HamMUN 2018

JOINT CABINET CRISIS
EUROPE 1864

Hamburg Model United Nations

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WELCOME LETTER

Dear Delegates,

Hello and welcome! On behalf of the entire crisis team we would like to welcome you to the HamMUN 2018 Crisis experience. We are pleased to announce the topic for this year's conference will be 'The German Unification' and hope you enjoy participating in such a pivotal period of history as much as the team did while preparing diligently and working hard to ensure this crisis would be a success.

This welcome is extended to crisis 'veterans' just as it is to fresh faces. For experienced crisis delegates, we hope the intricacies of not just military, but balance of power between European nations and the rise of romantic nationalism in the mid-19th century will give you a different crisis experience, where you are forced to think the possible repercussions of maneuvers be it diplomatic, military, or political.

As for first-timers to Crisis, we are preparing a great experience for you to enjoy, and hope this will be an amazing experiment that you can take with you in your (hopefully) future crisis to come, as a gateway to many other Crisis and its intricate world-building, especially if you are also interested in joining a crisis staff some time soon! As we shall reiterate the fact again throughout the study guide and during the conference, you will see why the surprise elements, intrigues and intensity of all these makes Crisis the best committee inside the MUN world. (It's a fact).

We all sincerely wish and believe you will have an enjoyable time with us if it is your first time or your ninety ninth time.

The team has been selected based on their abilities and, like you all come from a diverse spectrum of experience and background. The staff you will meet at Hamburg 2018 are all more than happy to answer any questions or queries which you may have, before or during the conference, because we are here to facilitate a good crisis experience to remember.

You will meet the staff in good time but until then from all of us, welcome to HamMUN 2018 Joint Cabinet Crisis!

Best regards,
Matej Lovrenovic and Arkan Diptyo
Your HamMUN 2018 JCC Crisis Directors

INTRODUCTION TO CRISIS

Dear delegates,

Welcome to crisis. Crisis is knowns as a dynamic, intense and complex committee, but it is also the most fun and competitive one because of those things. This is section is geared both towards delegates who have not done crisis before and those who did to set up common rules of the game.

Firstly, what is crisis? Crisis is a committee type where we simulate real world events and issues, and attempt to solve them in real time. Hence, everything you do in crisis counts and alters the reality of the committee. This is the main distinction from regular MUN committees and adds a great deal of complexity. Whether you implement new policies, start businesses, declare war, or assassinate other delegates, what you do changes the current state of the committee. For purposes of this crisis, we will use the software called Deus to keep track of all these things easier (more on this later).

The type of crisis we are simulating here is called a Joint Cabinet Crisis. We have multiple cabinets, in this case - Prussia, Austria, and France - which form the crisis committee. You, the delegates, represent historical figures within these cabinets. Each one of you has certain character goals, ambitions, beliefs, and affinities. It is your mission to try and balance both your personal and cabinet interests. This means that someone who is in your cabinet can potentially be your enemy as well as an ally. In the same manner, just because someone is in a different cabinet does not mean that they are necessarily your enemy, you might have the same interest in some area. Expect to forge dynamic alliances which are easily broken and always shifting. However, you must balance your personal goals versus your cabinet goals as your personal fortune will still depend on how your cabinet is doing relative to the others. It is also important to note you might be doing things which are good for your cabinet and for yourself, but they do not align with your character traits. You will in general be allowed to do them but do keep in mind it will probably put you in an unfavourable position to win an award. To keep it simple, the general rule of thumb is don't do anything that your character in history wouldn't do.

For example, you might be a Hungarian noble in the Austrian cabinet that desires greater degree of autonomy from the crown. Naturally, you might want to weaken the crown and might find some allies in other cabinets to do so. However, if you weaken the crown too much you might just have to bow to a new emperor and you are back to square one. At the same time, if you unconditionally throw all your support behind the crown without working towards your personal goal you will get the benefit of ensuring you are on the winning side, but you will lose out on award points for going against your character. Keep these things in mind.

How do you do all those things? It's very simple. You debate within your cabinet and you write directives. Let's have a look at crisis principles and concepts one by one.

THE BACKROOM

This is where decisions take place. You generally do not have direct contact with the backroom. Here, the crisis directors, along with their team, decide whether directives are approved or not and keep track of everything that is happening within the crisis. In this regard, they are the ultimate arbiters of truth. Once the backroom confirms some piece of information, that information is the truth concerning the crisis. Some other things the backroom does are publish news, create events to push the simulation forward, play external characters not represented in the committee (e.g. ambassador of Russia), arrange cross-cabinet communication and meetings, and provide you information if you ask for it.

THE FRONTROOM

This is where your simulation experience takes place. You will have one chair who moderates the debate just like in any other MUN committees. However, in a crisis, the chair will also be playing a historical character like the other delegates. Unlike other MUN committees, there are no set chronologic rules of procedure to follow. By default, you will spend most of your time in unmoderated caucus talking to each other to come up with solutions to problems ahead of you. Thus, our advice for beginners is to approach it like a focus group discussion. In order to communicate with members from other cabinets you must send a directive with a message and/or a meeting request with that person to the backroom.

THE CHAIR

The chair takes a back seat in the crisis compared to regular MUN. They are a character just like you with their own agenda and everything that can happen to you can happen to them. Most of the time they will be your country/government's figurehead or head of state. Their job is to ensure that all delegates feel comfortable, know what they are doing, and that no one is left behind (subject to character constraints). They are also there to provide guidance in achieving cabinet wide goals, approve cabinet directives, communicate with the backroom, and make sure everything runs smoothly. Since they are the only part of the crisis team who would constantly be part of the frontroom, you can come to them for guidance regarding directives and checking out on backroom progress. They will not moderate the debate in formal setting unless certain circumstances arise and, asis often the case, at one point one or a few dominant delegates will effectively start leading the cabinet instead of the chair.

DEUS

Deus is the software we will be using for running the crisis. You will receive your log in details prior to the committee and we will run a crash course prior to starting the committee. Your chair will also be there to answer any questions you might have later.

ANNOUNCEMENTS

This feature is where the backroom will announce news. Some news happen intrinsically as time passes, some because a certain delegate did something newsworthy or an important event happened; sometimes the backroom will use news flash feature inside Deus to put forth a problem that needs to be solved and occasionally memes will be posted (usually connected to one of the previous three things). Some announcement might also be of a more urgent and drastic nature that the backroom might come to the cabinets, and either act out theatrically or explain what had happened. In any case this is your primary source of information on the crisis. Everything you need to know that is not in the study guide will appear here.

DIRECTIVES

Directives are your tool for affecting the crisis. Whether you want to contact a person in another cabinet, make troop movements, establish spy networks, set up bodyguards, do press releases or assassinate other people, you have to do it through directives. No deal or action is "true" concerning the simulation unless it has come through a directive.

To write a directive simply open the directive tab in Deus and type in what you want to do. Here is some guidance on how to approach it.

1. Be concise and to the point, but still detailed enough to not leave room for misinterpretation

E.g. Do not write "I want to kill person B". Instead, use what you know of them and write a plan. How do you find them? Who kills them? What is the weapon? What is the contingency plan? Try to fill in as many holes as you can without writing essays, which brings us to our next point

2. Do things step by step. You cannot create the best spy service, most profitable business, or a successful assassination through one directive.

To continue with the assassination example. First you might want to hire a spy. Then you might want to send that spy to spy on the person you plan to assassinate. Once you get certain information, exploit it to create a successful plan and cover your tracks. Just remember, the backroom will never do something that is not written in your directives, but if there is room for interpretation it can get exploited.

3. Do not include multiple issues in one directive. If you have to juggle your private business, an assassination, and troop movements at the same time, use separate directives for each. In this way it is easier for the backroom to process it and get back to you sooner as well as being easier to track both for you and for the backroom.

4. It's good to refer to your previous directives briefly in the opening sentence because crisis can get hectic and the backroom can lose valuable time in trying to see what you are talking about. If you have troops in region A and want to move them to region B, it's better to spell it out and possibly remind the backroom if you had something special about them (maybe you equipped them with certain piece of weaponry) instead of just writing "move my troops north". Move my troops equipped with weapon X from region A to region B goes a long way in reducing response time.

5.   Provide clear instructions. The most basic example is that if you want to write a press release you do not write "I want to publish a press release denouncing person X" but rather type it up and send it to the backroom with "publish as press release". As the crisis goes on, anything you leave to interpretation can be used against you (mostly to a humorous and horrible outcome for you in equal measure. We're sure some experienced delegates will have stories about this). Which also goes to the next point

6.   Whenever numbers are involved, use exact numbers, not percentages. This applies whether it be personal business (e.g. using up your personal wealth for a plot) or committee/joint directives with other delegates (e.g. moving troops). By providing exact numbers it will also give the backroom a faster time to response, especially when we move to the latter stages of the crisis where a lot of plans and movements might get convoluted.

Other than that, the only other thing you need to note is different types of directives. Sometimes you send joint directives with few other delegates and then you need to make sure all of you are among the senders so that we can verify that everyone is ok with the decision. There are also cabinet directives, very often battle plans, which need to be approved by the chair and which use all of the cabinet's resources. You will get to know these as crisis goes on.

Last but not the least, never (and we really mean NEVER) try to pose, or write directives as another person by sending directives from their account or intentionally misleading the backroom. This will not get you anywhere and is always quickly discovered. And just like any other directive you send, this too shall have its consequences.

FINAL REMARKS
Awards will be given on the basis of both frontroom and backroom performance. If you just type away on your laptop without participating in the debate, or are a great discussion leader with a poor directive record, you will probably not get the award. You must strive to do both.

Also, crisis is intense, especially when it comes to amount of information. Give the backroom time to respond to you as they are trying to monitor and prioritize which tasks should go first now. Sometimes we will block directives or institute a timer to be able to deal with the backlog. We will always work with the advancement of the crisis story and the fun it goes with as a priority. Thus said, while waiting for your directive to be responded, you can be sure the next big announcement to come up will change the direction of the crisis and provide a new surprise element – which is what crisis consist of; constant surprises.

Finally, have fun! We hope you will enjoy crisis as much as we do and then spread the gospel of the best type of MUN committee there is (this is not an opinion, it's a fact).

TIMELINE

1789: French Revolution.

1792: Proclamation of the First French Republic.

1802: French Revolutionary Wars, concluding in the Treaty of Amiens between the UK and France

1804: Napoleon declares the First French Empire.

1804-1814: Series of Napoleonic ''coalition wars'' culminating in the exile of Napoleon and restoration of the Bourbon Kings in France

1815: Napoleon I, restored Emperor of the French and King of Italy, escapes the island of Elba and wages war against the Sixth Coalition, otherwise known as the Hundred Days War He is defeated and surrenders, ending 25 years of war including the Revolutionary Wars). Congress of Vienna convenes by conservative leaders and chaired by Austrian Klemens von Metternich, drawing borders for Europe. Napoleon attempts to take power once again before being defeated at the Battle of Waterloo prior facing his final exile. Birth of Otto von Bismarck.

1817: Liberal students protest in the Wartburg Festival.

1818: Birth of Karl Marx. Constitutional and legislative reforms spread through German duchies.

1819: German confederation delegates confirm the Carlsbad Decrees.

1827: Death of Beethoven.

1828: Death of Schubert.

1830: Belgian Revolution against United Netherlands, gaining independence and recognition from European powers. Second French Revolution overthrows King Charles X, succeeded by Louis Philippe d'Orleans after being forcibly abdicated, commencing the July Monarchy. Charles II, Duke of Brunswick, is pushed out of his territory by local revolution.

