FBALMUN'24 CONGRESS OF VIENNA STUDY GUIDE

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1. Letter from Secretary General

Honourable delegates,

I am extremely delighted to welcome you all to the FBALMUN'24. I am Elif Erboz, the Secretary-General of FBALMUN'24. I have been attending MUN's since 2022 and now i am here. In MUN's you devalope your public speaking abilities in addition to improve your English. You become educated about world problems and solutions for them. Furthermore you widen your general knowledge in along with strengthening your diplomatic abilities. In the second annual session of FBALMUN, our academic team has decided to assign our delegates to seven unique committees: UNWOMEN, DISEC, ACEA, UNHABITAT, CONGRESS OF VIENNA, JCC: SECOND WEST RUSSIAN WAR, TURKCE KRIZ: KORE SAVASI. Within this study guide you are going find all the necessary information and guidelines which will help you about the committee. Since life is brief, the moments that will always bring us joy and that we will never forget are what truly make it special. I hope that for you, FBALMUN'24 will be one of those moments. As FBALMUN family, we are pleased to serve our attendees an unforgettable experience.

Let's #breakthecycle together.

2. Letter from Under-Secretary General

We would like to welcome you all to FBALMUN'24 and to our committee, the Congress of Vienna. In this letter, we will talk about important stuff but firstly, allow me to introduce myself. My name is Bora Benli, I am twenty years old and I currently study at Bogazici University, majoring in electrics and electronical engineering. Me and Gökalp Elmas will be the Under Secretary-General and Academic Assistant of the committee for these three days. If you have any questions regarding the study guide, I will leave my contact details at the end of this letter. Please ask any question without hesitation.

This study guide has two main agendas and I want you to read according to those. Before the conference, this study guide intends to help you understand the problems that European nations face prior to the Congress. During the conference, the information within the study guide will help you to solve those problems easily.

As the rules of procedure and the end document, I will explain those in during the committee but to help you visualize the process I can say that rather than a resolution paper, we want you to sign number of treaties and agreements between each other to achieve peace within Europe. (well at least trying it).

I have a special person that I must mention and his importance for this committee is too much that I can't explain. The very first idea of this committee mentioned right after FBALMUN'23 and after one-year discussions with our Academic Advisor Asil Özgülülü, the committee we are going to present to you came to shape. As Asil being the original founding father of this committee, I must especially thank him for making this committee possible.

Bora Benli Under Secretary-General of the Congress of Vienna 05334960060

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3. Political Situation of Europe Prior to French Revolution

In this part we will talk about problems that European countries faced until the French Revolution. Furthermore, we will add maps from 1789 to help you visualize the world at the beginning of the French Revolution. Do not think that these are the maps during the Congress. We will add those maps further down the study guide.

Also, for those who didn't read the letter and just skipped here. Please read the letter to understand how you should understand this study guide. This letter isn't some boring letter just includes special thanks; the letter is written directly to you to read!

3.1 Iberian Peninsula

After Charles II (Habsburg Dynasty) died without a direct heir in 1700, his throne succeeded by his French relative, Philip V (Bourbon Dynasty). This led to the War of the Spanish Succession (1700-1714) between these two dynasties. Due to Habsburgs fearing Spain and France uniting under the same dynasty will most likely shifts the power balance. With the Treaty of Utrecht, Philip V came the throne with the obligation to relinquish his right to the French throne. Spain's possessions in Italy were also distributed.

During the Seven Years' War, even though entering the war after it started, Spain allied himself with France and invaded Portugal. After failed military operations, Spain lost Florida to British while gained Louisiana from France with the Treaty of Paris (1763). With this treaty Spain also lost some of its rights in the new world and forced to recognize some Portuguese and British claims.

Important to note that Britain returned Florida to Spain with the Treaty of Paris (1783), which also concluded the American War of Independence.

Here is a map that shows the North American borders after the Treaty of Paris (1763):



While Spain sometimes fought with Britain, with the Anglo-Portuguese Treaty of Windsor, Britain and Portugal secured a long-time alliance since 1386.

With the success of Britain in the Seven Years' War, Spain and France decided to add Portugal to Bourbon Family Compact in 1762. After failed diplomatic approach, Spain and France invaded Portugal same year and seized the city of Almeida. Spain returned the city with the treaty of Paris (1763).

3.2 Prussia

Being consisted of two entities namely Margraviate of Brandenburg and Duchy of Prussia, this two-entity united with time and with the Crown Treaty in 1700, Holy Roman Emperor promised Frederick III, Elector of Brandenburg, and Duke of Prussia that his future coronation as "King in Prussia" would be recognized within HRE and Europe. In 1701, Frederick III coronated himself as King Frederick I. Apart from his lack of military expansion, his coronation as king pathed the way for Hohenzollern possessions, even though remained under the Holy Roman Empire, became belongings of Prussian Kingdom.

After participation in Second Northern War, War of the Austrian Succession, and Austro-Prussian Silesian Wars; Prussia expanded his realm within Europe. With the First Partition of Poland, Prusia expanded within Polish realm and recognized as one of the Great Powers.

Prussian holdings at the year 1789:



3.3 Austria

In the years leading up to the French Revolution, Austria found itself at a crossroads, facing several internal and external problems that would fundamentally impact its political environment. Emperor Joseph II, a reformer who aimed to modernize and concentrate the huge empire, led the Habsburg monarchy.

Austria was dealing with ancient feudal systems and agricultural inefficiencies. The peasantry, beset by high taxes and feudal responsibilities, suffered widespread poverty and unrest. Meanwhile, the expanding bourgeoisie, driven by Enlightenment principles sweeping throughout Europe, demanded more economic liberty and political participation.

Austria's social structure was inflexible and hierarchical, with the peasantry suffering from severe exploitation and the firmly established nobles enjoying enormous advantages. Simmering anger among the lower classes was exacerbated by this obvious social difference, as many came to see the monarchy as repressive and out of touch.

Considering the continuous power struggles throughout Europe, Austria was politically entangled in a complicated web of alliances and conflicts. Amidst the growing threat of revolutionary fervor from neighboring France, the Habsburgs also had to cope with maintaining a careful balance between their historic rivalry with Prussia and France.

3.4 Russia

Russia was going through a major era of change under Catherine the Great's rule in the years preceding the French Revolution. Although the French Revolution took place mostly in the late 18th century, Catherine's reign overlapped the revolutionary era and continued into the early 19th century.

Russia had a mostly agricultural economy, with the great majority of people employed as serfs on huge estates held by the aristocracy. The serfdom system, which confined peasants to the land they farmed, hindered innovation and economic growth. The institution of serfdom remained largely intact, leading to social tensions and instability, even though Catherine carried out a few modest changes aimed at modernizing agriculture and industry.

Russia had a highly stratified social structure with a strict hierarchical structure ruled by the king and nobles. The bulk of the people, known as serfs, had poor living circumstances and little rights, which exacerbated social inequality. Although Catherine's Enlightenment-inspired reforms, such the creation of educational institutions and the encouragement of the arts and culture, aimed to modernize Russian society and improve its intellectual standing, they made no progress toward resolving the system's underlying inequities.

