually eliminating Poland until , when a new Republic of Poland formed. The Importance of Napoleon Napoleon Bonaparte was a key figure in the development of the nation-state. Amid the chaos of the French Revolution in the late eighteenth century, most remaining medieval and feudal laws were overturned and a truly national law code was established. Similarly, a national military was created. In many places, the people rallied

together as a nation in order to defeat Napoleon.

## 9: Nazi Party - HISTORY

*The new German nation excluded Austria, which had been Prussia's main opponent for predominance among the German states. With that accomplished by , he skillfully used balance of power diplomacy to maintain Germany's position in a Europe which, despite many disputes and war scares, remained at peace.*

The German-language name Deutschland is derived from a Germanic root meaning volk, or people. A document written in Latin from the Frankish court of C. From this point forward, the term deutsch was employed to mark a difference in speech, which corresponded to political, geographic, and social distinctions as well. Since, however, the Frankish and Saxon kings of the early Middle Ages sought to characterize themselves as emperors of Rome, it does not seem valid to infer an incipient form of national consciousness. Nevertheless, this self-designation indicates the desire of the members of the Imperial Estates to distinguish themselves from the curia in Rome, with which they were embroiled in a number of political and financial conflicts. The area that became known as Deutschland, or Germany, had been nominally under the rule of the German king—who was usually also the Roman emperor—since the tenth century. In fact, however, the various territories, principalities, counties, and cities enjoyed a large degree of autonomy and retained distinctive names and traditions, even after the founding of the nation-state—the Kaiserreich or German Empire—in . Other older names, such as Swabia and Franconia, refer to "historical landscapes" within the modern federal states or straddling their boundaries. Regional identities such as these are of great significance for many Germans, though it is evident that they are often manipulated for political and commercial purposes as well. At first, it consisted only of so-called West Germany, that is the areas that were occupied by British, French, and American forces. Since that time, Germany has consisted of sixteen federal states: Germany is located in north-central Europe. It shares boundaries with nine other countries: Shortly after the unification of East and West Germany in , the Federal Republic signed a treaty with Poland, in which it renounced all claims to territories east of the boundary formed by the Oder and Neisse rivers—the de facto border since the end of World War II. The northern part of Germany, which lies on the North Sea and the Baltic Sea, is a coastal plain of low elevation. In the east, this coastal plain extends southward for over miles kilometers , but, in the rest of the country, the central region is dotted with foothills. Thereafter, the elevation increases fairly steadily, culminating in the Black Forest in the southwest and the Bavarian Alps in the south. Similarly, the Oder river, which marks the border with Poland, flows northward into the Baltic Sea. The Danube has its source in the Black Forest then runs eastward, draining southern Germany and emptying eventually into the Black Sea. Germany has a temperate seasonal climate with moderate to heavy rainfall. The population continued to rise in the first half of this century, though this trend was hindered by heavy losses in the two world wars. In , the total population of Germany was 82 million. Of this sum, nearly 67 million lived in former West Germany, and just over 15 million lived in former East Germany. In , the year Germany invaded Poland, the population of what was to become West Germany was 43 million and the population of what was to become East Germany was almost 17 million. This means that from to , both the total population and the population of West Germany have increased, while the population of East Germany has decreased. Following World War II, the population of both parts of Germany rose dramatically, due to the arrival of German refugees from the Soviet Union and from areas that are now part of Poland and the Czech Republic. In , eight million refugees formed 16 percent of the West German population and over four million refugees formed 22 percent of the East German population. Between and , however, more than 2. The building of the Berlin Wall in effectively put an end to this German-German migration. These so-called Aussiedler or return settlers took advantage of a provision in the constitution of the Federal Republic of Germany, which grants citizenship to ethnic Germans living outside of Germany. Another boost to the population of West Germany has been provided by the so-called Gastarbeiter migrant or immigrant workers , mostly from Turkey, the Balkans, Italy, and Portugal. Between and , over 23 million foreigners came to the Federal Republic of Germany; seventeen million of these, however, later returned to their home countries. The net gain in population for Germany was still well over 6 million, since those who remained in Germany often established families. The population of Germany