1831: Death of Hegel, whose legacy greatly influences the Young Hegelians such as Karl Marx and Max Stirner.

1839: Treaty of London decides borders between a neutral Belgium and the Netherlands.

1844: Birth of Nietzsche.

1848: Louis Philippe I is forced to abdicate through the 1848 French Revolution as the final Bourbon monarch of France and Louis-Napoleon becomes the only President of the French Second Republic, however is barred for embarking on his second term in office by federal constitution. Revolutions sweep Europe, against Bourbon rule in Italy, the failed March

Revolution against the upper-class in German states, the national liberal movement of Denmark pushing for a constitutional monarchy, Hungarian and Galician revolutionary movements against the Habsburg Empire based in Vienna, March Unrest in Sweden, internal conflict of Swiss cantons which created the Federal system, Polish uprising against the Prussians, Romanian uprisings against the Imperial Russians and the counterinsurgency of the United Kingdom against the Young Irelander Rebellion during the Great Famine.

1848: 1852: First Schleswig war

1849: German revolutions escalate and Frankfurt parliament for the elected representatives of the German Confederation moved to Stuttgart.

1852: Louis-Napoleon reestablishes the monarchy and himself as Emperor Napoleon III of the Second French Empire and leader of the House of Bonaparte. First Schleswig War, fought between the German confederation and the Kingdom of Denmark over Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, Danish victory securing the independence of Schleswig in European negotiations in London.

1854- 1856: Crimean War end in Russian defeat

1860: Anglo-French free trade agreement is negotiated and finalised between Richard Cobden MP and Michel Chevalier, otherwise known as the Cobden-Chevalier Treaty. Increases in exports of goods from both countries.

1861: Victor Emmanuel II, King of Sardinia and Duke of Savoy, becomes King of a unified Italy following the Second Italian War of Independence.

1862: Bismarck is appointed Minister-President and Minister of Foreign Affairs under Kaiser Wilhelm I, Albrecht von Roon as Prime Minister and Helmuth von Moltke as General.

1864: Second Schleswig War; German Confederation victory

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND AND CONTEMPORARY IDEOLOGY

In May 1848, a peculiar arrangement of university professors, doctors, politicians and lawyers gathered in the city of Frankfurt, seizing on the momentum of European wide civil disorder, liberal and nationalist uprisings culminating in the collapse of many governments, in order to hammer out a liberal, federal, democratic constitution for a unified Germany. This cry of *Deutschland über alles*, which in its original sense meant that loyalty to Germany must come first over the many individual regional states of the region, failed for a number of reasons.

Firstly, this conference, contrary to the 1789 French National Assembly which partially inspired it, lacked a national army and state reinforcing it. Thus, when more radical elements attempted to hijack it through force, the only thing it could do to ensure a peaceful and consensus based outcome was to invite the Prussian army to restore order, virtually placing it under its de-facto control.
Secondly, the assembly was not precisely revolutionary. It officially decried nationalist uprisings in Poland and Hungary, and in the process alienated much of its potential young and

liberal base. The end result was that when it finally hammered out a constitution the next year and offered a German crown to Frederick William IV, it lacked both popular and military backing, and the latter quickly decried it as a ''crown from the gutter''.

The example of Frankfurt provides a mirror for the majority of failed Romanticist revolutions throughout the continent. The springtime of nations, as the revolutions of 1848 were supposed to be, had turned into a frozen winter and with it the utopian belief in democratic, pacifist and liberal progress with free national states had evaporated. The disenchantment of many progressives following the failures of the 1848 revolutions produced different collective normative beliefs.

The first was ideological: *positivism*, an illiberal nationalism largely embodied in the philosophical principles of Hegel and Auguste Comte; European should respect a strong state and military power, and the nation state walked a special deterministic historical path which was superior to all the other nations. Only in Denmark, Holland, Belgium, Switzerland and Piedmont did real constitutional liberal reforms take root; all of them small and relatively powerless nationstates. In the larger states (mainly France, Prussia and Austria), liberalisation took place but only as a controlled tool for power legitimation by the established powers, not our of popular dissent. Peasants were emancipated in Germany and Austria, which lubricated economic mobility and the growth of industry, but the very freedom these conservative and educated peasant communities received strengthened the popular call for reactionism and illiberalism. In France, Napoleon III relied upon the rural conservative population and the catholic church (as a tool for social stability, not genuine religious appreciation) for his regime. He instituted universal male suffrage in 1848 which, if anything, increased his support. Many of these interest-based reforms by the state came out of a fear of another emerging destabilising force: The Socialists. Karl Marx wrote the communist manifesto in 1848, and while still relatively few in numbers, the growing industrial communities in Western Europe were paving the way for real proletarian dissent. A socialist uprising in Paris in 1848 and a Chartist revolt in London in the same year convinced elites of the need to alienate socialists on the one hand, push through moderate social reforms on the other to appease their growing influence, and use the fear of socialists as a power tools to unite opposing groups against them. Positivism also entailed a belief in materialism and science. The state facilitated huge investments in industry and education reform and the first military-industrial conglomerates started to emerge (Armstrong, Krupp, etc.) In other words: the state experienced reforms as a way to legitimise its power, rather than as the result of a bottom up demand for liberty.

The second was *Realpolitik,* the idea that order and a honest hard working government should be the basis of a well functioning society, not a utopian balance between popular legitimacy and rule. Domestically, this entailed state building and the seep-through of government into all layers of society. Internationally, it provided for a foreign policy based on sober strategic interests and shifting alliances, rather than the ideological belief in ''natural'' friends and enemies. The congress system established in Vienna after 1815, which provided for the suppression of internal dissent against the established regimes and the prevention of international wars through alliances (such as the holy alliance between Russia and Austria), was shattered. Russia, the most powerful proponent of that system, was furthermore weakened after its defeat in the Crimean war and could thus not intervene. A number of nationalist wars took place, including the Italian unification struggle from 1859 and the second Schleswig war of 1864.

In the present day, the United States is on the brink of re-establishing central national authority in the civil war over a secessionist South, Japan is emerging as the first strong nation state in the East, and Moldova and Wallachia united into Romania in 1858. While before 1848, only

France and the UK were nation states of any importance, this model is rapidly being copied everywhere as the concept of aristocratic and congress-based diplomacy is eroding. In other words, the concept of balance of power is still relevant, but is now less of an end in itself than a consideration for countries to start wars of national liberation. (Sardinia made every effort to provoke an Austrian attack rather than initiating a war, over fear of retaliation by the guardians of the balance of power). Foreign policy is being carried out over cold, hardly calculated national interest and opposing numbers, fueled by the aforementioned belief in *positivism* with a strong state and scientific progress.

These trends of a belief in national progress and uniqueness, and assertive diplomacy for national liberation between Great Power competitors, have culminated in a contemporary struggle between Prussia and Austria over German hegemony. The German lands have, ever since the early medieval period, constituted what is in many ways a microcosmos of the wider world of political anarchy. This confederal arrangement of internally competing but theoretically externally united entities was first embodied in the Holy Roman Empire. It was dissolved by Napoleon in 1806 and succeeded by the German Confederation, who's de-facto leaders are Prussia and Austria. In many ways then, that Confederation seems like a continuation of a millenia old political structure. The difference is the balance of powers and the underlying logic of such an entity. The North German confederation is dominated by Prussia and Austria militarily, economically and politically due to a combination of population size, industry concentration, military superiority and their historical roles as the leading Protestant and Catholic German states. There is an ongoing discussion between a *''Großdeutsche''* or *''Kleindeutsche Lösung''* (a German Union of all ethnic Germans under Austrian dominion, or a smaller German Nation under Prussian government). The recent war against Denmark by the German Confederation over the question if Schleswig Holstein should remain in the Confederation or not was much more than a struggle for German integrity against Denmark: it was an implicit struggle for influence between Austria and Prussia over who should be its leader. Now that Denmark has been defeated and Prussia and Austria control separate occupation zones in Holstein, what happens next will shape the future leadership of Germany. Additionally, many Germans believe that the surging power of a Russia recovering from the Crimean war, and a newly ambitious France eager to reclaim its Napoleonic prestige, pose a threat to the security of Germany, traditionally a battleground for foreign actors and without strong natural borders. Those two states might attempt to prevent German unification or, at the very least, shape its outcome. The resolution of the German question is required to pose a united front against these surging enemies, for which there can be only a single leader.

To conclude, the period is unique in that an ongoing process of German unification, long debated about in intellectual circles, attempted in a liberal format in 1848 and since the Schleswig war of 1863 through *Blut und Eisen*, is becoming a reality and requires two critical obstacles to be overcome: the accession of the Southern German states still on the fence through victory over Austria in a great war, and through the elimination of the political-military opposition to German unification of the traditional European great power: France.

POLITICAL AND DIPLOMATIC BACKGROUND

The political and diplomatic situation will be discussed together in this chapter for they often go hand in hand during this time.The political situation in Europe in 1865 is complex. Many of the changes have their roots in the French Revolution and the revolutionary year of 1848. Governments are witnessing the change in social order that industrialisation brought about. A growing amount of poor factory labourers and, especially, middle class intellectuals and workers led to social unrest as they demanded better living conditions. In France during the French Revolution this latter class managed to obtain in various degrees more liberties and a better standard of living. A Corsican artillery officer that we now know as Napoleon I then exported these revolutionary principles to the rest of Europe. After his defeat at Waterloo the period known as 'The Restoration' happened. The old monarchies were reestablished and the 'Ancien Regime' reestablished. The prominence of the old aristocracy was cemented and conservative politics were the norm again. Conservatism or reactionary is a belief that builds upon the idea of *status quo ante.* For this period that would mean to go back to a society before the changes made by the French Revolution. Reactionaries were mostly the ruling classes or middle classes that pushed back against revolutionary fervour.

Reactionism went hand in hand with the new diplomatic system championed by Klemens von Metternich, an Austrian Foreign minister from 1809 to 1848. This system, known as the Congress system, established close cooperation between the European powers to aid each other in combating revolutionary fervour in their states. The Congress system is basically a form of dispute resolution to prevent wars that could threaten the balance of power. Grand alliances became the standard for European diplomacy. These alliances, however, continued to change to satisfy the balance of power. The historical notion of friend and foes was disbanded, an example for this being Prussia and Austria allying each other against Denmark in the Second Schleswig War.

In 1848 revolutionary sentiments swept over Europe. Outcries by the people for a government based on enlightenment principles led to revolutions in many countries and reforms in others. As mentioned in the historical background some states gained a constitution. Socialists, influenced by Hegel and Marx protested for better working conditions and intellectuals for a more enlightened way of running a country. In Germany the Frankfurt Assembly was swiftly knocked down because there was no unity among the protestors. A reason for this is that the German monarchs believed in having kingly rule that sought after expanding public wealth and welfare.

After the failed German revolution, the 'decade of reaction' happened. In this decade most of the social progress that was made was revoked, and a strong conservative state was created, the state it is still in at the end of the Second Schleswig War.

France has seen a lot of change since the French Revolution. The July Revolution in 1830 led to the expulsion of the Bourbon monarchs and established a king of the Orleans dynasty. This lasted just short of 20 years because in 1848 this dynasty got dethroned and a new republic was proclaimed. The French elected Charles-Louis Napoleon Bonaparte as their president. He was able to get elected because he managed to rally a lot of support from the agrarian communities. Because he could not run for a second term, he organized a coup d'etat and proclaimed the Second French Empire. Press censorship was widely enacted and monarchist and republican sentiments were suppressed. The political struggle in France was mostly between a agrarian backed emperor and the social elites with republican and liberal values. Napoleon III expanded France's colonies and invested in agriculture and infrastructure,

modernizing France. Diplomatically France had strong trading relations across the world. The recent Cobden-Chevalier treaty increased free trade between France and Great-Britain. France was getting weary of German nationalism, for a strong Germany would be a threat to France.