Russia was becoming more influential both domestically and internationally in politics. Poland was divided as a result of Catherine's territorial gains, which saw the Russian Empire grow to the west and south. Catherine's internal power consolidation strengthened the tsar's authority by centralizing power inside the monarchy. But there was simmering unrest under the surface, especially among the peasantry and other marginalized groups that resented the monarchy's dictatorial control.

3.5 Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth

Following the Union of Lublin (1569), the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth emerged as a contrast to Europe's growing number of absolute kingdoms. Its quasi-democratic political system of Golden Liberty, albeit confined to the nobles, was unmatched in European history. It set a significant pattern for the subsequent development of European constitutional monarchs.

However, a succession of power battles between the lower nobility (szlachta), the upper nobility (magnates), and elected monarchs eroded citizenship ideals and eventually weakened the government's authority, ability to operate, and ability to pay for national security. Beginning in the second part of the 17th century, parliament was paralyzed by the infamous liberum veto procedure. Following a succession of

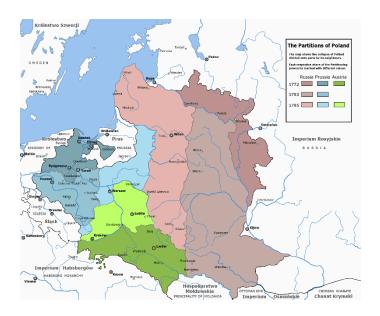
disastrous battles in the middle of the 17th century (most notably the Chmielnicki Uprising and the Deluge), Poland-Lithuania lost its influence in European affairs. During the conflicts, the Commonwealth lost around one-third of its people (more than during World War II). Its economy and growth were further harmed by the nobility's reliance on agriculture and serfdom, which, along with the weakness of the urban burgher class, stalled the country's industrialization.

One of the biggest and most populous states in Europe at the start of the 18th century, the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth was nothing more than a puppet of its neighbors, the Russian Empire, Prussia, and Austria, who meddled in its internal affairs at will. The Commonwealth was periodically divided and eventually dissolved by the surrounding countries throughout the second half of the eighteenth century.

The partitions of Poland were the three partitions of the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth that occurred around the end of the 18th century and effectively ended the existence of the state, resulting in the abolition of independent Poland and Lithuania for 123 years. The Habsburg monarchy, the Kingdom of Prussia, and the Russian Empire carried out these partitions, gradually dividing up the Commonwealth's possessions through territorial seizures and annexations.

The First Partition took place on August 5, 1772, when the Bar Confederation lost its battle with Russia. The Second Partition occurred during the Polish-Russian War of 1792 and the Targowica Confederation of 1792, when Russian and Prussian forces entered the Commonwealth, and the partition treaty was signed on January 23, 1793, at the Grodno Sejm (without Austria). The Third Partition occurred on October 24, 1795, in response to the failed Polish Kościuszko Uprising the previous year. With this partition, the Commonwealth ceased to exist.

Partitions of the Commonwealth:



3.6 France

Under King Louis XVI, France was an absolute monarchy, with little to no checks and balances on the king's consolidated power. The growing middle class was deeply unhappy about being shut out of the decision-making process as a result of this concentration of power in the hands of one person. Though in theory unchallenged, the king's power was really undermined by his indecision and the antiquated administrative framework that depended on a patchwork of regional rights and regulations. In addition to the monarchy's perceived disconnection from the aspirations and demands of its citizens, Louis XVI's legitimacy was further damaged by his incapacity to carry out significant reforms.

The three estates that made up French society were set in stone. The Third Estate, or commoners, who made up the great bulk of the population, paid the lion's share of taxes and had little political clout. The First Estate, or clergy, and the Second Estate, or nobility, had considerable privileges, including exemptions from numerous taxes. Peasants, urban laborers, and the bourgeoisie (middle class) were among the commoners; they were getting more and more irritated with their lack of power and the financial demands made of them. Demands for equality were stoked by the sharp contrast between the luxurious lifestyles of the nobles and the struggles of the common people.

France's economy was in terrible shape. Due to the nation's participation in both the American Revolutionary War and the Seven Years' War, the royal treasury was completely depleted, which resulted in a significant national debt. The wealthy estates resisted attempts to change the tax code and strengthen financial stability because they were hesitant to give up their tax breaks. The 1780s also saw France experience sporadic bad harvests, which resulted in food shortages and sharp increases in bread costs that disproportionately impacted the poorer classes.

Widespread dissatisfaction and social tensions were made worse by the economic crisis.

The administrative system in France was unreliable and ineffective. Confusion and inefficiency resulted from the country's division into provinces with different laws, customs, and taxation regimes. There was a great deal of corruption and cronyism, and posts were sometimes given to the highest bidder rather than chosen on the basis of ability. Widespread dissatisfaction and a demand for reform were brought about by the absence of consistency and justice in governance. The lack of a meeting of the Estates-General, an advisory council comprising the three estates, since 1614 underscored the gulf that existed between the people and the crown.

Louis XVI accidentally paved the way for revolution when he summoned the Estates-General in 1789 to discuss the financial situation. Frustrated with the favored estates' stubbornness and lack of representation, the Third Estate split out to create the National Assembly, posing a direct threat to royal power. Long-standing frustrations and the impact of Enlightenment ideals drove this act of disobedience, which started a chain of events that would eventually bring to the fall of the Old Regime and the establishment of revolutionary France.

3.7 England

England had a constitutional monarchy and a rather stable political climate just before the French Revolution. A system that was solidified in the 1689 Bill of Rights, the authority of Parliament over the monarchy had been established by the Glorious Revolution of 1688. This agreement essentially curtailed the crown's powers by guaranteeing that the monarchy could not rule without the approval of Parliament. Compared to their forebears, the kings of this era—George III in particular—had less political clout because of the limitations imposed by the parliamentary system. Unlike the absolute kingdoms of the Continent, this balance of power helped to create a stable political environment.

England's economy was changing dramatically at the time, mostly due to the early Industrial Revolution. Crop rotation and selective breeding are two agricultural innovations that have boosted output and aided in population development. England was becoming an economic superpower due to the rapidly advancing economic Revolution, which was characterized by innovations in iron, coal, and textile manufacture. Urbanization and the emergence of cities like Manchester and Birmingham were caused by the expansion of factories and the invention of new technologies, such as James Watt's steam engine, which spurred economic growth and raised the need for labor.

The Industrial Revolution's effects on the economy had a significant societal impact. Traditional social structures were changed by the population explosion and the migration from rural to urban areas. A new urban working class that resided in industrial cities that were growing quickly arose. These laborers frequently endured difficult working circumstances, such as long hours, little pay, and subpar housing arrangements. The growth of the middle class, which is made up of professionals, merchants, and owners of factories, started to undermine the aristocracy and gentry's long-standing supremacy. In addition to making society more dynamic, social mobility brought attention to the differences and conflicts that exist between various socioeconomic strata.

English society was greatly influenced by the Enlightenment, which promoted an atmosphere that valued reason, science, and individual liberties. Prominent thinkers like John Locke and Isaac Newton shaped modern philosophy by endorsing concepts like rationality, empiricism, and natural rights. These concepts became ingrained in society, promoting conversation and debate in salons, coffee shops, and printed materials. Future reforms and inventions were made possible by the culture that was open to new ideas and skeptical of established authority, which resulted from the emphasis on reason and progress.