is distributed in small to medium-sized local administrative units, though, on the average, the settlements tend to be larger in West Germany. There are only three cities with a population of over 1 million: Cologne has just under 1 million inhabitants, while the next largest city, Frankfurt am Main, has a population of , In the early nineteenth century, language historians identified German as a member of the Germanic subfamily of the Indo-European family of languages. The major German dialect groups are High and Low German, the language varieties of the southern highlands and the northern lowlands. Low German dialects, in many ways similar to Dutch, were spoken around the mouth of the Rhine and on the northern coast but are now less widespread. High German dialects may be divided into Middle and Upper categories, which, again, correspond to geographical regions. The modern standard is descended largely from a synthetic form, which was developed in the emerging bureaucracy of the territorial state of Saxony and which combined properties of East Middle and East Upper High German. Religious reformer Martin Luther " helped popularize this variety by employing it in his very influential German translation of the Bible. The standard language was established in a series of steps, including the emergence of a national literary public in the eighteenth century, the improvement and extension of public education in the course of the nineteenth century, and political unification in the late nineteenth century. In the twentieth century, massive population movements have contributed to further dialect leveling. Any review of national symbols in Germany must take into account the clash of alternative symbols, which correspond either to different phases of a stormy history or to different aspects of a very complex whole. Germany is the homeland of the Reformation, yet Martin Luther is a very contentious symbol, since 34 percent of all Germans are Roman Catholic. In the late eighteenth and early nineteenth century, Germany became known as the land of Dichter und Denker , that is, poets and philosophers, including such luminaries as Immanuel Kant, Johann Gottfried von Herder, Johann Wolfgang von Goethe, Friedrich von Schiller, and Wilhelm von Humboldt. In the latter nineteenth century this image was supplemented by that of the Prussian officer and the saber-rattling Kaiser. Der deutsche Michel " which means, approximately, "Mike the German," named after the archangel Michael, the protector of Germany" was a simpleton with knee breeches and a sleeping cap, who had represented Germany in caricatures even before the nineteenth century. The national and democratic movement of the first half of the nineteenth century spawned a whole series of symbols, including especially the flag with the colors black, red, and gold, which were used for the national flag in the Weimar Republic " and again in the Federal Republic of Germany as of The national movement also found expression in a series of monuments scattered over the countryside. The National Socialists were especially concerned with creating new symbols and harnessing old ones for their purposes. In the Federal Republic of Germany, it is illegal to display the Hakenkreuz or swastika, which was the central symbol of the Nazi movement and the central motif in the national flag in the Third Reich " The official symbols of the Federal Republic of Germany are the eagle, on one hand, and the black, red, and gold flag of the democratic movement, on the other. Predominantly Catholic, Bavaria is home to many shrines and chapels, as well as the majestic Bavarian Alps. Wall, Berlin contains numerous symbols of Germany and German history. Given the contentious character of political symbols in Germany, many Germans seem to identify more closely with typical landscapes. Paintings or photographs of Alpine peaks and valleys are found in homes throughout Germany. Alternatively, corporate products and consumer goods also serve as national symbols. History and Ethnic Relations Emergence of the Nation. The emergence of the nation has been understood in very different ways at different times. Humanist scholars of the early sixteenth century initiated a discourse about the German nation by identifying contemporaneous populations as descendants of ancient Germanic peoples, as they were represented in the writings of Roman authors such as Julius Caesar "44 B. From the viewpoint of Ulrich von Hutten " , among others, Tacitus provided insight into the origins and character of a virtuous nation that was in many ways equal or superior to Rome. The twentieth century scholar, Norbert Elias, has shown that the attention that bourgeois Germans of the eighteenth century devoted to the origins and the virtuous character of their nation was motivated in large part by their rejection of powerful aristocrats and courtiers, who modeled themselves on French counterparts. On the eve of the French Revolution , Germany was divided into nearly three hundred separate political entities of various sizes and with various degrees of sovereignty within the Holy Roman Empire. In its modern form,