The Germany society with its many nation-states did not yet have the level of industrialisation with a large proletariat like the societies of France and Great-Britain. This explains largely why large scale demands for reforms arose later in Germany.

Great-Britain in this period of time was building its empire. The before mentioned Cobden-Chevalier treaty led to cordial relation between France and Great-Britain. Great-Britain was a country that maintained the balance of power philosophy but was not eager to contribute to continental military affairs.

The Crimean war was an important event, especially for Russia. Their defeat led to a more inward view in the Russian state and they needed a long time to recover from the damage to both the legitimacy of the government and the reforms they passed. They had also made a deal with Prussia where they both agreed not to interfere in each other's business.

Italy was a new nation, formed after a long process of unification. Italy is an ally of France. Italy has ambitions to reclaim Veneto, a province held by the Austrian Empire. Napoleon III does however have troops stationed in Rome, held by the Papal States. The Italians see Rome as a vital part of Italy.

TECHNOLOGY

The Industrial Revolution has irrevocably changed European societies on multiple levels. Factory work is increasingly becoming the dominant mode of production via output in Western Europe, although artisans still exist as a majority of the population overall throughout the continent. The regional hotspots of development have emerged over deposits of coal and iron, seeking to extract the untapped wealth below. This has, in turn, resulted in the creation and rapid proliferation of numerous inventions and technologies, many of them unheard of in the century earlier. Much of the initial demand for Iron and later Steel following the end of the Napoleonic wars was from railway companies, which have utilised the development of smaller and lighter steam engines to literally stick them on top of carts which are propelled on the top of miles of wrought Iron rails. The locomotive, as this is known, has revolutionised land travel, bringing the cost of land travel closer and closer to that of travel by ship, while also speeding up the process of going from point A to point B massively.

This, in turn, has changed the patterns of trade. Areas which have previously been isolated by virtue of their landlocked nature are now able to use railways to turn themselves into nexuses of trade from the surrounding regions. This in turn far more easily connects these regions to the booming business developing in the Atlantic Ocean between the Old and New Worlds. Communication has also improved in other ways. The invention of semaphore lines in 1792 in France has paved the way to further and more comprehensive innovations in the emergent field of Telegraphy. A particularly important improvement came in 1816, with the development of the electrical telegraph. This in particular has been possible due to the gradual growth in sophistication of electrical engineering and a growing network of factories providing the power needed for this. Symbolising this in 1860 a small but very pivotal invention was created, that of the microphone. Though innocuous in of itself, it has numerous applications in the growing public sphere.

MILITARY

One area that much of this has huge promise in terms of application is warfare. A very clear beneficiary of innovation in this area is the navy. The growth of steam power has made it clear that sail ships have a distinct disadvantage over steamships in terms of the vulnerability of masts and autonomy from the winds. The ongoing experiences of the American Civil war have confirmed the suspicions of the French and British navies that wooden hulled ships have no chance of standing up in a fair fight against Steel or Iron hulled ships. Land warfare meanwhile has developed both independently and alongside technology. Revolutionary France's 'Levee en Masse' has become a feature of all the militaries of Europe bar the UK. One thing that has changed since then is the growing ubiquity of rifles rather than muskets, which have a far longer range and better accuracy. Artillery have been growing in importance as a segment of armies, aided by the development of far more accurate rifling, more high explosive shells and quicker reloading systems. Strategy has also been moving on from Napoleonic doctrine, a fact becoming increasingly necessary following the continuing carnage of the American Civil war. The telegraph and the railways are allowing for far more effective execution of grand strategy plans than ever before.

PRUSSIA

HISTORY

The lands of Old Prussia (Pomerelia) were conquered by the German Catholic crusaders from the military Order of the Teutonic Knights in the 13th century, part of the Holy Roman Empire. Over time, the region was Germanized by migrants from the west, and Polonized by settlers from Masovia. In 1466, the territories ruled by the House of Hohenzollern were split into Royal Prussia and the Duchy of Prussia, losing a significant chunk of western Prussia to Poland.

After the devastation of the Thirty Years' War, the Duchy of Prussia united with Brandenburg over the first half of the 17th century, recovering the small portion of Polish territory in between. It was declared the Kingdom of Prussia in 1700 by Frederick I. His son, Frederick Wilhelm I, transformed the electorate and established a bureaucracy with permanent taxation. He also opened immigration to protestant refugees, and instituted compulsory education. Most importantly, he elevated Prussia's military to a preeminent standard. Following in his footsteps, his son, Frederick II "the Great", upgraded the military further and conquered large swaths of Austria (Silesia), thereby kick-starting the War of Austrian Succession. After humiliating losses, Austria allied with France, Sweden, and Russia, leaving Prussia to ally with Great Britain, spiralling the Silesian conflict into the Seven Years' War. In the aftermath, Frederick II succeeded in establishing Prussia as a great power in Europe and one of the most powerful vassal states in the Holy Roman Empire.

Prussia became a French satellite state after a crushing defeat by Napoleon Bonaparte's troops (1806-1807), which forced the dissolution of the Holy Roman Empire and established the Confederation of the Rhine (consisting of all the other German states except for Prussia and Austria). As sentiments of nationalism emerged, Germans-speaking peoples united by the confederation began to feel a sense of unity. After Napoleon was defeated by Russia, Prussia broke off its alliance with France and instead aligned with the Sixth Coalition against France's occupying forces. The Congress of Vienna, which for the first time recognized Prussia as a great power, convened to restructure Europe in order to secure 'stability' and temper liberal revolutionary movements with conservative and reactionary regimes.

Following Napoleon's decisive defeat at Waterloo in 1815, which marked the end of the Napoleonic Wars, Prussia acquired vast new territory, including Swedish Pomerania, 60% of Saxony, and the coal-rich Ruhr region. This led to rapid industrialization and population growth under a consolidated central government. The Congress of Vienna also established the German Confederation, which absorbed the German states of the former Confederation of the Rhine, along with Austria, Bohemia, and Prussia. This was created in part with the intention of forestalling German national unity by uniting them in a symbolic way while pursuing individual state interests and preserving their respective dynasties. Naturally, Prussia and Austria emerged as the dual leading powers of the Confederation.

The trauma of Napoleon's previous victories highlighted the need to for social, administrative and economic reforms, so Prussia set about reorganizing the bureaucracy and state institutions to preserve the aristocracy through a modernizing façade. This abolished serfdom and implemented land reforms, as well as established universal military conscription. Parallel to this, the romantic and nationalist ideologies simmering from the French revolution began to build momentum. A 'high culture' developed, with German-speaking intellectuals, artists, and scholars at the forefront of Europe's cultural and scientific enlightenment. Furthermore, this process of social transformation was accelerated by the Zollverein (a customs union that excluded Austria), which quickly established Prussia as a prominent economic and political force and challenged Austria's long-held position as the strongest German speaking state.

This rapid economic and social expansion, urbanization, the spread of new ideas, and more efficient communication between German states all contributed to the growing notion of a collective "German" identity.

Over the next several decades, conflict began to arise within the German Confederation. Voices calling for unification into one entity rose steadily, and once word of the 1848 Revolution in Paris reached the Germanic peoples in the Confederation, culminated in an uprising in Berlin, following riots in Baden and Austria. As France's Louis-Philippe fled to Great Britain, and Austria's Prince Metternich was deposed, Frederick Wilhelm IV, the King of Prussia, was forced to concede to the revolutionaries. He promised a constitution, a parliament, and backing for German unification, thus preserving his own regime in a constitutional monarchy.

This heralded the rise of Otto von Bismarck, who grasped the cutthroat and complex demands of 19th century diplomacy (popularizing the term realpolitik). He was appointed by Wilhelm to counter the revolutionaries in the Landtag of Prussia with 'conservative modernization'. After the 1848 revolution, Bismarck succeeded in mitigating the liberals and won over the middle class by introducing extensive economic opportunities that placated their demands for national unity and liberal democracy. When Frederick Wilhelm died in 1861, his younger brother William inherited the throne, and appointed Bismarck as his prime minister in 1862. He enforced a policy of "blood and iron" (military and industrial dominance). Bismarck eventually understood he needed to exploit German unification in order to secure the future of conservative rule. He bypassed the state budget in order to reform the military, which he used to wage wars that capitalized on German nationalism to curb demands for liberal government. Prussia, together with Austria, launched the campaign to take Schleswig and Holstein from Denmark. After a success, dispute over the territories' administration triggered the Seven Weeks' War in 1866, with Austria pitted against Prussia and several allied German states. Prussia defeated Austria, but wanting to preserve Austria as an ally, Bismark declined to annex Austria and instead absorbed several key states under Austrian control. The victory dissolved the German Confederation and instead formed the North German Confederation, comprising 22 total German states north of the river Main, dominated by Prussia. The southern German states (except Austria) have eventually given in to coerced military alliances with Prussia, and Prussia gradually took steps to fuse them into the North German Confederation.

POLITICS

According to the Constitution established by Bismarck, there are two agents of government in the North German Confederation, the Federal Council (the Bundesrat) and the Parliament (Reichstag). The Federal Council is essentially a direct successor of the Federal Diet with the old system preserved, while the Parliament was created for the first time in 1866 with the professed intention to counterbalance the hegemony of the monarchy and special interests.

Unlike most other member states of the Confederation, officials for the Parliament are elected by male universal suffrage, demonstrating a somewhat progressive orientation. However, moderate conservatives and the land-owning elite have largely dominated the parliament, along with national liberals. The Constitution established a bicameral Parliament (Reichstag), with the President-Minister (Bismarck) with full executive power. The lower house (Landtag) represents all taxpayers, divided into three "classes" according to the level of taxes they pay. This results in the most elite 25% of voters getting to choose 85% of the legislature, essentially ensuring the higher class's domination. The upper house (First Chamber, or House of Lords) is made up of direct appointees made by the King. This allows for the perpetuation of the historical political monopoly of the landowning class, the Junkers. Despite the dominance of

the authoritarian elite, however, liberals have built an impressive base of political support and have accomplished key electoral successes.

Nevertheless, true authority rests with the Federal Council, in which executive and legislative powers have been merged. This organ is considered the highest in the North German Confederation government, representing the governments of the states with Prussia holding 17 of 43 votes in the council. According to the constitution, the head of state is Wilhelm, King of Prussia, and he installs the Federal Executive (Bismarck). Together with the Parliament, the Federal Council wields legislative powers.

The Government system is not the only thing politicians put into question, but also the idea of federal organisation. For Prussians especially, unification has now become popular as a means of eclipsing Austria as the dominant German-speaking power. However, within the government, Bismarck has been able to work with liberal nationalists on significant issues, convincing them they can be good for each other at the moment while achieving their own goals in the long run. The main question in national discourse is German Unity, whether with or without Austria. There is growing momentum throughout the Confederation that supports unification as a way to consolidate political power against the growing French and other foreign influence, as well as to establish some stability within German-speaking regions, which, according to some, could include Austria. However, for many Prussians, a unified Germany excluding Austria would not only assure their unequivocal dominance, but would not challenge the homogeneity of German society posed by Austria's multicultural population. The centuries-old rivalry with Austria is at its peak, and this is exploited in the North German Confederation system.