During this time, England's colonial empire was growing quickly and becoming a major player on the world stage. The country's riches and resources were brought about by the expansion of its abroad commerce and the colonization of North America, the Caribbean, Africa, and India. While the Atlantic slave trade greatly boosted the economy despite its moral and humanitarian consequences, the British East India Company was instrumental in the consolidation of British power in India. Although the American War of Independence (1775–1783) was a major loss, it also made colonial policies more critically examined and put more of an emphasis on uniting the surviving territories.

England had a number of internal and international policy difficulties despite its relative stability. Rapid urbanization and industrialization at home sparked social discontent and reform demands. Concerns including child labor, workers' rights, and subpar living conditions in industrial communities gained traction. While the government started addressing some of these problems, changes were sluggish and frequently encountered opposition from special groups.

England was embroiled in several disputes and power struggles on the global scene. The ongoing tension stemming from the geopolitical competition with France resulted in many conflicts during the 18th century. Although the loss of the American colonies was a huge setback, it also made imperial policy more

reevaluative and directed toward other areas. Different facets of English society first viewed the French Revolution, which got off in 1789, with a mixture of fear and support. The Revolution's extreme phase and Napoleon's ascent would eventually cause England to adopt an active opposing posture, which sparked the Napoleonic Wars.

3.8 Netherlands

Before the French Revolution, the Netherlands, often called the Dutch Republic, went through a complicated and unstable political period. After winning its freedom from Spain in 1581, the Netherlands Republic was founded as a confederation of seven provinces, each with a high degree of autonomy. The States General, the federal parliament, and the role of the Stadtholder—a hereditary post historically held by the House of Orange—were all carefully balanced within the political system. This equilibrium grew more and more tense throughout the course of the eighteenth century.

The Dutch Republic was going through a period of political unrest and collapse by the middle of the eighteenth century. The state was damaged by the incompetence and corruption of the administration as well as by the absence of a powerful central authority. Internal strife was further aggravated by the competition between the republican Patriots and the pro-Stadtholder Orangists, who aimed to democratize governance and lessen the influence of the Stadtholder. A brief era of reform was brought about by the Patriots' substantial gains in the 1780s, but Prussian troops' involvement in 1787 finally smashed their attempts and reinstated Orangist power.

Throughout the 18th century, the Dutch Republic's economy saw both growth and collapse. The Netherlands had been a dominant economic force during the Golden Age of the 17th century, dominating international commerce, finance, and marine industry. But by the eighteenth century, this wealth was starting to fade. Trade routes were interrupted and Dutch naval might was reduced because of the Anglo-Dutch Wars in the 17th and early 18th century.

Moreover, the Dutch economic edge was diminished by the emergence of other European nations, especially Britain, as significant trade rivals. Once the world's

most powerful trade company, the Dutch East India Company (VOC) suffered from corruption, incompetence, and rising debt. As trade volumes declined and financial markets saw volatility, the VOC's collapse reflected the Republic's general economic stagnation. The Netherlands continued to be a major financial and commercial hub in spite of these obstacles, but the economic vibrancy of previous centuries was obviously lost.

The Dutch Republic found it difficult to hold onto its influence in international affairs in the face of growing influence from Britain and France. The Seven Years' War (1756–1763) and the War of the Austrian Succession (1740–1748) put further strain on Dutch military resources and revealed the gaps in the Republic's fortifications. The loss of vital areas and the unable to project force militarily seriously damaged the Dutch reputation abroad.

The Republic's long-standing partnership with Britain grew more troublesome as British naval and economic might surpassed that of the Dutch. The Netherlands suffered horrible casualties in the Fourth Anglo-Dutch War (1780–1784), which further diminished the Republic's naval might. The war was terminated by the Treaty of Paris (1784), but the Dutch military and economy were left weaker.

When the French Revolution started in 1789, the internal strife and outside influences prepared the ground for profound transformations. The Dutch Patriots saw a chance to revitalize their fight against the Orangist rule in the revolutionary ideals coming from France. The Netherlands was a fertile platform for the dissemination of Enlightenment ideals, which promoted liberty, equality, and fraternity, especially among the middle classes and intellectuals.

The Dutch Republic was directly impacted by the French Revolutionary Wars (1792–1802) and the ascent of Napoleon that followed. After French revolutionary forces conquered the Netherlands in 1795, a French client state called the Batavian Republic was founded. With the assimilation of the Netherlands into the French Empire under Napoleon, this signaled the end of the Dutch Republic and the start of a new age of French influence and rule.

3.9 Sweeden

Sweden's political climate before the French Revolution was characterized by considerable constitutional disputes and fluctuations. The Swedish Parliament, or Riksdag, possessed considerable influence in the new parliamentary system that was established during the so-called Age of Liberty (1718–1772), greatly undermining the monarchy's dominance. After the death of King Charles XII, whose military adventures and absolutist leadership had depleted the nation's resources, this era began.

The Hats and the Caps, two political groups with opposing agendas, shared power during the Age of Liberty. There was constant competition for power between the Hats, who were typically more pro-war and aristocratic, and the Caps, who were more peace-oriented and frequently represented the interests of the burghers and peasantry. Significant political instability, factionalism, and corruption characterized this era of parliamentary governance, which eventually undermined the state.

The Age of Liberty's political unrest culminated in King Gustav III's 1772 coup d'état, which aimed to reestablish monarchy. With his revolution, Gustav III reclaimed his right to rule as king, ushering in the Gustavian era of enlightened absolutism. Although Gustav III modernized the Swedish state via several reforms, his reign was also characterized by dictatorial inclinations.

Several economic and social changes were instituted by Gustav III, such as the encouragement of commerce, the creation of a free press (although with considerable censorship), and initiatives to lessen the power of the aristocracy. To establish a more effective and responsive government, he sought to consolidate authority and simplify the administrative process. His increasingly authoritarian administration caused rising dissatisfaction among the aristocracy and other political factions, despite his attempts to modernize Sweden.

The goal of Sweden's foreign policy in the eighteenth century was to preserve and increase its power in Northern Europe. But Sweden had been badly wounded by the Great Northern War (1700–1721), which resulted in the loss of important territory and a decline in its standing as a major European power.

The Russo-Swedish War (1788–1790) was fought by Sweden under Gustav III with the goal of regaining lost territory and establishing Swedish dominance in the Baltic area. The Treaty of Värälä, which restored pre-war borders but did not result in Sweden gaining any substantial new territory, brought the conflict to an unresolved close. The contentious battle put further strain on the country's economy and political stability.

The concepts of liberty, equality, and fraternity that marked the start of the French Revolution in 1789 struck a chord with different groups within Swedish society. While Gustav III first favored the French monarchy, he also attempted to enact certain Enlightenment-inspired reforms. But escalating resistance resulted

from his increasingly dictatorial leadership and attempts to circumvent the Riksdag.

Following the murder of Gustav III in 1792 by a gang of conspirators, his son Gustav IV Adolf ruled as regent for a while. Throughout the regency era, political unrest persisted, and revolutionary ideologies gained traction throughout Europe. The wider revolutionary fervor intensified Sweden's political and social tensions, paving the way for more internal strife and changes in the early 19th century.

