



UNIT

3

An Era of European Imperialism

1800–1914

The *P*eriod in Perspective

The period of world history from 1800 to 1914 was characterized by two major developments: the growth of industrialization and Western domination of the world. The Industrial Revolution became one of the major forces for change, leading Western civilization into the industrial era that has characterized the modern world. At the same time, the Industrial Revolution created the technological means, including new weapons, by which the West achieved domination over much of the rest of the world.

Primary Sources Library

See pages 776–777 for primary source readings to accompany Unit 3.



Use *The World History Primary Source Document Library CD-ROM* to find additional primary sources about *An Era of European Imperialism*.



▲ Zulu lodging



► Zulu king Cetewayo meeting with British ambassadors



“The world’s surface is limited, therefore the great object should be to take as much of it as possible.”

—Cecil John Rhodes

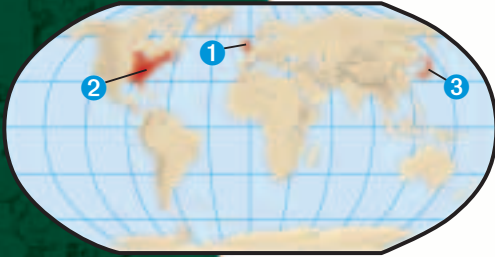


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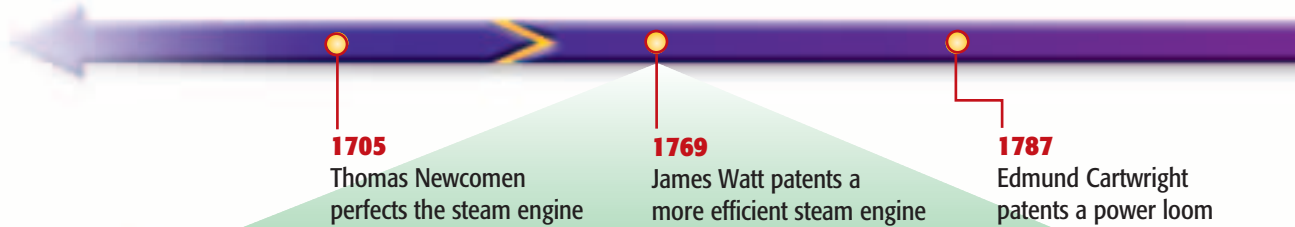
UNIT 3

Looking Back...



Industrialization

The rise of industry changed the world forever. So dramatic were the changes that historians have labeled the period the Industrial Revolution. Although the revolution began in Britain, it eventually touched every nation on Earth.



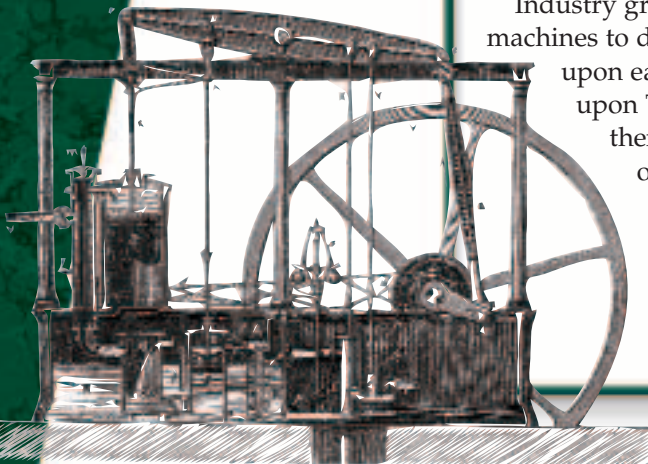
1 Great Britain

Workshop of the World

The birth of industry needed certain preconditions: the technology, incentive, and money to build machines; a labor force to run them; raw materials and markets to make the system profitable; and efficient farms to feed a new group of workers. By the early 1700s, Great Britain possessed all these conditions.

Industry grew from the innovations of individuals who developed machines to do work formerly done by humans and animals. Inventors built upon each other's ideas. For example, in 1769 James Watt improved upon Thomas Newcomen's primitive steam engine. Other inventors then adapted Watt's engine to run cloth-making machines. Business owners soon brought machines and workers together in factories.

By the 1800s, industry had catapulted Great Britain into a position of world leadership. "[Britain has] triumphantly established herself as the workshop of the world," boasted one leader. Soon, however, America would be humming with its own workshops.



James Watt's steam engine



to See Ahead



Samuel Slater's mill

2 The United States

The Revolution Spreads

Great Britain prohibited the export of machines and machine operators. In 1789, however, a factory supervisor named Samuel Slater escaped by disguising himself as a farmhand and boarding a ship to New York. Working from memory, Slater built a cotton mill in Rhode Island in 1793.

Soon after, the United States began churning out its own industrial inventors. Standardized parts and the assembly line led to mass production—a concept that would revolutionize people's lives around the globe.

1793

Samuel Slater opens the first machine-run cotton mill in the U.S.

1855

Henry Bessemer patents an inexpensive method of producing steel

1913

Henry Ford uses assembly lines to mass produce cars

1914

Japan expands foreign trade

3 Japan

The Search for Markets

In 1853, the Industrial Revolution traveled to Japan in the form of a fleet of United States steamships sent to open the islands to trade. "What we had taken as a fire at sea," recalled one Japanese observer, "was really smoke coming out of the smokestacks."

The military power produced by United States industry shook the Japanese. They temporarily gave in to American trade demands, but they also vowed that they too would possess industry. By 1914, Japan's merchant fleet was the sixth largest in the world, and its trade had increased one hundredfold in value in 50 years.