Meanwhile, teeming in the undercurrents of society are the beginnings of a Kulturkampf (Culture War) waged by Bismarck against any opposition he views as dangerous to his conservative regime and his designs for German national unity. He has begun to persecute Catholics, who are constantly suspected of disloyalty due to their foreign connections. He is repressing Socialists, labeling them as dangerous "terrorists." He is also implementing programs meant to Germanize non-german populations in Alsace-Lorraine or Polish Prussia, considering them threats to national cohesion. Furthermore, he has started carrying out mass expulsions of various minority communities, including Jesuits, Poles, Jews, Roma ("Gypsies"), and French. While some have voiced opposition to these policies, many liberals tacitly accept these with the overall goal of German unification.

Complicit in this Kulturkampf is another significant, albeit small, political entity: the Police Union of German States, created in response to the 1848 revolutions with the mandate to suppress political dissent and radical discourse. This means routine raids to round up political opponents and conduct heavy press surveillance and censorship, such as monitoring publishing companies and bookstores, and confiscating subversive material.

There is an authoritarian shrewdness to the political attitude of Prussia at the time. The motto of the Order of the Black Eagle captures this: suum cuique, "to each his own." Bismarck's keen, if manipulative, methods of realpolitik define the current political culture, in which alliances are considered not only according to ideological similarity but also strategic convenience. Thus, in matters ranging from budgets and economic policies to social institutions, cunning tactics are often employed.

DEMOGRAPHICS

The population of Prussia at this point is just over 25.5 million, about 60% of the total German-speaking population, excluding Austria. Germans are clearly the majority, while Poles are the largest minority in Prussia— around 2.4 million. Other minorities included Lithuanians, Jews, Danes, Frisians, Czechs, Danes, and Sorbs, as well as other ethnic groups.

The reformation throughout Europe had divided the Confederation between Catholics and Protestants. There is underlying tension between these two religious factions, although this does not cut Protestant Prussia off from other southern German states in any political or practical terms. Religious life is largely superficial and conventional— the state and bureaucracy keep their distance, rather viewing the churches as channels for education, a means of instilling obedience, or for propagating convenient things. Catholics, however, are actively being persecuted, along with other religious minorities.

In broader terms, the main political forces and interest groups can be divided into the Hohenzollern ruling family, the landed aristocrats (Junkers) and military elite, the national liberals, the democrats (or radicals), and the peasant population with limited rights (revolutionary voices also occasionally emerge from this latter group).

The Hohenzollern family is the dynasty of the Kings of Prussia, but the larger House of Hohenzollern includes numerous princes. They make up the highest nobility in the House of Lords. The Junkers are the land-owning class of hereditary nobility; they also dominate the House of Lords and represent a reactionary conservatism. The military class is similar to the Junkers in its social rank and support of the conservative status quo.

Situated somewhat in the middle are the national liberals. They are a loose group of moderates drawing support from industrialists, merchants, financiers, civil servants, mine owners, railroad developers, professionals, scholars and university faculty who oppose the upper class bourgeoisie and their dynastic aristocracy rather than meritocratic government. Still, they largely support monarchical rule, however in their view, the crown should share powers with a parliament, drawing inspiration from the British parliamentary reforms. Furthermore, like the Junkers and nobility, they greatly fear the proletariat and the consequences of popular democracy.

Further to the left are the democrats, considered radicals, who are comprised mostly of small businessmen, shopkeepers, skilled workers and vocational professionals, independent farmers, teachers, lawyers, journalists, physicians and other intelligentsia. Other than their differing views on government system, they align very closely with national liberals and often work together. However, they draw their inspiration from the French Revolution and aspire to greater social and political reforms. Finally, the peasant population of low-class industrial or agricultural workers makes up a large segment of society, although this group is disenfranchised and largely marginalized in public and political life.

ECONOMY

Economic reform in Prussia began with the Prussian Customs Law of 1818, which united all the Prussian territories into a customs union, free of internal economic barriers; this later formed the nucleus of the national customs union. However, this reform did not continue for much longer. By the end of 1820, the reform movement, which had begun some 15 years before, came to a complete halt. The end of the economic reform was a part of the effort to restore the old order in Prussia after the Congress of Vienna. The ideological upheaval during this restoration was the beginning of long term changes in the Prussian economy. Mechanization, introduced in textile mills and coal mines, spread to other branches

of manufacture and influenced the entire economic life of the nation. The transportation network improved with the construction of railroads, steamships, and better roads and canals. Banking institutions and private investors began to transfer their funds from government bonds and commercial ventures to manufacturing enterprises. Factory and railroad owners, financiers, and stockbrokers gradually formed a new upper middle class whose wealth derived primarily from industrial activity and whose growing economic importance encouraged its members to demand greater political influence. Skilled craftsmen, who had constituted the bulk of the urban working class, could not compete successfully with the factories. This growth resulted in a population shift from country to city, as the rural employment could not keep up with the rural population growth.

The Prussian agriculture in the east was going through reorganisation at the same time as the industry. Peasant emancipation resulted in the former serfs becoming a propertyless rural proletariat that relied on the land holdings of the nobles. This reliance continued the economic domination of the nobility in the eastern provinces of Prussia. The western provinces experienced a different kind of struggle for the peasants. The nobles were willing to sell property to the peasants but at steep financial costs. Those lands yielded little to no profit. Many of these peasants tried to emigrate but those that stayed faced unemployment in the industry. The system of authority in the German Confederation was thus being undermined by the struggle of artisans against industrial mechanization, by the disaffection of peasants hungry for land, and above all by the criticism of businessmen constrained by the policies of unresponsive governments. The established order did make a major attempt to meet the needs of the business community. Before long, several of the more important secondary governments concluded agreements with Prussia by which a sizable free trade area was established in the heart of Germany.

In 1834 the Zollverein, or Customs Union, including most of the states of the German Confederation, came into existence. By 1842, only Austria and the northwest coastland remained outside of this union. For most of Prussia, the Zollverein meant the achievement of commercial unification without the aid of political unification. The Zollverein was in effect a powerful new weapon for Prussia in the struggle with Austria for power in the German states.

In the middle of the 1840s, a severe economic depression halted industrial expansion and aggravated urban unemployment. At the same time, serious crop failures led to a major famine in the area from Ireland to Russian Poland. In the German states, the hungry 1840s drove the lower classes, which had long been suffering from the economic effects of industrial and agricultural rationalization, to the point of open rebellion. In 1848, the regime of the bourgeois King Louis-Philippe was overthrown by an insurrection in Paris (February 22–24). The result was a series of sympathetic revolutions against the governments of the German Confederation, most of them mild but a few, as in the case of the fighting in Berlin, bitter and bloody. On May 18, the Frankfurt National Assembly met in Frankfurt to prepare the constitution for a free and united fatherland. However there was dissent over the new order that was to replace the old. There was a basic conflict between poor and marginalized social groups, many of whom wanted protection against mechanized production and rural impoverishment, and the business interests who sought to use their new political influence to promote economic growth and freedom of enterprise. The revolution was crushed by 1849 after the King of Prussia, Frederick William IV, refused the crown. Frederick William IV had refused to accept an imperial crown vitiated by parliamentary government, but he was willing to become the head of a national federation in which the royal prerogative remained unimpaired.

The 1850s were a great time for the economy of Prussia. This was the time that the breakthrough of industrial capitalism occurred. Prussia experienced an economic expansion as the business community began to recover from its fear of mob violence and social upheaval. The influx of gold from America and Australia, moreover, generated an inflationary tendency, which in turn encouraged a speculative boom. Not only did the value of industrial production and foreign trade in the Zollverein more than double in the course of the decade, but also new investment banks based on the joint-stock principle were founded to provide venture capital for factories and railroads. In 1857 there was a financial crash that affected the entire continent. Prussia had already crossed the line from preindustrial to an industrial economy though. As wealth continued to shift from farming to manufacturing, from the country to the city, and from the aristocracy to the bourgeoisie, the pressure for a redistribution of political power also gained strength. While the reactionaries were solemnly proclaiming the sanctity of traditional institutions, economic change was undermining the foundation of those institutions. By the end of the decade, a new struggle between the forces of liberalism and conservatism was in the making.

MILITARY

HISTORY
The Prussian military is stereotypically known as one of the greatest armed forces in history. The army of Prussia grew out of the united armed forces created by Frederick William of Brandenburg. In 1643, the army numbered only 5,500 troops. It was not until Frederick William I (1713–1740), the "Soldier-King", that the Prussian army starts to gain notoriety. The Soldier King was obsessed with the army and with achieving self-sufficiency for his country. Under him, conscription among the peasantry was more firmly enforced, based on the Swedish model. The conscription created a reserve of trained peasants. The Soldier King also introduced heavy taxes to support the army, which consumed 80 percent of state revenues even in peacetime. By the end of Frederick William I's reign, Prussia had the fourth-largest army in Europe. Frederick William I was succeeded by his son, Frederick II "The Great". Under Frederick the Great, the Prussian army numbered 187,000 soldiers by 1776, 90,000 of whom were Prussian subjects in central and eastern Prussia. The remainder were foreign (both German and non-German) volunteers or conscripts. Many troops, however, were disloyal. By the end of Frederick's reign, the army had become an integral part of Prussian society and numbered some 200,000 soldiers, making it the third largest in Europe after the armies of Russia and Austria. Under Frederick the great, Prussia had become one of the most powerful continental states and a contender with the Habsburgs for domination over the myriad German political entities.

Frederick the Great's successor, Frederick William II, relaxed conditions in Prussia and had little interest in war. He delegated responsibility to the aged Charles William Ferdinand, Duke of Brunswick, and the army began to degrade in quality. The army lack of reform was no match for Napoleon's constantly evolving forces. The Prussian Army was decisively defeated in the battles of Saalfeld, Jena and Auerstedt in 1806. The Prussian army notorious discipline has failed and this led to the wide scale surrender. The defeat of the disorganized army shocked the Prussian establishment. General Gerhard Scharnhorst took it upon himself to reform the military. He led a Military Reorganization Committee. General Carl Von Clausewitz assisted with the reorganization as well. The reformers wanted to cultivate patriotism within the country. Scharnhorst advocated adopting the levée en masse, the universal military conscription used

by France. He created the Krümpersystem, by which companies replaced 3–5 men monthly, allowing up to 60 extra men to be trained annually per company. This system granted the army a larger reserve of 30,000–150,000 extra troops. The Krümpersystem was also the beginning of short-term compulsory service of 3 years in Prussia. The army reform movement was cut short by Scharnhorst's death in 1813, and the shift to a more democratic and middle class military began to lose momentum in the face of the reactionary government. The German General Staff, which developed out of meetings of the Great Elector with his senior officers and the informal meeting of the Napoleonic Era reformers, was formally created in 1814. In the same year, Prussia drafted a law for universal conscription, by which men would successively serve in the standing army, the Landwehr and the local Landsturm until the age of 39. After Frederick William IV suffered a stroke, his brother Wilhelm I became King in 1861. He desired to reform the army, which conservatives such as Roon considered to have degraded since 1820 because of liberalism. The king wanted to expand the army—while the populace had risen from 10 million to 18 million since 1820, the annual army recruits had remained 40,000.