3.10 Switzerland

Switzerland was a confederation of cantons with a high degree of autonomy prior to the French Revolution. The Swiss Confederation, a confederation of late Middle Ages alliances and treaties, was the aggregate name given to this informal political framework. The size, wealth, and political structures of the cantons differed greatly; some were democratic and agricultural, while others were oligarchic and metropolitan. With its limited jurisdiction, the Diet (Tagsatzung) was primarily responsible for defense and foreign policy. Because there was no robust central administration, the cantons frequently followed their own interests, which occasionally resulted in internal strife and violence.

Switzerland's dedication to neutrality, which had been established by a number of treaties and diplomatic initiatives, was the defining feature of its foreign policy. By taking this stand and concentrating on promoting domestic peace, the Swiss Confederation was able to stay out of significant European conflicts. Switzerland's status as a neutral party in European politics was strengthened in 1648 when the Peace of Westphalia legally acknowledged Switzerland's independence from the Holy Roman Empire. However, the confederation was occasionally exposed to outside influences and internal conflict due to its lack of a cohesive armed force and internal divides.

Switzerland had severe internal strife and societal unrest despite its dedication to neutrality and internal liberty. Conflicts frequently resulted from the various political structures of the cantons, especially between rural and urban areas as well as between Protestant and Catholic districts. Sometimes these differences in

religion and politics led to violent conflicts, as the 17th-century Swiss Peasant War. Social unrest was also influenced by the economic divide between the more affluent metropolitan areas and the less developed rural cantons. The decentralized structure of the confederation and the cantons' autonomy hampered efforts to resolve these problems.

The concepts of liberty, equality, and fraternity that characterized the French Revolution when it started in 1789 struck a chord with many sections of Swiss society, especially in the cities where Enlightenment ideals were prevalent. The French Revolution was a source of inspiration as well as a threat to the Swiss Confederation. While some Swiss embraced the idea of more political freedom and change, others were concerned about the possibility of anarchy and bloodshed. It was challenging to come up with a cohesive reaction to the revolutionary events taking place over the border due to the internal conflicts inside Switzerland.

3.11 The Papal State

Following the fall of the Western Roman Empire in the fifth century, the Papal States were founded. During Italy's political turmoil and division, the Roman Church progressively grew in power and jurisdiction over different areas of the country. The popes' temporal power and territorial authority were expanded through the Donations of Pepin, King Pepin the Short of the Franks, in 756 and Charlemagne, King of the Franks and Emperor of the Carolingian Empire, in 774. These acts established the foundation of the future Papal States.

Through a mix of diplomacy, military might, and strategic alliances, the Papal States continued to extend and solidify their territory over the Middle Ages. Popes frequently carried out the duties of secular kings, enforcing laws, gathering taxes, and preserving order in their spheres of influence. The papacy possessed considerable political and spiritual power due to Rome's strategic location as the Catholic Church's headquarters, which enabled it to have an impact throughout Europe.

In spite of times of expansion and somewhat stable conditions, the Papal States had several difficulties. The Western Schism and the Avignon Papacy undermined the papacy's power and divided its lands in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. The Italian Wars and competing city-states' power conflicts, including Venice, Milan, Florence, and Naples, significantly weakened the Papal States' geographical integrity throughout the Renaissance. The Holy Roman Emperor Charles V's

army's 1527 siege of Rome brought to light the Papal States' susceptibility to outside invasion.

The Catholic Church went through a period of change known as the Counter-Reformation in reaction to the Protestant Reformation and internal difficulties. The popes aimed to increase their temporal power over the Papal States, while the Council of Trent (1545–1563) upheld Catholic theology and discipline. Popes like Sixtus V (1585–1590) and Paul III (1534–1549) established infrastructure projects, encouraged education, and started reforms in Rome and its environs, therefore establishing the worldly and spiritual authority of the pope.

The Enlightenment presented the Papal States with further difficulties by the eighteenth century. Enlightenment intellectuals advocated for secular government and questioned the papacy's temporal authority. The Papal States were significantly impacted by the Napoleonic Wars (1799–1815) and the French Revolution (1789–1799). Napoleon Bonaparte's French army attacked Rome in 1798, declared the Roman Republic, and took control of papal lands. In 1799, Pope Pius VI was kidnapped and died in exile.

3.12 Holy Roman Empire

The Holy Roman Empire was significantly damaged by the Thirty Years' War (1618–1648). Originally a religious war between governments that identified as Protestant and Catholic, the war grew more deadly and devastated most of Central Europe. The conflict came to an end with the Peace of Westphalia in 1648, which also changed Europe's political climate. It also signaled the start of the Empire's slow collapse in power and influence by recognizing the sovereignty of the different German states inside the Empire.

By the eighteenth century, the Holy Roman Empire's established order and authority were under threat from the Enlightenment. Its decentralized government was questioned by philosophers and intellectuals, who also pushed for political reforms, secularism, and reason. The collapse of the Empire was further expedited by the French Revolution and the Napoleonic Wars. The Confederation of the Rhine and Napoleon Bonaparte's operations in Central Europe undermined the Empire's might and helped to bring about its fall.

Emperor Francis II formally dissolved the Holy Roman Empire in 1806 after stepping down from the throne in response to pressure from Napoleon. The medieval Empire came to an end when the Napoleonic Wars and the Congress of Vienna (1814–1815) divided Central Europe into a system of nation-states. The ideas of federalism, administration, and the distribution of power among European states are all influenced by the history of the Holy Roman Empire.

4. Enlightenment

This part will be about the impact of the Enlightenment on Europe. Age of Enlightenment is an overall long topic, and I don't want to make this guide longer than it should be.

The European political structures of absolute monarchy and feudalism were challenged by the Enlightenment. Natural rights, the social contract idea, and the separation of powers were promoted by philosophers including John Locke, Montesquieu, and Jean-Jacques Rousseau. These beliefs supported the notions of equality before the law, individual liberty, and the notion that consent from the governed should form the foundation of governments.

Impact: The concepts of the Enlightenment encouraged political reforms throughout Europe, notably the American and French Revolutions, and established the foundation for contemporary democratic ideals. They aided in the decline of established monarchs and the ascent of representative governance and constitutionalism.

The dominant position of the Church in European culture, superstition, and religious intolerance were all questioned by Enlightenment intellectuals. They supported the separation of church and state, freedom of thought, and religious tolerance. Specifically, Voltaire promoted religious plurality and faulted religious establishments for impeding development and logic.

Impact: The ideals of the Enlightenment played a part in the fall of religious power in society and politics. They cleared the path for the progressive separation of church and state in many European nations, as well as for secularism and the advancement of religious liberty.

The scientific method, reason, and empirical observation were all valued throughout the Enlightenment as ways to better comprehend the natural world and advance human civilization. Enlightenment intellectuals attempted to apply scientific ideas to social and political issues, and they were inspired by the scientific advancements of scholars like Galileo Galilei and Isaac Newton.

Impact: Improvements in technology, agriculture, and medicine resulted from the encouragement of rationality and scientific investigation. It also had an impact on educational changes that gave empirical data and critical thinking top priority, establishing the groundwork for contemporary scientific fields.