German nationalism took shape in response to this defeat. In the War of Liberation 1813, in which many patriots participated as volunteers, the allied forces under Prussian leadership were successful in expelling the French from Germany. After the Congress of Vienna, however, those who had hoped for the founding of a German nation-state were disappointed, as the dynastic rulers of the German territories reasserted their political authority. With the rise of historical scholarship in the first half of the nineteenth century, the earlier emphasis on German antiquity was supplemented by representations of the medieval origins of the German nation. In the age of nationalism, when the nation-state was understood as the end point of a law-like historical development, German historians sought to explain why Germany, in contrast to France and England, was still divided. They believed that they had discovered the answer to this puzzle in the history of the medieval Reich. Shortly after the death of Charlemagne, the Carolingian empire split into a western, a middle, and an eastern kingdom. In the teleological view of the nineteenth century historians, the western kingdom became France and the eastern kingdom was destined to become Germany; the middle kingdom was subdivided and remained a bone of contention between the two emerging nations. The tenth century German king, Otto I, led a series of expeditions to Rome and was crowned as emperor by the pope in 962. From this point forward, Germany and the medieval version of the Roman Empire were linked. German historians of the nineteenth century interpreted the medieval Reich as the beginning of a process that should have led to the founding of a German nation-state. The medieval emperor was viewed as the major proponent of this national development, but modern historians often criticized the actual behavior of the emperors as being inconsistent with national aims. The main villains of medieval history, at least in the eyes of latter-day historians—especially Protestants—were the various popes and those German princes who allied themselves with the popes against the emperor for reasons that were deemed to be "egotistical. The high point in this development was, the nationalist historians believed, the era of the Hohenstaufen emperors. The Hohenstaufen emperor Frederick I was rendered in nineteenth century historiography as a great hero of the German cause. After his reign, however, the empire suffered a series of setbacks and entered into a long period of decline. The early Habsburgs offered some hope to latter-day historians, but their successors were thought to have pursued purely dynastic interests. The low point in the national saga came in the Thirty Years War, when foreign and domestic enemies ravaged Germany. Among the educated bourgeoisie and the popular classes of nineteenth century Germany, the desire for a renewal of the German Reich was widespread; but there was much disagreement about exactly how this new state should be structured. The main conflict was between those favoring a *grossdeutsch* solution to German unification, that is, a "large Germany" under Austrian leadership, and those favoring a *kleindeutsch* solution, that is, a "small Germany" under Prussian leadership and excluding Austria. The second option was realized after Prussia won a series of wars, defeating Denmark in 1814, Austria in 1815, and France in 1871. After the founding of the Reich, Germany pursued expansionist policies, both overseas and in the territories on its eastern border. Defeat in World War I led to widespread resentment against the conditions of the Versailles Treaty, which many Germans thought to be unfair, and against the founders of the Weimar Republic, who many Germans viewed as traitors or collaborators. Adolf Hitler, the leader of the National Socialist Nazi movement, was able to exploit popular resentment and widespread desires for national greatness. National Socialist propagandists built upon beliefs in the antiquity and continuity of the German nation, augmenting them with racialist theories, which attributed to the Germans a biological superiority over other peoples. Following World War II, German national identity became problematic, since the national movement seemed to have culminated in the Third Reich and found its most extreme expression in the murder of millions of people, including six million Jews. All further reflection on the German nation had to come to grips with this issue in one way or another. There have been many different attempts to explain Nazism and its crimes. Some see Adolf Hitler and his cronies as villains who misled the German people. Others blame Nazism on a flaw in the German national character. Marxist scholars see Nazism as a form of fascism, which they describe as the form that capitalism takes under certain historical conditions. Finally, some cite the failure of the bourgeois revolution in the nineteenth century and the lingering power of feudal elites as the main cause. Since the fall of the GDR, West German traditions of coming to terms with the past have been extended to the period of socialist rule in East Germany. Some

Germans emphasize the similarities between the two forms of dictatorship, National Socialist and communist, while others, especially many East Germans, view the Third Reich and the GDR as being essentially dissimilar.

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