CONSCRIPTION SYSTEM

The Prussian Conscription System is based on the Kruemper System proposed by Prussian General Gerhard Johan von Scharnhorst in 1807. Scharnhorst proposed establishing a system where every infantry company would yearly furlough 20 of its senior and older soldiers. At the same time, this company would receive 20 recruits as replacements. The cycle would continue year after year and had the effect of placing the most experienced soldiers into a reserve status. On March 17,1813. King Frederick William formally authorized the establishment of the Prussian Landwehr (provincial militia) effectively instituting the French levee en masse in his own country. Recruits were drawn from all males between the ages of 18 and 45, though exemptions were given to priests, teachers, some civil servants, and married men or those with children. The Landwehr's aim is to train the nation for the next war. They mainly act as reserves in the army but at times they were seen as unreliable as they were not directly controlled by the military. It wasn't until Von Roon's reform that they were effectively integrated into the military. Von Roon's reform also re-established the conscript system. Under the reforms each unit (normally a regiment) of the standing army was given the responsibility of conscripting and training soldiers from the district in which the unit was physically located. A young man was drafted at age 20 and served for 3 years on active duty with his local ("hometown") regiment. At the end of 3 years he could request retention on active duty or accept release, in which case he would be placed in that regiment's reserve pool for the next 4 years. As part of the army's formal reserve, he was liable to be mobilized as part of his regiment in time of national emergency.

NUMBERS

Due to the military conscription for all men of military age, Prussia and its North and South German allies could mobilise and field some 1,000,000 soldiers in time of war. This number is the maximum number that the Prussian army could conscript into the army. Due to reform, the Landwehr - which was 260,000 men strong - was under total control of the the army. The Prussian cavalry estimated number at the time was 17,000, and is divided into regiments between the Landwehr and the reserves. Due to Von Roon's military reform, the strength of the active field army was increased by 315,500 men with the number of combat units more than doubled. The mobilized strength of the army as a whole was 551,900 for the field army, with a further 392,300 for use as garrison and logistics troops.

Estimated number in 1864:
Landwehr/Milita: 260,000
Standing Army: 551,900
      Include reserves, conscripts, volunteers
Garrison and Logistics: 392,300
Cavalry: 17,000 (Part of the reserves and Landwehr)
Conscript capabilities: 1,000,000 (Prussia along with its allies)

ARMAMENTS

Prussian doctrine was designed for the offensive, and their artillery arm reflected as much. The German armies' main field gun, the Krupp C64, was a steel, breech-loading 8cm cannon. It had an effective range of about 3.4km, which greatly outdistanced the majority of French artillery. The army was equipped with the Dreyse needle gun. The rifle had a range of only 600 m and lacked the rubber breech seal that permitted aimed shots. The deficiencies of the needle gun were more than compensated for by the Krupp gun.

TACTICS

During the 1740s, Frederick the Great issued a series of new regulations. The doctrines he espoused focused on speed and offense. Lighter and faster cavalry were preferred over heavy cavalry; while hussars became an integral part of the army. The artillery was to use light three-pound guns which made up for their lack of power with versatility. After being outmaneuvered by the Austrians in the Second Silesian War, Frederick began emphasizing an overwhelming attack instead of a war of attrition. Rather than frontal attacks, the Prussian king tried to apply the oblique order, by which his army's strongest wing was focused against the enemy's weakest wing or flank, while restraining his own weaker wing. The oblique order is a military tactic whereby an attacking army focuses its forces to attack a single enemy flank. The force commander concentrates the majority of his strength on one flank and uses the remainder to fix the enemy line. The Prussian attacking army sent a strong advance force of infantry directly towards the enemy. The frontline troops occupied the attention of the enemy and the rest of the troops would maneuver behind it. They could also exploit any locally available obstacle, using hindering terrain or the smoke of cannon and musket fire to mask maneuvers. The Prussian cavalry would be stationed so as to cover the flank of the main body.

Moltke the Elder, Chief of the General Staff, modernized the Prussian Army during his tenure. Moltke was a strong proponent of war game training for officers and introduced the breech-loading needle gun to troops, which allowed them to fire significantly faster than their adversaries. Moltke took advantage of the railroad, guiding the construction of rail lines within Prussia to likely places of deployment. Because modern armies had become too large and unwieldy for a single commander to control, Moltke supported multiple and independent smaller armies in concentric operations. Once one army encountered the enemy and pinned it down, a second army would arrive and attack the enemy's flank or rear. This is a modernized version of the oblique order. He advocated a Kesselschlacht, or battle of encirclement. The system of moving units separately and concentrating as an army before a battle resulted in more efficient supply and lower vulnerability to modern firepower. To enable a successful flanking attack, he asserted that concentration could only take place after the commencement of a battle.

Prussians would first send out a screen of skirmishers (Jaeger, Schutzen or Fusilier battalions), behind which the main force would be moving forward in line formation, in close order. The skirmish and infantry would always be heavily supported by the Prussians advanced artillery weapons. It was always deployed as rapidly as possible and pushed well forward with the main infantry line.

As with the French cavalry, the main function of the cavalry was shock action, involving massed cavalry charging boot to boot in line formation. They were useful at breaking the enemy's gun line. The Prussian cavalry line consisted of Cuirassiers, Dragoons, Uhlans and Hussars. Cuirassiers were armed with straight, heavy pallasch swords and wore body armor. Dragoons were armed with curved sabers and carbines. Uhlans were armed with curved sabers and lances. Hussars were armed with curved sabers and carbines. Prussian light cavalry mainly consisted of Hussars.

A distinctive feature of the German command and control system was the autonomy granted subordinate officers. From the king down to the battalion commander, German leaders were impressed with the necessity of affording freedom of action to their underlings. Such decentralization, they recognized, promoted rapid execution, the judicious use of resources, and discipline. The officers of the General Staff were hand-picked from the Prussian Kriegsakademie (War Academy). Moltke embraced new technology, particularly the railroad and telegraph, to coordinate and accelerate mobilisation of large forces

CABINET GOALS AND DYNAMICS

Dynamics
With the divide between liberals and conservative, the landtag is quite divisive. On one side, we have the liberals who favour unification through moral means while on the other side, the conservatives believe in uniting Germany through blood and iron. The government in power must address Von Roon's reform of the military and the extent of resources that should be place into the military. The Cabinet must also address the economical problems caused by the expanding of the military and the economic crisis. Historically, North German Confederation was achieved by 1867. Therefore, the cabinet also have to deal with the alliance system with the other German states and seek to create the North German Confederation. Bismarck faces differing voices while running the government. There is the dispute between the royal family (hohenzollern), the junkers or the aristocrats, the conservatives and the liberals. Therefore, the cabinet have to resolve this internal dispute and decide on the best way to go. The population still largely supports the royal rule but there is growing demand led by the liberals to have a British-style parliamentary reform.

Goals
Domestically, Prussia must balance between existing institution and the rapidly industrialising industries. The cabinet must decide on which is important through the unification of Germany, either through moral liberal means or through war and military might. The main actors are Bismarck, Von Roon and Moltke along with the loyalist and conservatives. The trio have to control reactionary conservatives, the rising socialist with Ferdinand Lasalle and August Bebel, and most importantly the liberals headed by Rudolf Von Benningsen and the crown prince Frederick III. Due to the loophole of the Prussian Constitution, should there be a deadlock in

the landtag, the King have the final say in the decisions. The trio having personal connections to the King, will most likely sway his decisions just as with the financing of the military. In terms of foreign relations, the treaty of Vienna provided that Prussia would administer Schleswig, and Austria would similarly govern Holstein. However, there have been disputes of the administration of the area souring the relations between the former allies. Carol I of Romania, cousin to Wilhelm I, is currently the domnitor of Romania. Romania was largely ignored in wide spectrum of things by Bismarck but could be proven to be a willing ally. Prussian ambitions of German Unifications was perceived to be a threat by the Second French Republic. They fear this would greatly shift the balance of power in mainland Europe and mainly perceived Prussia as a threat. Russia have a neutral stance toward Prussia's affair even with the efforts of Bismarck. During the times, they were largely indifferent toward the situation in continental Europe. Prussia's prince, Leopold Hohenzollern, was also offered the crown of the Spanish Throne. This move highly supported by Bismarck but was feared by King Wilhelm I. The King feared this would only anger the French more and seen as a major threat to the safety of France. During this time, the Kingdom of Saxony, a member of the German Confederation was a strong ally of Austria. Saxony during the Napoleonic wars was the only German state to side with the French. As the strongest member of the German confederation, the rivalry between Prussia and Austria was unavoidable. Prussia needs to able to lead the other German states. Saxony was not the only German ally of Austria. The Southern State of Bavaria and Württemberg, the Northern State of Hannover, The Central state of Frankfurt and Nassau are all ally of Austria. The North German Confederation should be one of the pivotal goals in order for the advancement of Prussia and the predecessor of Germany. This is however, should be the first goal that the cabinet should achieve. The true goal of the Prussians are the unification of Germany and whether Austria has a place in it or not.

FRANCE

HISTORY

After the French Revolution, many different regimes succeeded one another. The First Republic was followed by Napoleon I's First French Empire. With the end of the Napoleonic Wars, monarchy was restored by the Congress of Vienna. This monarchy did not last long however, as there was another revolution that implemented the June Monarchy, a constitutional monarchy under King Louis-Philippe.

However, the lack of liberalisation and civil freedoms brought about the Second French Republic: grounded on the hopes and projects of the 1848 French Revolution (during the so-called European *'Printemps des Peuples'*) which resulted in Louis Philippe's abdication. Immediately after the abdication, the Republic was proclaimed by a temporary government. In a context of disputes between the different republican political movements, a Constitution was written and scheduled the election of the President for December 1848. The elections were very easily won by Louis Napoléon Bonaparte and his Bonapartist party (with 75% of the votes in his favour). The constitutional text organized the Republic in a way that the National Assembly had more powers and could overpower the executive. The conservative nature of the Assembly and restriction of freedoms destroyed the legacy of the 1848 Revolution, and the National Assembly quickly became unpopular. Louis-Napoléon's image didn't suffer from this public outcry as he had let the parliamentarians govern. In 1851, he started what closely resembled a reelection campaign: giving speeches in different cities of France, meeting the rural population. It was then expected, and largely accepted, that he would try to get re-elected for another mandate in 1852. Some members of parliament tried in vain to modify the Constitution which would have prevented Louis-Napoleon to run for a second mandate. Responding to this, Napoléon organized a coup d'etat known as 'Operation Rubicon'. He dissolved the National Assembly and changed the constitution to allow him to stay in power. This coup wasn't a traditional coup: Louis Napoléon wished for the French people's approval. He therefore organized a referendum asking the people if they agreed to let him keep his powers and gave him the right to write a new Constitution, a vote that was also very easily won by Louis-Napoleon, with 7 million votes in favour and approximately 600,000 votes against.

In the new Constitution, he granted himself the right to rule France for the next 10 years. The lower Chamber was to be elected by the people but their powers were extremely restricted. The ruler was still, officially, referred to as the President of France but the change to an Empire was expected. Ensuring the population's approval for this change, the newly styled 'Napoleon the Third' traveled to France's major cities, where he was warmly welcomed to the sound of "*Vive l'Empereur, vive l'Empire*". The change of the regime to an Empire was officialised in October 1852, which was quickly followed by another change in the Constitution, approved by a referendum, making the Empire a legal regime. The official date of this change is the symbolical 2nd of December 1852. (His uncle, Napoléon I, was corroned on the same date 48 years earlier)

The Second Empire and Napoleon the Third himself largely maintain the French population's approval thanks to the country's economic prosperity and feeling of progress. However, it has increasingly been hindered by expensive public works and useless foreign wars.

FOREIGN POLICY

Through Napoleon III's reign, France implemented an ambitious foreign policy to serve France's economic but also ideological interests. France recovered its influential status in Europe and Napoléon became known as Europe's arbitrator.