The evils of the feudal system, aristocratic privilege, and social inequality were all criticized by Enlightenment intellectuals. They supported equal rights for all people before the law, social fairness, and the elimination of serfdom. The notion of the "general will" as proposed by Rousseau highlighted the significance of the social compact and group decision-making.

Impact: The elimination of feudal privileges, improvements to criminal justice systems, and advancement of human rights were all made possible by enlightenment concepts. They served as an inspiration for social and economic equality movements like the early feminist and abolitionist movements.

Throughout Europe, the Enlightenment promoted a climate of critical thinking, discussion, and intellectual interchange. Coffee shops, salons, and academies developed become hubs for free-flowing intellectual conversation. Ideas from the Enlightenment were available to a wider audience with the publication of printed books and pamphlets.

Impact: The Enlightenment revolutionized culture and thought, laying the foundation for today's intellectual environment. It supported the quest of knowledge, fostered an attitude of skepticism toward conventional wisdom, and influenced literary and artistic movements like Neoclassicism and Romanticism.

The concepts of individual liberty and self-determination that the Enlightenment advanced ultimately fed nationalist movements throughout Europe. Enlightenment intellectuals questioned the validity of monarchical authority and promoted consent-based governments that upheld the rights of both people and countries. Throughout the 19th century, this mentality persisted and affected the goals of many national and ethnic groupings at the Vienna Congress.

Impact: The idea of nationalism surfaced as a key negotiating element during the Congress of Vienna. The Congress did not adequately address the national ambitions of people in areas like Germany and Italy, which prepared the ground for future nationalist movements, even if its goal was to restore the old order and balance of power among kingdoms.

The growth of liberalism, which favored limited monarchy, individual rights, and constitutional governance, was also influenced by enlightenment concepts. The growth of liberal philosophy, which questioned the absolute power of monarchs and advocated for representative governments and citizen rights under the law, was influenced by the ideas of thinkers such as John Locke and Montesquieu.

Impact: Despite the Vienna Congress's primary goals of maintaining stability and monarchical power, liberal ideas continued to serve as a catalyst for reform movements across Europe. In reaction to the conservative measures implemented in Vienna, liberal activists and intellectuals would subsequently advocate for political liberties and constitutional changes.

The Vienna Congress's debates on international relations and the distribution of power were impacted by the Enlightenment's emphasis on reason and logic. notions for a more logical and peaceful international order, founded on the notions of diplomacy, treaties, and mutual respect among states, were put out by enlightenment intellectuals like Immanuel Kant.

Impact: throughout order to avert further wars like the Napoleonic Wars, the Congress of Vienna aimed to create a stable balance of power throughout Europe. The concept of using diplomacy and international cooperation as instruments of peacekeeping was congruent with Enlightenment ideas of reason and logic, even if it did not explicitly embrace Enlightenment principles.

5. French Revolution

French Revolution is a long and complicated topic that has lots of events. As I said I don't want to make this guide unnecessarily long. Thus, I will provide you with links to YouTube videos that I find good.

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=8qRZcXIODNU&t=3s

French Revolution Part 1

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=EQmjXM4VK2U

French Revolution Part 2

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=zqllxbPWKNI&t=1539s

Napoleonic Wars Part 1

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=mY3SEMTROas&t=6s

Napoleonic Wars Part 2

6. Congress of Vienna

The Congress of Vienna, convened between September 1814 and June 1815, stands as a pivotal event in European history. Emerging in the aftermath of the Napoleonic Wars, this diplomatic assembly brought together the leading statesmen and monarchs of Europe with the ambitious goal of reshaping the continent and restoring stability after years of turmoil. Led by figures such as Austria's Klemens von Metternich, Britain's Lord Castlereagh, Russia's Tsar Alexander I, and France's Talleyrand, the Congress aimed not only to redraw political boundaries but also to establish a new framework for international relations—one that would seek to prevent

future conflicts through collective diplomacy and a balance of power. The decisions made at the Congress of Vienna would profoundly influence the course of European politics and set the stage for the conservative order that would dominate much of the 19th century.

6.1 Preliminaries

6.1.1 Treaty of Chaumont

The United Kingdom, Austria, Prussia, and Russia—the four main countries opposing Napoleon Bonaparte—signed the Treaty of Chaumont on March 9, 1814, which was a crucial accord. This convention was an important first step in the more extensive diplomatic discussions at the Congress of Vienna, which aimed to overthrow Napoleon and bring stability back to Europe.

The Napoleonic Wars had shifted against Napoleon's favor by the beginning of 1814. His hold over Europe was fast weakening following his crushing setbacks in Russia (1812) and the Battle of Leipzig (1813). In an attempt to secure enduring peace and avert any further rise of French domination, the Sixth alliance—a alliance of Austria, Prussia, Russia, and the United Kingdom—sought to take advantage of this momentum.

Alliance and War-Readiness: The four great countries' alliance was cemented by the Treaty of Chaumont. Each signatory promised to contribute significant military resources, including 150,000 men from each of the main nations, and to fight Napoleon until he was vanquished.

Restoring Europe's borders to their pre-Napoleonic form was the stated goal of the treaty, which essentially undid the geographical adjustments Napoleon had made. This included the return of regions to their legitimate rulers as of 1792 and the restoration of the French Bourbon monarchy.

Balance of Power: In order to prevent any one country from becoming overly dominant, the treaty stressed the significance of preserving the balance of power in Europe. Later on, this idea would emerge as a central motif at the Congress of Vienna.

Duration and Collective Security: The alliance's 20-year term was set by the treaty, which also required its signatories to cooperate in fending off any future challenges to the stability of Europe. The foundation for collective security agreements that would play a significant role in later European diplomacy was established by this clause.

6.1.2 Treaty of Paris (1814)

Napoleon Bonaparte's authority was quickly eroding by the beginning of 1814. After a string of setbacks, the Allies advanced into Paris, forcing Napoleon to resign on April 6, 1814. His abdication was formally recognized, and a new European order was established with the signing of the Treaty of Paris on May 30, 1814.

Adjustments for Territories:

France's Borders: Prior to the start of the Revolutionary Wars, on January 1, 1792, these were France's borders. The treaty restored them. This meant that all of the areas France had acquired during that time were gone. Important areas given up were:

Belgium and Luxembourg were given back to the Netherlands in Austria.

The areas of the Rhineland were given back to several German states.

The Kingdom of Sardinia regained Savoy and Nice.

The Kingdom of Sardinia also regained Piedmont and Genoa.

Authority over areas like the Duchy of Parma and Tuscany, which were returned to their pre-Napoleonic rulers.

Colonial Adjustments: The Allies regained several overseas territories while France kept hold of several of its pre-war colonies.

Mauritius, other Caribbean islands, and portions of India were brought back under British rule

Decisions about other colonies were deferred to the Congress of Vienna.

Political and Military Clauses:

No occupying: The 1814 Treaty did not force France to host an occupying army, in contrast to following accords. In order to guarantee a durable peace, the Allies tried to avoid degrading the French people.

No Reparations: Given the magnitude of the fighting and the devastation, France was exempt from paying war reparations, which was a somewhat liberal ruling.