On the matter of Italian unification, the French emperor originally showed support to Cavour (Piedmontese Minister of Foreign Affairs) in the Kingdom of Piedmont-Sardinia's fight to gain Northern Italy from Austria. This support stemmed from Napoléon's belief in the concept of states based on nationalities. The French army fought with Piedmontese troops against Austria in the Second Italian War of Independence. However, after the Battle of Solferino, Napoleon III signed an armistice with Austria. Besides the number of deaths in Solferino, the growing threat that Italian unification was posing to the Pope's interest lead Napoleon to offering peace. Napoleon's involvement in Italian unification at the risk of the Papal states' independence was a highly controversial matter among France's political elite and Catholic population. Indeed, in 1849, Napoleon had helped the Pope recover Rome from Mazzini and Garibaldi's republican rule. A French garrison was then stationed in Rome to protect the Papacy from threats to its independence and has remained there since.

Following religious and nationalist revolts in the Ottoman Empire, the Russian Empire wanted to take advantage of this unrest and support Bulgarians and Serbians wishing for their independence from the Ottoman Empire. The Russians planned to intervene and try to put these new states under the Tsar's control. The French and British risked losing their maritime route to Asia as a result, one of utmost importance for their business and prosperity, and therefore supported the Ottoman Empire against Russia. War broke out with the majority of fighting taking place in Crimea starting in 1853. Three years later, faced with the threat of the Austrian Empire joining the Ottoman Empire's side, Russia was defeated and accepted peace. Through this first international victory, Napoleon III had returned France's its prestige as a great power in Europe and the alliances from the Vienna Congress of 1815 were shattered.

Napoleon III also intended to consolidate France's influence overseas. One of these attempt was the Mexico expedition started in 1861. By ensuring French influence in Latin America, the French emperor wanted to interrupt the USA's expansion towards the south. Napoleon therefore proposed to his cousin Maximilian von Habsburg, a then-Austrian Archduke from Austria, to become Emperor of Mexico. Sadly, this attempt at securing European influence over Latin America would be interrupted by the United States' threats of involvement and the growingly expensive cost of this war. In the rest of the world, Napoléon III also had great projects to serve French interests. He annexed New Calédonia in 1853, as well as the coast of Gabon in 1862. Alongside the British Empire, he obtained new commercial ports in China in 1858. This first settlement point in the region would be followed by other victories such as Pekin in 1860 and Annam and Cambodia in 1863. He was also the first French ruler to go to Algeria and even planned a great French Arab Empire stretching from Algiers to Baghdad.

POLITICS

France in 1864 is a unitary constitutional monarchy under Emperor Napoleon III of House Bonaparte. After winning the 1848 Presidential elections, Louis-Napoleon staged a coup d'état in 1852, successful dissolving the National Assembly and reinstituting universal male suffrage. He passed through a new constitution that gave practically full powers to the President and set Presidential terms to 10 years. A year later, Louis-Napoleon would organise a referendum on the re-establishment of the Empire. With a 97% vote in favour, the Second French Empire was established and Louis-Napoleon titled 'Napoleon III, Emperor of the French'. A new

legislative body was formed with practically no powers whatsoever. The Parliament was voted in by universal male suffrage but possessed no ability to propose laws or even discuss them. The upper house, the Senate, was filled via nominations of the Emperor. As national and international crises struck the country however, Napoleon III was forced to gradually lessen his authoritarian hold over France. In 1860, he removed the ban on freedom of press and by 1863, had offered an amnesty to most of the opposition that had fled the country. Most of them ran for the 1863 parliamentary elections and becoming a formal opposition in the lower chamber. These elections introduced the three main political factions of the Second Empire.

Political Factions
First and foremost, one of the biggest political factions at the time were the Bonapartists. Napoleon's official party in the legislature, the Bonapartists gained most of their support among voters in the countryside. France at the time was still largely a rural country. At the start of the 19th century, 90% of France's population lived in the countryside and in 1850, only three cities had a population over 100,000. This has led the Bonapartists to still have the majority in 1863 with 74.2% of votes (251 seats out of 283). Politically, Bonapartism does not classify itself as being on the left or right. Napoleon III himself refuses to be classed in either category. However, Bonapartists are generally deemed by many to be a right-wing party, with conservative liberal policies, a pro-military stance and an aggressive foreign policy. One of the big supporters of the Bonapartist movement is the Catholic Church, as Napoleon III is a strong advocate of clericalism and protector of the independence of the Papal States in Italy. Eugène Rouher is one of the most prominent Bonapartist politicians, currently serving as the Prime Minister, as well as the main mouthpiece of the government in Parliament.
The opposition in France is composed largely of two parties: The Republicans and the Monarchists. Although the Republicans are united in their opposition to the monarchical parties and the Church, they can be generally split into two groups: The Moderates and the Radicals. The Moderates headed by Émile Ollivier have generally accepted Napoleon III's rule but aim to liberalise the Empire as much as possible. The Radicals on the other hand are the vowed opposition to the Bonapartist with Léon Gambetta at the head of the party. Unlike most other parties' conservative agendas, the Radicals support (as the name suggests) radical, progressive, laic (anti-clerical) and reformist goals.
A smaller group in opposition is the Monarchists. The biggest monarchist party is the *Orléanistes,* which supports the re-instauration of the House of Orléans that had governed France between 1830 to 1848 with the July Monarchy, before getting deposed in the revolution of 1848. The *Orléanistes* are filled with many liberals and intellectuals that wish to re-implement a constitutional monarchy with limited powers in the hand of the King and most of the power belonging to a democratically-elected Parliament. Following the implementation of the Second Empire the monarchists were the primary targets of purges and exiles, and even with the amnesty, they have largely remained quiet. Aside from criticising most of Napoleon III's foreign policies such as the lack of intervention in the Schleswig-Holstein War, they do not directly oppose the Bonapartists.

Interest Groups
In the French Empire, the most prominent interest group is the Catholic Church. Since the anti-clerical craze of the French Revolution of 1789, France has settled back into being a firmly Catholic country. The Concordat of 1801 under Napoleon I gave Catholicism back its status as the majority religion in France and restored much of its civil status. Due to the rural nature of France, church priests hold an important amount of influence over small communities, which

does not make it surprising that one of Napoleon III's most rigid policies was his clericalism and support to the Papacy in the face of increasing Italian nationalism. However, with the political amnesty, this has begun to change. Napoleon III authorised national reforms on education, promoting the education of young women and limiting the hold of the Catholic Church on education – a matter that has brought the French state and the Church in conflict with each other.

MILITARY

Since the ascension of Napoleon III to the throne, France has been involved in two major conflicts that have forced the re-organisation of the French army: the Crimean War against Russia, and, more importantly, the Franco-Austrian War of 1859, otherwise known as the Second Italian War of Independence. The conflict illustrated many of the logistical issues of war in the 19th century, with troops and supplies having to be moved via trains across France and Italy. While the war was a success for the Franco-Sardinian forces, it did show a need to further improve France's railway system that was found to be sorely lacking.

There is currently a system of conscription via lottery for the French army. Individuals are drawn from a ballot and forced to serve a seven-year service. However, unlike the conscription under the First Empire, Napoleon III introduced a system of exoneration that allowed people to forgo their service. Individuals who were able to pay between 2,000 and 2,500 Francs did not have to serve in the French army. This has allowed for richer social classes in society to avoid service whereas someone from the peasantry was practically always forced to. Universal conscription and the *levee en masse* system ended even during the First Empire as it was far too unpopular for the majority of the French population. When Napoleon I returned during the Hundred Days, his conscription orders were largely ignored and many of the conscripted preferred to desert rather than be drafted.

Under the current system, 20,000 men are conscripted per year, and the permanent peacetime French army therefore reaches a number of around 140,000 conscripts. The number of volunteers, re-enlisted soldiers, the Imperial Guard and other permanent elements totals 260,000. In total, the current French army in peacetime stands at 400,000 troops. The French system relies on a professional standing army, more akin to a mercenary army loyal only to Napoleon III, rather than a national force of the *levee en masse* during the First Republic.

In terms of military tactics, the French army itself is organised in numerous Corps, a system that dates back to the First Empire and was reinstated by Napoleon III. Each corps consists of standard line infantry, cavalry divisions and artillery, and is under the control of a Marshal of France. The French army operates like the other forces of its time – line infantry supported by a strong concentration of artillery, flanked by cavalry divisions to seize opportunities to flank the enemy, or prevent flanking. The improvements in technology over the decades have provided the French infantry with far more accurate rifles. France itself being a pioneer in developing weapons such as the Minié rifle; however, many have stated that the strategies of the French army have not adapted to the changing technologies. One of the aspects lacking from the French army is the presence of a proper command structure or General Staff that would help coordinate actions of Corps in a given campaign. During the Crimean War, observers noted that the bravery of the French soldier made up for the idiocy of their commanders. Another known deficiency of the French army is its lack of a proper reserve system. Due to a lack of funding and inefficient conscription system, Napoleon III has found himself continuously without enough reserves to support a prolonged war. The Franco-

Austrian War had to be cut short in spite of French and Sardinian victories due to the movement of Prussian troops along the Rhine, with most of Napoleon's armies in Italy and no properly trained reserves in France, the Emperor was forced to sign a treaty with Austria, much to the ire of his Sardinian allies.

Numbers in 1864

Standing Army: 400,000 troops
          Including: Conscripts, Volunteers, and the Imperial Guard
Armaments: 310 artillery guns
Reserves: 74,000 men

ECONOMY

The Second Empire is a remarkable period of economic, social, financial and urban modernisation of France. The former protectionist country is entering the modern world.

Napoleon III benefits from this favourable context, encourages and exploits it intelligently to develop the French economy, allowing a growth of the industry. The Emperor is inspired by Saint-Simonianism, based on the ideas of Claude Henri de Rouvroy comte de Saint-Simon. The basics of this Utopian socialism are that the new industrial society would be reigned by scientists, bankers, investors and fabricants. For Napoleon III, this ideology means that the State should intervene in the economy to support economic growth. Free trade results in general prosperity and therefore an improvement of the working-class conditions. In this perspective, Napoleon III signed a free trade agreement in 1860 with England, the *Cobden-Chevalier* treaty, which impacts other countries in Europe in France's and England's favour.

The French Empire makes very large investments in the public sector, the transport sector and the financial system. These investments increase the public debt heavily. During the Second Empire six major railway companies are created, the length of the railways expands enormously (1851: 300km - 1870: 16 000km). Now, even the most isolated parts of France are connected to the railway system and the internal trade can flourish in what appears for the first time as a true national market. Ports already relatively important as Le Havre, Bordeaux and Marseille are enlarged, others are created such as Saint-Nazaire. They house a modern and large fleet. Finally the most important cities are connected by the telegraph.

Major construction works are undertaken throughout the country. Paris is redeveloped under the direction of Baron Georges Haussmann (1809-1881): a gas lighting system, drinking water supply network and sewers are put in place. Wide avenues are pierced through the old neighbourhoods. They improve traffic, embellish the city but also facilitate repression (the use of cavalry and artillery is now possible). Les Halles, built in the center of the city supplies the Parisians, the first department stores (Au Bon Marché) compete with small businesses.

Finally, the French banking system is developing remarkably under the Second Empire. Family banks such as the Rothschilds continue to prosper, but they are competing with large deposit or business banks, such as Crédit Lyonnais (1863) or Société Générale (1864). They drain the savings of the French and invest their funds in industry and commerce. These banks are the real engine of growth.