Global Affairs:

Congress of Vienna: The treaty stipulated that in order to handle the many political and geographical concerns that remained unresolved after the war, a larger meeting was required. This resulted in the Congress of Vienna, when the main powers engaged in detailed negotiations to establish the post-Napoleonic order.

Trade and Navigation: In an effort to mend the economic ties damaged by the conflicts, the treaty contained measures restoring rights to trade and navigation.

Allied Guarantees:

Security Promises: The Allied nations pledged in the pact to preserve the peace agreement and protect the new borders.

6.2 Goals

Reestablishment of Legitimate Monarchies

Legitimacy Principle: One of Metternich's main ideas, the principle of legitimacy, emphasized that the survival of old-fashioned, hereditary monarchy was essential to the stability of Europe. The reasoning behind this was that legitimate rulers would maintain continuity and order because they had a divine authority to do so.

Political Persistence: It was thought that installing overthrew kings would help to restore the political continuity and stability that had been shattered by Napoleonic and revolutionary upheavals. By doing this, the old social and political order would be strengthened, and republicanism and revolutionary zeal would be suppressed.

Particular Restorations: These included the restoration of the House of Savoy in Piedmont-Sardinia, the restoration of the Bourbon monarchy in France under Louis XVIII, the reinstatement of Ferdinand VII in Spain, and the restoration of various German and Italian princes who had been driven out by Napoleonic reorganization.

Balance of Power

European Stability: In order to prevent any one country from dominating the continent, the balance of power was designed to achieve just that. The necessity to balance France and any other power that would pursue hegemony served as the inspiration for this idea.

Redistribution of Territories Strategically: The goal was to fortify the states that surrounded France and guarantee that the strength of all the great powers was roughly equal. For instance, the Rhineland was to be used to bolster Prussia, while Belgium and Luxembourg were to be added to the Kingdom of the Netherlands.

Checks and Balances: In order to ensure that powers could offset each other's impact and keep any one state from becoming overly powerful, checks and balances were built into the redistribution plan.

Reorganization of Territories

German Confederation: Following the fall of the Holy Roman Empire, the German-speaking lands required restructuring. Under Austrian direction, 39 German states were to form the loose union known as the German Confederation. This would offer a foundation for collaboration without establishing a strong, unified Germany that may jeopardize the stability of Europe.

Italian Peninsula: Restructuring was necessary for Italy, which was a patchwork of little republics and puppet administrations inspired by Napoleon. Restoring and growing the Kingdom of Sardinia, reestablishing the Papal States, and bringing the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies back under Bourbon control were all part of the plan to create a balance of power within the peninsula.

Polish-Saxon Question: The complicated problem of Poland and Saxony was caused by Russia's desire to create a Kingdom of Poland under its authority and Prussia's desire to conquer Saxony. The solution was to strike a middle ground between these two goals while preserving the general equilibrium of Europe.

Security and Collective Defense

Institutionalizing collaboration: The major nations' continued collaboration was made possible by the founding of the Concert of Europe. The intention was to avert war by addressing and resolving disputes via discussion and negotiation in periodical congresses and consultations.

Quadruple Alliance: To ensure the implementation of peace agreements, the United Kingdom, Austria, Prussia, and Russia reformed the Quadruple Alliance.

The major powers agreed through this alliance to defend one another and take joint action against any challenges to the new system.

Holy Alliance: Tsar Alexander I of Russia put forward the notion for the more idealistic Holy Alliance, which sought to ground world relations in Christian values. It represented the larger objective of providing moral and theological underpinnings for the new European order, even if not all countries took it seriously.

Revolutionary Movements Suppressed

Metternich's Anti-Revolutionary Policies: A Conservative Response Nationalist and revolutionary movements were seen as existential dangers to the monarchical system by Metternich and other conservative elites. Their goal was to restore conventional authority and undo the problems that these movements had brought about.

Repressive Actions: Press censorship, monitoring of political dissidents, and the outlawing of secret organizations were all seen as important steps for stifling revolutionary ideals. The intention was to stop nationalist and liberal ideas from spreading and destabilizing the area.

Economic and Trade Stability

Reopening Trade Routes: The Congress sought to reopen trade routes that had been disrupted during the Napoleonic Wars to facilitate the movement of goods and services and to restore the pre-war economic order.

Normalization of Economic Relations: Measures were taken to normalize economic relations between states to settle war debts, return confiscated properties, and establish trade agreements that would aid in the recovery of the economy.

Free Navigation: Ensuring the free navigation of international rivers, such as the Rhine and the Danube, was essential for trade and commerce. Arrangements would be made to keep these waterways open and accessible to all nations.

Colonial Settlements

Dutch Colonies East Indies (Indonesia): An integral section of the Dutch colonial empire, the Dutch East Indies included present-day Indonesia. A portion of these areas had been briefly conquered by the British during the Napoleonic

Wars. The Congress had to determine whether to make changes to the Dutch colonial government and how much influence they would get back over these regions.

Dutch Caribbean Islands: Suriname and the Dutch Antilles are two of the Dutch possessions in the Caribbean. It was necessary to clarify at the Congress the status of these colonies, which had been ruled by many European nations during the conflicts. Sovereignty and territorial boundary concerns were among them.

French Caribbean Islands: Saint Lucia, Tobago, and Guadeloupe are just a few of the islands that France lost and then reclaimed during the Napoleonic Wars. Which islands would be restored to France and under what circumstances had to be decided by the Congress. Important factors to consider were these areas' stability and administration.

France had established commercial stations in India, namely in the cities of Pondicherry and Chandernagore. The Congress talked about the ramifications for trade and diplomacy in the area as well as the return of these installations to French authority.

South America: During the Napoleonic Wars, independence movements significantly undermined Spain's colonial power there. The Congress had to decide how much Spanish sovereignty remained over residual lands, such as Peru and Bolivia, and deal with the recognition of recently independent governments like Argentina, Chile, and Colombia.

Spanish Caribbean and Pacific Islands: Spain also possessed colonies in the Pacific, such as the Philippines, and the Caribbean, such as Cuba and Puerto Rico. The Congress was scheduled to address the condition of these colonies, including matters of commerce and government.

Brazil: The Portuguese royal family's presence and demands for independence were causing major changes in Brazil, Portugal's most important colony. The Congress had to take into account both the possibility of Brazilian independence being recognized and the stability of Portuguese control in Brazil.

Portuguese Africa: Angola and Mozambique were two of Portugal's possessions in Africa. The Congress talked about these colonies' economic significance to Portugal as well as their geographical integrity.

African Territories of German Nations: In the late 18th and early 19th centuries, a few smaller German nations, like Bavaria, acquired tiny colonies in Africa. The question of whether these lands should stay under German rule or be given back to other colonial powers was discussed in Congress.

Like this, Italian states with territories in the Caribbean included the Duchy of Parma and the Kingdom of Naples. The Congress debated these colonies' future considering Italy's political and economic stability.

African Territories of Prussia and Austria: Prussia and Austria possessed a restricted number of colonial holdings in Africa, which included a few minor areas that they had obtained by negotiations and treaties with regional leaders. The strategic importance of these regions and their role in advancing Austrian and Prussian interests overseas were examined at the Congress.