The French society however, does not fully benefit from the economic changes. The life and work of the French variate little. Napoleon III is concerned with the working class, he encourages charity and in 1864 he autorises the right of strike and the existence of some unions. But the regime is opposed to any disruption of the order. An ambitious reform of education is proposed by minister Victor Duruy in 1863, the development of free and

compulsory primary education for both adults and young girls. These secular ideas, however, displease Catholics.

Meanwhile, the Second Empire of Napoleon III remains neutral during the American Civil War. However, much like England, France has a textile industry which mainly relies on cotton imports from the Confederacy. The blockade set up in April 1861 hinders the shipments of this raw material to Europe.

The provinces of Alsace and Lorraine host most of the industrial development in France, they proved to be abundant in iron ore and coal. Lorraine became a center for coal mining along with the region of Calais. The region of Alsace and the mountainous region of Southeastern France saw developments in iron production. From the 1830's to the 1860's, iron production skyrocketed with the introduction of steam power. Iron output increased further during the 1860's. With the introduction of the hot blast method, production increased from 125,300 metric tonnes in 1826 to 1,250,000 by 1865.

The economic development of France during the Second Empire must be nuanced. Until the twentieth century agriculture remains the main activity and the industry remains dominated by textile activities to the detriment of metallurgy. At an international level, England retains its lead over France. Germany and the United States are undergoing much more economic development than the Empire.

CABINET GOALS AND DYNAMICS

Dynamics
One of the main divergences in the cabinet are the different political factions vying for influence, or change, within France. The government in power must address the pressing social and economic issues all the while not giving too much ammunition to the Monarchists and Republicans to rile up the population against the Empire. Very few things unite the different political factions together, meaning the government must juggle its increasing liberalisation yet maintain its hold over the country. The 1863 election kept the parliament firmly Bonapartist, but has given a voice to a mounting opposition.

Goals
Domestically, France has to balance the difficulties that come with industrialisation as well as the liberalisation of politics. The current French economy is considerably weakened due to the Confederacy's embargo on cotton which has severely damaged the French textile industry. France must either reform their industries or find a durable solution to the matter at hand, all the while promoting expansion in other fields such as steel and coal.

The Second Empire must also work to reform its military. Logistical and strategic coordination problems within the army were exacerbated during the Second Italian War of Independence. There must be enough popular support and funds in order to change the conscription system so that France can withstand longer wars.

In terms of European foreign policy, France only has tentative allies in the form of Italy and the United Kingdom. Both relationships are barely kept with the Italians considering the French to have betrayed them due to the Emperor's protection of the Papal States. Austria was a former enemy of France but with the rising Prussian power at France's borders may signify a change in relations between the two countries. Prussia itself has become more and more of a threat, the dangers of German nationalism being one of the few issues that unites all of the French political parties (Bonapartists, Monarchists and Republicans) together.

AUSTRIA

HISTORY

The Austrian Empire of 1864, ruled by the dynasty of Habsburg-Lorraine, can proudly look back on glorious history. Their line of ancestors includes Dukes of Austria and Holy Roman Emperors. It dates back to Radbot, the erector of Habsburg Castle and its first count, Rudolf I, and to the first Habsburg to be elected Holy Roman Emperor in 1273, Emperor Ferdinand II, whose ambitions to unify the Holy Roman lead to the devastating Thirty Years War, but who at the same time brought the Holy Roman Empire closer to become a unified state than almost any Emperor before him. The line continued its international prominence through Queen Maria Theresa, Empress by marriage and the only female ruler of the Habsburg territories, who managed to hold off the ambitions of a strengthening Prussia under its King Frederick the Great in the Seven Years' War and secured the reign for her successors of the House Habsburg-Lorraine. Francis II, the last Holy Roman Emperor who was forced to abdicate by Napoléon Bonaparte in 1804 and founded the Austrian Empire after the dissolution of the HRE and continued his reign until 1835. Therefore, the Austrian Empire can be called the only rightful successor of the once proud Holy Roman Empire.

There are hardly any European powers who shaped the Post-Napoléon era as much as Austria: The Austrian foreign minister Klemens von Metternich (who later also became Austrian Chancellor in 1821) hosted the Congress of Vienna from 1814 to 1815, which settled the peace treaty with France. The outcome was an alliance between the victorious powers Austria, Great Britain, Prussia and Russia which agreed to work together to prevent revolutionary activities in Europe and to ultimately come to a *Restauration* of the situation before the French Revolution as well as the formation of the *German Confederation* a forum of former territories of the Holy Roman Empire. This system of political alliances based on balance of power within Europe was later referred to as the *Concert of Europe* and Metternich was considered one of its main architects.

The years of Metternich's term after the Congress were an era of stability and inner political consolidation. Following Metternich's conservative believes that liberalism was nothing else than a legalised form of revolution he took huge effort to foster the *Restauration* which culminated in the *Carlsbad Decrees* which were adopted by the assembly of the *German Confederation* in 1819 and restricted the freedom of speech and controlled press and universities, in order to control liberal and nationalist activities. This ultimately led to the *Biedermeier Era* that mainly refers to an era in the history of art that was coined mainly by its apolitical nature, but at the same time is also used to describe the political situation from 1820 on until the mid of the century. During this period many important German intellectuals such as Heinrich Heine, Georg Büchner and Karl Marx went to exile. Although Austria and Prussia were united in their aversion against liberals their struggle for hegemony within the *German Confederation* made them rivals. This rivalry was the reason why the Confederation was unable to make any major decisions during its existence.

The "Metternich Era" came to an abrupt halt when Metternich was forced to resign in March 1848. Following the success of the revolution that took place in France in February, uprisings occurred all over Europe, including Vienna, where the Austrian government lost control in March. The uprisings spread all over the empire and more and more ethnic groups demanded more autonomy. The troops of the multiethnic state under General Radetzky were unprepared and it took the Empire until August to restore control over its provinces. The defeat of the revolutionaries in Vienna was considered a big blow for German nationalism.

The new Minister-President Prince Felix von Schwarzenberg restored the authority of the Empire politically with his plan to force Emperor Ferdinand I. to abdicate and replaced him with his nephew Franz Joseph I. After the early death of Felix von Schwarzenberg in 1852 the former minister of the interior, Baron Alexander von Bach, became the new Minister-President. He followed a tough line in domestic policy further restricting press freedom and limiting public trials for instance. At the same time, he also introduced many economic reforms, liberalised the toll system and ended the feudal obligations of peasants. His term ended when Austria lost the Italian War against the Kingdom of Sardinia and France, in which Austria lost Lombardy to Sardinia.

POLITICS

Following a turbulent decade of rising nationalist sentiments of its constituent peoples, failed wars, and failed centralisation, the Habsburg Monarchy was at a crossroads. Hungarians and Slavic populations desired greater autonomy, German nobility was opposed to centralisation of power in emperor's hands, and struggle with Prussia for German dominance was underway. After the fall of Bach's absolutism, the parliament split into two parties, a native German-speaking and a non-German-speaking side. The German side pushed for a stronger central government, but the non-German side (mostly Czechs and Hungarians) pushed for a division of power between the estates. Francis Joseph tried to formulate a compromise in the new constitution, the "October Diploma" (adopted 20 October 1860). The Diploma created a one-hundred-member parliament with extended powers over the empire's finances but no power over the military or legislation. Moreover, the Parliament did not have power over Hungary, except in matters that affected the entire empire. The Hungarian Diet controlled Hungarian internal affairs. The new Parliament did not please either side, however. State finances continued to fail; the Germans were not happy with the power given to the diets; and the non-Germans were disappointed by the amount of power that remained in the Emperor's hands. When Anton Ritter von Schmerling became Secretary of State in late 1860, he took on the task of revising the October Diploma.

The February Patent established in the Austrian Empire a bicameral imperial parliament, still called the Reichsrat, with an upper chamber appointed by the emperor and an indirectly elected lower chamber. The members of the upper chamber were appointed for life and included the crown prince, prominent bishops, heads of noble families, and great citizens. Delegates sent from the diets comprised the 343-member lower chamber, with 120 representatives from Hungary, 20 from Venetia, and 203 from the remaining non-Hungarian estates. The Emperor could check the actions of the lower chamber by appointing more of his supporters to the upper chamber. The responsibilities of the new Parliament were divided into a 'greater' and a 'lesser' section. In the 'greater' section were matters that affected the empire as a whole, including Hungary. The 'lesser' section was for matters in the estates. Essentially, it superseded the function of the diets in non-Hungarian lands. The Hungarian Diet could function alongside the 'lesser' Parliament if needed. Under the February Patent, the Parliament had more decision-making power than it had before, but it was still completely subject to the Emperor. On the other hand, the Emperor could make political and military decisions without the Parliament's consent and could make any decision he wanted whenever the Parliament was not in session, if it might be an 'emergency.'

The House of Lords was composed of:

- Archdukes of the Imperial House
- Lords spiritual – influential Roman Catholic Church archbishops and bishops of various cities, some in the Latin Church and others in one of the Eastern Catholic Churches
- Hereditary peers – selected from certain families among the hereditary landowning nobility
- Life peers – citizens of Austria appointed to the House for life by the Emperor, for services to the state, the church, science, or art

Upon establishment of the Imperial Council by the February Patent, elections to the House of Deputies were conducted through a system of "curiae".[1] In this system, there were 343 deputies elected by the diets of the crown lands. The diets themselves were elected by four curiae. The curiae were essentially assemblies of certain social classes. There was one curia for the landowning class, one curia for the towns and cities, one curia for the chambers of commerce, and one curia for rural communities. Each curia would elect a select number of deputies to the diets, which would in turn elect deputies to the Imperial Council To be part of the curia of the cities and the curia of the rural communities, a man had to pay at least ten guilders in tax. This system was rejected by Hungary, as with the October Diploma, and Hungary never sent any delegates to the Council.

The Diet of Hungary (originally the Parlamentum Publicum or the Parlamentum Generale (Hungarian: *Országgyűlés*)) became the supreme legislative institution in the medieval kingdom of Hungary from the 1290s, and in its successor states, Royal Hungary and the Habsburg kingdom of Hungary throughout the Early Modern period. The articles of the 1790 diet set out that the diet should meet at least once every 3 years, but, since the diet was called by the Habsburg monarchy, this promise was not kept on several occasions thereafter.

After the 1848 revolution, the emperor revoked Hungary's constitution and assumed absolute control. Franz Joseph divided the country into four distinct territories: Hungary, Transylvania, Croatia-Slavonia, and Vojvodina. German and Bohemian administrators managed the government, and German became the language of administration and higher education. The non-Magyar minorities of Hungary received little for their support of Austria during the turmoil. A Croat reportedly told a Hungarian: "We received as a reward what the Magyars got as a punishment."

Hungarian public opinion split over the country's relations with Austria. Some Hungarians held out hope for full separation from Austria; others wanted an accommodation with the Habsburgs, provided that they respected Hungary's constitution and laws. Ferenc Deák, leader of the Address Party (later Liberal Party) became the main advocate for accommodation. Deak upheld the legality of the April laws and argued that their amendment required the Hungarian Diet's consent. He also held that the dethronement of the Habsburgs was invalid. As long as Austria ruled absolutely, Deak argued, Hungarians should do no more than passively resist illegal demands. On the other hand, Hungarian leftists led by Kalman Ghyczy and Kalman Tisza presented a more hardline solution of full Hungarian independence.

Parallel to developments in Hungary, Croatia was balancing the fight against the Empire's absolutism and rising Hungarian nationalism. Two main parties represented in the Croatian Parliament were the People's Liberal Party, gathering most of the elites in the country such as

the bishop Josip Juraj Strossmayer and the poet and politician Ivan Mažuranić. On the other hand was the Croatian Party of Rights, led by Ante Starčević and Eugen Kvaternik, who desired full independence of Croatia under any means. Both parties wished to incorporate the progressively more obsolete Military Frontier into Kingdom of Croatia. The military ranks of Croatian Kingdom have historically been loyal to the Emperor including the current ban Josip Šokčević and general Petar Preradović recently promoted to nobility by the Emperor who also payed off his debt.

ECONOMY

Compared to the other great powers of Europe, most of the Austrian Empire still relied heavily on the agricultural sector. The degree of industrialisation also varied strongly between the provinces of the empire.

Even though Austria itself still had a large agricultural sector, it profited from the natural resources of the Alps. Mining industries focused on coal, but the rarer graphite, lead and zinc in addition to large silver mines were able to fuel the industrial development of the Austrian heartland, which was only matched by the lands of the Bohemian crown by 1864. Outside of basic heavy industry, an arms sector had established itself in the duchy of Steyr in Austria, producing firearms, sabres and bayonets on a large scale. Most railways of the empire originated from Vienna, connecting Austria and its industrial base to the Bohemian and Galician lands, resources and labour supply through the Emperor Ferdinand Northern Railway and with the Austrian Southern Railway company linking the capital to Trieste and other Adriatic ports. Both railways were purely private ventures, the shares of which were sold on the Vienna stock market.

As mentioned previously, the lands of the Bohemian crown were already well developed, making use of their iron and coal deposits to supply heavy industry and in part capitalising on former Galician serfs as a cheap workforce.

Hungary lacked the industrial base of the previously mentioned provinces, but instead profited significantly from the freedom for serf established in 1849, which forced many smaller noble estates to sell their lands either to the peasantry or larger noble houses. The latter managed to use this to mass-produce foodstuffs and linen for export, as opposed to focusing on subsistence farming, a venture having its resurgence in part due to the reduction of trade barriers on the side of the empire's western neighbours. The magnates further enhanced the efficiency of their farms by establishing a Hungarian railroad, which after the failed revolution was seized by the imperial authorities but sold off to Austrian companies to the dismay of the magnates after the Austro-Sardinian war.

The fourth economically relevant territory were the Kingdoms of Croatia, Slavonia and the respective military frontiers, which while being the second least industrialised provinces sported a profitable agricultural sector. With the focus on cattle, the main source of income for the region could be found in silk and tobacco plantations and vineyards. Different corns, hemp and flax were also grown; however, they did not match the relevance of the other crops.

As previously mentioned, the province of Galicia mainly shone with its supply of manpower, providing a major recruiting ground for the imperial armies and growing industries. Outside salt mines around Krakow and the construction of forts along the Russian border, subsistence farming was the main profession in the territory.

At last, the Kingdom of Lombardy-Venetia, of which by 1864 only Venetia and the lands to its east remained, are an agriculturally dominated area, growing wine and staple foods. The city

of Venice itself had long lost its relevance as a trade city, remaining a merely cultural metropolis without its former riches and glory.

MILITARY

Your armed forces in the in the Austrian Empire are the "Kaiserliche Armee". The organizational structure of you armed land forces has been established decades ago and in the eyes of its officers still holds true its operational values, as seen lately in the contributions towards the war against Denmark. Before the war against Denmark, the Austrian military was caught off guard by French and Italian troops, and the army, under the command of the Kaiser himself, was defeated decisively at Solferino, after losing all previous battles as well.

The Kaiserliche Armee is under the command of a single governmental body ruling over the entirety of the Empire. Command language in all units is German and every soldier is required to learn the 100 most used commands in German to be able to execute his daily tasks as well as follow orders on the battlefield.

The situation within the Army and Navy is that of careful optimism - the recent victory against Denmark did much to raise moral, but not enough to completely remove the effects of the defeat to Italy and France a few years back. With the unstable political situation and the indecisiveness of the Kaiser on the constitutional approach of the Empire, the military commanders are unsure of what is to come and how a future military will look like. Therefore, most of the development and restructuring is postponed, while conservative fight for a more centralized government, while liberal and representatives of the not German population (mostly Hungarians) are pushing for a more federalized constitution of the empire. Only around 2.5% of your total expenses aren devoted to the military, a relatively small figure compared to other European Powers.

ORGANISATION

The King and Emperor is the highest command authority for all the armed forces. It is his inherit right to appoint into office and revoke the "Kriegsminister" (Minister of War) and all Officer ranks.

He is also the only institution of the empire entitled to declare war. Military command of the troops lies with the General Chief of Staff. The "Kriegsminister" and his ministry of war, on the other, hand were in charge of the army administration. They also carry out regular inspections of the troops and oversee all military research and development for the regular forces. The army consists of twelve Korps. Each Korps is made up by approximately

- 2-3 infantry divisions
- 1-3 cavalry divisions
- 1-2 field artillery division
- 0-1 siege artillery division
- Logistics division, mainly transport units
- Administrative Staff
- Infrastructural Staff

The Korps (listed according to numbering) are based in

1. Vienna

2. Graz
3. Budapest
4. Pozsony
5. Temesvar
6. Prague
7. Leitmeritz
8. Przemysl
9. Lemberg
10. Zagreb
11. Croatian/Slavonian Military Frontier
12. Krakow

The detailed composition of these Korps can be provided to the Cabinet as needed. Each Korps consists of 40,000 men on average. All together the land forces include around 480,000 men, of which a third are non-combatant support units. There is a general draft for all male citizens older than 21 of the empire. Depending on the commitment made by the draftee it varies from a servicetime of 1 -12 years. In case of full mobilization, all male citizens from 19 to 42 are to be drafted into service.

The Navy main base is located in Trieste. The Ministry of Marine was established in 1862, finally separating it from the army but combining it with the merchant fleet. It consists of mainly sailing vessels. The renewal of the fleet with modern steam-powered-only ships is underway, however there are almost non ready for service, as sailors and officers alike are still being trained and ships being built in shipyards (Pula, Trieste, Venice). Currently two of these Ironclads are built in these shipyards.

The Navy had an encounter with the danish navy during the recent conflict. The two steam frigates Schwarzenberg and Radetzky were damaged during the fight, but they still managed to break the Danish blockade of German North Sea ports, therefore contributing vitally to the overall victory of the combined troops of Prussia and Austria in this conflict over Schleswig. There is also a small but powerful unit on Lago di Garda bordering italy consisting of 6 modern steam powered gunboats, 2 large armed steam paddleboats, 6 sailboats, and 8 unarmed scout boats. All of this was supported by large amounts of artillery and 2 floating artillery barges.

WEAPONS AND EQUIPMENT

The main weapon of the infantry is still the front loading percussion muskets (Lorenz 1854). In addition to firearms, most of the units are outfitted with sabers of varying specifications, depending on the unit and usage of the sabres. Handguns are, like their musket counterpart, muzzle-loading, one shot weapons.

The artillery units were similarly equipped concerning the individual's weaponry. Most common artillery pieces are siege mortars, a 15cm howitzer and 12cm, 15cm and 18cm cannons.

PROBLEMS

With an organizational structure like the one seen above, it should come with no surprise that within the armed forces of the Empire a variety of languages are used. Regiments are considered "german" if most of its soldiers are fluent with the language. The same counts for other ethnicities and language groups. About half of the regiments in the Army are considered "german". The rest was such a mix of ethnicities, that no common language could be established.

Next to the "regiment languages" there was a general service language. The service language, used to communicate between administrative bodies, was German. The same is true the navy. However the non-German regiments frequently do not use German as command language, but their native tongue. This bears the potential for disaster, if mixed units are to be deployed alongside. If this should be allowed or prohibited is still a disputed matter.

As can easily be seen, the diversity of language makes an efficient management of the armed forces a difficult task. Ethnic tensions within the Empire might have a facsimile within the armed forces, as soldiers are recruited from all parts of the Empire.

CABINET GOALS AND DYNAMICS

Dynamics

The Habsburg cabinet has the most chaotic internal dynamics of the three cabinets. Alliances often cross national lines as loyalty is often balanced between the emperor and one's own people. There are several groups that are loyal to the Emperor. First, the Emperor's inner circle wishes to keep as much power vested within the Habsburg royal family as possible. Then, there are those who see the Emperor as the balancing figurehead for their wants, such as moderate nationalists, military personnel, and rich bourgeoisie. On the other hand, many strands of liberals, higher nobility, and hardline nationalists would like to see Emperor's power erode. Dealing with national agendas is going to be the key for cabinet's success

In foreign policy, Austria has traditionally dominated the German states and struggled with France for continental domination as well as being the primary defence of Europe against the Ottomans. However, things have changed. Prussia is a direct challenger to Austrian dominance within the German Confederation. Italy is a new nation which has territorial claims to Austrian lands, Russia has been one of the main continental powers since the Napoleonic wars, the Ottomans are no longer a serious threat.

Economically, Austria is also lagging behind other European big powers. Prussia was catching up quickly with industrialization through its massive railroad expansion program, whereas Austrian economy and society are still mostly reliant on agricultural land-owning nobility. Delegates would need to consider dealing with internal dynamics before venturing into foreign affairs. Balancing cabinet needs with personal goals will therefore be challenging.

Goals

First goal of the Austrian cabinet is to solve its internal tension in a mutually agreeable manner. Once that is through, the next on the line is maintaining Austrian primacy over other German states. This has to be done while keeping in mind how to better the position of Austria relative to other European states. You will have to choose how to pursue these policy goals. Which road will you take to strike the balance between pro-Habsburg factions and nationalists - to centralise and be more "German", to divide the crown, or to federalize the Empire? Will you

use diplomacy or warfare? Whose alliances will you seek? These questions will have to be answered by you in order to succeed.

CONCLUSIONS

Europe in the 1860s was a dynamic continent, and we certainly hope this crisis will be the same. Whether you are in the Prussian, Austrian, or French cabinet you will have to deal with internal issues if you wish to succeed on the European stage. Here are some takeaways from the study guide you might want to consider for drafting a plan, be it your individual character narrative or for the advancement of your cabinet:

1. How would you, as an important character, work towards your cabinet's goals but not to upset too much the balance of power / Concert of Europe that other external powers start to intervene?
2. How would you play with, or avoid, to your advantage, the grassroot opinion of the masses especially that after the past decades Romantic Nationalism is now on its peak and the desire to unify (for Germans) is an existential question?
3. How would you utilize, invent, exploit, or even steal the latest advances in technology and military for your personal and government's progress? And finally
4. How would you court external powers as well as domestic or regional players to ensure that in the case of a military campaign you will secure enough economic and logistic resources that your war machines would not succumb to supply failures, desertion, or unrest at home? Keep in mind the German customs union (*Zollverein*) as well as the Industrial Revolution that is picking up pace, creating problems (and opportunities) from displacement of rural population into urban?

Final words: remember your loyalties, both to the state and your ideology. Keep your goals in sight and work towards them. Build up slowly towards a massive endgame. Forge alliances of comfort and betray them if necessary. But whatever you do, remember that you write your story. Historical accuracy does not play a part in deciding the outcome of the crisis. It is up to you to redraw the political, but also ideological, map of Europe. We hope you will enjoy this crisis, and remember, there is no such thing as an idea too crazy as long as you build it up over time, thus having solid foundation to execute it during committee sessions in Hamburg.

Until then, Enjoy discovering the world of Crisis!