Policy Towards Colonization: The Congress also discussed more general colonization-related measures, such as protecting colonial people, regulating trade routes, and encouraging economic growth in colonial areas.

6.3 Later Criticisms and Praises

A Restorative Agenda with Conservatism:

Criticism: The Congress of Vienna's conservative and regressive agenda is one of the main accusations made against it. The Congress sought to maintain the legitimacy of monarchs and bring back the pre-Napoleonic order, which many believed would impede the development of more democratic and equal nations

Impact: Critics claim that the focus on reinstalling the previous regimes overshadowed the growing European ambitions for constitutional government and national self-determination.

Legitimization of Absolutism:

Criticism: The Congress of Vienna has come under fire for supporting absolutism and thwarting democratic changes by restating the legitimacy principle, which affirmed the kings' divine right to govern.

Impact: Critics contend that this strategy led to social instability in the decades that followed as people desired more civil freedoms and political involvement.

Disregard for national goals:

Criticism: The growing national ambitions of different ethnic and linguistic groups in Europe were not given much consideration at the Congress of Vienna. Rather, the major powers' territorial conquests and strategic objectives were frequently taken into consideration while making choices.

Impact: Throughout Europe, this neglect fostered nationalist sentiments and movements that eventually challenged the status quo, resulting in revolutions in 1848 and the fall of empires in the late 19th and early 20th centuries.

Limitations in Addressing Colonial Matters:

Criticism: The Congress handled colonial affairs more haphazardly and incompletely than it did European territorial questions, which it addressed thoroughly. Future confrontations and tensions between colonial powers resulted from the numerous colonial adaptations and disagreements that remained unsolved

Impact: As colonial powers continued to spread and establish their supremacy, this omission fueled persistent imperial rivalries and wars in Africa, Asia, and the Americas

Creation of the European Concert:

Acknowledgment: In order to preserve peace and stability on the continent, the Congress of Vienna established the Concert of Europe, a system of frequent gatherings and diplomatic discussions among the major nations.

Impact: By offering a framework for peaceful dispute resolution and encouraging collaboration among the great powers, the Concert of Europe contributed to the prevention of major conflicts in Europe for over 40 years.

Long-Term Stability:

Acknowledgment: The Congress of Vienna is frequently commended for bringing about long-term stability in Europe following the Napoleonic Wars, notwithstanding critiques of its conservatism.

Impact: The "Long Peace" in Europe was a time of comparatively calm conditions and strong economic growth brought about by the diplomatic accords and territorial changes reached at the Congress.

Redrawing the Boundaries of the Nation:

Acknowledgment: The Congress succeeded in redrawing European national borders, resulting in a more equitable allocation of authority among the principal member nations.

Impact: By resolving some of the most important territorial complaints among European governments, this territorial settlement, despite its imperfections, assisted in lowering tensions and hostilities.

Innovative Diplomacy:

Acknowledgment: The Vienna Congress established new diplomatic conventions and procedures that shaped world affairs for many years.

Impact: Regular international congresses, the acceptance of buffer states and neutrality, and the formulation of fundamentals of international law were some of these improvements. These initiatives helped to make state-to-state diplomacy more consistent and organized.

6.4 Questions to Address within Committee

- **How can the Congress strike a compromise between the people's desire for political change and representation and the restoration of rightful monarchies?
- **By what standards should kings and their claims to the thrones of Europe be judged legitimate?
- **How far should Congress become involved in state internal issues in order to install rightful rulers?
- **How should the Congress meet the desires of diverse ethnic and linguistic groups for national self-determination?
- **What principles should govern the redrawing of national boundaries in Europe to preserve stability and prevent future conflicts?
- **How should minor states and principalities' territorial claims be settled, and what role should they play in the new European order?

- **What tactics should be used to stop French domination or hegemony from returning in Europe?
- **How can the Congress make sure that smaller states and great powers have equal representation and influence?
- **How can trust be created among states, and to what degree should treaties and alliances be utilized to preserve the balance of power?
- **What policies should be put in place to avoid conflicts resulting from colonial rivalry and expansionist ambitions?
- **How should colonial disputes among European powers be resolved?
- **What guidelines should be followed when redistributing colonial possessions?
- **How can the interests of non-European areas be represented, and should these territories be considered in Congress deliberations?
- **What conventions required to control diplomatic ties and talks between the European countries?
- **How can the Congress encourage alliance management and conflict resolution that adheres to international law and treaties?
- **Should the Congress set up arbitration and dispute settlement procedures to stop disagreements from turning into full-fledged wars?
- **What economic measures should Congress take to encourage Europe's post-war recovery and stability?
- **In what ways may economic alliances and trade agreements support the prosperity and collaboration of European nations?
- **If and to what degree should political and territorial choices be influenced by economic factors?
- **What tactics should be used in Europe to quell revolutionary movements and ideologies?
- ** How can the Congress resolve public problems while upholding law and order?
- **Is it appropriate to think about political reforms in order to satisfy the calls for more civil rights and representation?

**What are the Congress's long-term objectives for fostering durable peace, stability, and collaboration among European states?

**In what ways can the choices and agreements reached during the Congress of Vienna establish a standard for international diplomacy and conflict resolution in the future?

7. Aftermath of the Congress

Restoration of Stability

Balance of Power: To keep any one country from controlling the whole continent, the Congress was successful in establishing a balance of power among the main European governments. This equilibrium, referred to as the "Concert of Europe," contributed to the stability of the continent for many years.

Territorial Settlements: The Congress revised Europe's map, resolving territorial conflicts and redrawing borders to correspond with circumstances that existed before to Napoleonic rule. The goal of this territorial settlement was to balance the interests of minor states with those of the great powers.

Suppression of Revolutionary Movements

Conservative Order: To stifle revolutionary movements and preserve monarchical power throughout Europe, the Congress of Vienna proclaimed the values of legitimacy and conservatism. With this strategy, the social and political order that

had been upended by the Napoleonic Wars and the French Revolution was to be restored.

Repression and Reaction: The conservative program of the Congress not only brought stability back, but it also inflamed the resentment of those who wanted liberal reforms and independence for their country, laying the groundwork for subsequent uprisings and revolutions.

Impact on Nationalism and Statehood

National Aspirations: Growing nationalistic emotions among European ethnic and linguistic groupings were not adequately addressed at the Congress of Vienna. Throughout the 19th century, nationalist movements that opposed the status quo and ultimately resulted in the dissolution of multiethnic empires were fueled in part by this neglect.

Rise of Nation-States: The Congress, in its conservative mission, unintentionally contributed to the emergence of nation-states when it acknowledged the independence and sovereignty of some nations, even if these states were still part of a conservative European order.

Global and Colonial Consequences

Colonial Adjustments: While addressing certain colonial concerns, such the redistributing of European territories, the Congress did not settle many colonial conflicts. Throughout the 19th century, this resulted in continuous colonial rivalry and warfare in Africa, Asia, and the Americas.

Global Power Dynamics: The choices taken at the Congress of Vienna also had an impact on the global power dynamics, influencing the expansionist policies and techniques that European powers employed in their trading networks and colonies abroad.

The Diplomatic Innovation Legacy

Diplomatic Framework: The Congress formed the Concert of Europe, a system of periodic gatherings of key nations to talk about and resolve shared concerns, including as disagreements and possible wars. Future international alliances and institutions were founded on the foundation created by this diplomatic system.

Conventions of Diplomacy: Negotiation, compromise, and adherence to international law and treaties were all stressed at the Congress of Vienna, which

established standards for diplomatic behavior. Throughout the 19th century, these standards helped to create a more secure and predictable international order.

8. Problems that Congress of Viena Failed to Prevent

Nationalism and Ethnic Conflicts

Context: The Congress of Vienna, which frequently disregarded the growing sense of nationalism among different ethnic groups, sought to restore pre-Napoleonic borders and legitimate kingdoms. Overriding the notion of national self-determination was the principle of legitimacy.

Poland: The Congress of Vienna founded the Kingdom of Poland (Congress Poland) as a constitutional monarchy ruled by the Russian Empire following the division of Poland by Russia, Prussia, and Austria in the late 18th century. This arrangement greatly infuriated Polish nationalists, who went on to stage uprisings in 1863–64 (the January Uprising) and 1830–31 (the November Uprising).

Italy: The Italian peninsula was split into several nations, such as the Kingdom of Sardinia, the Papal nations, the Kingdom of Lombardy-Venetia, which was ruled by Austria, and the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies. Inspired by the Risorgimento movement, Italian nationalists aimed to win independence from foreign rule, especially Austrian influence, and to unite Italy.

Germany: Under Austrian direction, 39 German-speaking states formed the loose confederation known as the German Confederation. German nationalists, who wanted to see a single German nation-state, were not satisfied with this arrangement. The struggle for supremacy inside the Confederation between Prussia and Austria ultimately resulted in the Austro-Prussian War of 1866 and the unification of Germany under Prussian rule in 1871.

Long-Term Repercussions

1848 Revolutions: Across Europe, there were several nationalist and liberal upheavals, with notable movements taking place in Hungary, Italy, and the German nations. Even though they were first put down, these uprisings showed how popular a desire for political change and independence was.

Unifications: The political landscape of Europe was significantly changed when Germany and Italy united in 1871 and 1871, respectively. These unifications challenged the balance of power established by the Congress of Vienna and frequently included wars and major political upheaval.

Suppression of Liberal and Democratic Movements

Background: During the French Revolution and Napoleonic era, liberal and democratic ideals gained traction. The Congress of Vienna aimed to repress these ideas and reinstate the old monarchical system.

Particular Illustrations:

France: Louis XVIII reinstated the Bourbon monarchy, but with severe limitations on political liberties and an attempt to undo the revolutionary changes. Limited constitutional rights were guaranteed by the Charter of 1814, but many of the liberal achievements made during the revolution were reversed.

Germany and Austria: The Carlsbad Decrees of 1819, which enforced severe censorship, disbanded student groups, and restricted academic freedom, were among the conservative measures used by Austrian Foreign Minister Metternich to suppress liberal and nationalist ideals.

Spain: The Congress brought Ferdinand VII back to total power. He then repealed the liberal 1812 Constitution and started to persecute liberals.

Long-Term Repercussions

Periodic upheavals: The suppression of democratic and liberal movements drove them underground rather than out of existence, which resulted in recurring upheavals and calls for constitutional changes. These included the July Revolution in France in 1830 as well as many revolutions in Italy and the German nations.

1848 Revolutions: During these upheavals, there was a broad call for national independence, civic rights, and representative governance. Even though many of these uprisings were put down at first, they made clear how people were becoming more and more dissatisfied with the conservative system and wanting political change.

Colonial and Overseas Issues

Background: Many colonial problems remained unsolved at the Congress of Vienna, which was largely focused on European territorial and political issues. The Napoleonic Wars saw the allocation of European territories, but larger-scale imperial rivalry was not methodically controlled.

Particular Illustrations:

Dutch and British Colonies: The Congress made it possible for some colonies, including those that the British had taken during the Napoleonic Wars, to be returned to their original owners. Nevertheless, there was no discussion of how to control colonial rivalry in the long run.

Spanish Colonies: The Congress did not specifically address the waning of Spanish authority or the emergence of independence movements in Latin America. As a result, there were ongoing wars until the 1820s, when several Latin American governments gained their independence.

Long-Term Repercussions

Race Towards Africa: Due to the forceful colonization of Africa by European countries in the late 19th century, there were many disputes and rivalries. The Berlin Conference in 1884–1885 tried to control European commerce and colonialism in Africa, but tensions persisted due to colonial rivalry.

Colonial Wars: Numerous battles, including the Boer Wars in South Africa, the Opium Wars in China, and the struggle for dominance in Asia and the Pacific, were fueled by ongoing colonial rivalries.

Economic Disparities and Social Unrest

Background: The social and economic injustices that fueled upheaval throughout Europe were not sufficiently addressed by the Congress of Vienna. The expenses of the Napoleonic Wars made a great deal of regions' economic difficulties worse.

Particular Illustrations:

Agricultural inefficiencies: The agricultural economy in many parts of Europe, especially in the South and East, failed to recover, which resulted in widespread poverty among the peasantries. Because of high taxes and antiquated farming methods, the agrarian sector stagnated in many regions.

Industrialization: Although industrialization started to change Western European economies, especially in Britain, the working classes were unhappy since the advantages were not shared equally. A new urban working class was produced by industrialization, and they frequently had subpar working conditions, low pay, and little rights.

Long-Term Repercussions

Social Unrest: From labor strikes to peasant uprisings, economic hardships and social injustices were the driving forces behind a variety of unrest movements. Over time, because of this discontent that questioned the status quo, social and economic reforms were gradually implemented.

1848 Revolutions: The 1848 uprisings were mostly fueled by economic dissatisfaction, which included calls for social fairness, fairer economic practices, and improved living circumstances. The necessity for social and economic changes to meet the complaints of the lower classes was brought to light by these revolutions.

Inter-State Rivalries

Context: Although the Congress of Vienna sought to achieve a balance of power among the major powers, the underlying rivalries and aspirations that gave rise to wars remained unresolved.

Particular Illustrations:

Austria and Prussia: Unresolved tensions between Austria and Prussia for supremacy within the German Confederation resulted in the Austro-Prussian War of 1866. Austria was excluded from German politics as a result of Prussia's victory in this war, which also paved the way for Prussia to lead Germany toward unity.

France and Britain: Their long-standing competition persisted, especially in the domains of colonialism and naval might. This rivalry lasted into the 20th century and into the 19th, impacting a number of conflicts and diplomatic issues.

Long-Term Repercussions

Wars of Unification: Two major confrontations stemming from unresolved rivalry were the Austro-Prussian War (1866) and the Franco-Prussian War (1870–71). The German Empire was established and Germany was unified as a result of the Franco-Prussian War, which profoundly changed the balance of power in Europe.

World War I: The intricate web of alliances and hostilities that ultimately resulted in World War I was influenced by the unresolved rivalries and alliances forged in the wake of the Congress of Vienna. The 1914 assassination of Austria's Archduke Franz Ferdinand started a series of events that implicated several of the continent's major countries and resulted in a terrible world war.

9. Further Reading

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