Matthew Perry's steamship in Tokyo Bay

Why It Matters

The increase in industry made it necessary to find new sources of raw materials and new markets for manufactured goods. **How could competition for resources and markets lead to the wars of the twentieth century?**



CHAPTER 12

Industrialization and Nationalism

1800–1870

Key Events

As you read this chapter, look for the key events in the development of industrialization and nationalism.

- The Industrial Revolution saw a shift from an economy based on farming and handi-crafts to an economy based on manufacturing by machines and industrial factories.
- Three important ideologies—conservatism, nationalism, and liberalism—emerged to play an important role in world history.
- Romanticism and realism reflected changes in society in Europe and North America.

The Impact Today

The events that occurred during this time period still impact our lives today.

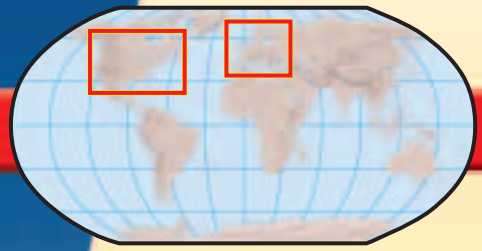
- The early conflicts between workers and employers produced positive effects for workers in modern society.
- The Industrial Revolution replaced many handcrafted items with mass-produced items, many of which we still use today.
- Nationalism has had a profound effect on world developments in the twentieth century.



World History—Modern Times Video The Chapter 12 video, “The Romantic Era,” chronicles cultural and social changes in nineteenth-century Europe.

The Clermont, built by Robert Fulton

1807
Robert Fulton builds the first paddle-wheel steamboat



1800

1810

1820

1830

1814
Congress of Vienna meets

1830
First public railway line opens in Britain





Coalbrookdale by Night by Philippe Jacques de Loutherbourg Artists painted the dramatic changes brought on by the Industrial Revolution.

*Francis I,
Austrian emperor*



1848
Revolutions erupt in Europe

1865
U.S. Confederate troops surrender

1871
German unification achieved

1840

1850

1860

1870

1837
Victoria becomes queen of Great Britain



Queen Victoria

1853
Crimean War begins

1861
Czar Alexander II frees the Russian serfs



Czar Alexander II of Russia

HISTORY Online

Chapter Overview

Visit the *Glencoe World History—Modern Times* Web site at wh.mt.glencoe.com and click on **Chapter 12—Chapter Overview** to preview chapter information.

CLICK HERE

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A Story That Matters



Austrian emperor Francis I (left) hosted the Congress of Vienna.

The Congress of Vienna

In the fall of 1814, hundreds of foreigners began to converge on Vienna, the capital city of the Austrian Empire. Many of these foreigners were members of European royalty—kings, archdukes, princes, and their wives—accompanied by their political advisers and scores of servants.

Their congenial host was the Austrian emperor Francis I, who was quite willing to spend a fortune to entertain the visitors. A Festivals Committee arranged entertainment on a daily basis for nine months. Francis I never tired of providing Vienna’s guests with glittering balls, hunting parties, picnics, hot-air balloon displays, and sumptuous feasts.

A banquet for forty tables of guests was held every night in the Hofburg Palace. Then, too, there were the concerts. Actors, actresses, singers, and composers were engaged to entertain, and Beethoven even composed a new piece of music for the event. One participant remembered, “Eating, fireworks, public illuminations. For eight or ten days, I haven’t been able to work at all. What a life!”

Of course, not every waking hour was spent in pleasure during this gathering of notables, known to history as the Congress of Vienna. These people were representatives of all the states that had fought Napoleon. Their real business was to arrange a final peace settlement after almost 10 years of war.

Why It Matters

The Congress of Vienna tried to find a way to undo the changes brought about by the French Revolution and Napoleon. However, the new forces of change had become too powerful to be contained. They called forth political revolutions that would shake Europe for years to come. At the beginning of the nineteenth century, another kind of revolution began to transform the economic and social structure of Europe. The Industrial Revolution led to the industrialization that shaped the modern world.

History and You List several inventions developed during your lifetime. What are their purposes? Do they save time or make manual work easier? Have they impacted society as a whole? Have there been any negative consequences to any of these inventions? Write a paper summarizing your thoughts.

SECTION 1

The Industrial Revolution

Guide to Reading

Main Ideas

- Coal and steam replaced wind and water as new sources of energy and power.
- Cities grew as people moved from the country to work in factories.

Key Terms

capital, entrepreneur, cottage industry, puddling, industrial capitalism, socialism

People to Identify

James Watt, Robert Fulton

Places to Locate

Liverpool, Manchester

Preview Questions

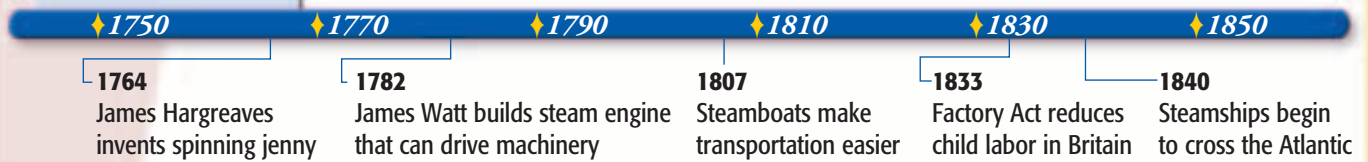
1. What technological changes led to the development of industrialization?
2. What was the social impact of the Industrial Revolution in Europe, especially on women and children?

Reading Strategy

Categorizing Information Use a table like the one below to name important inventors mentioned in this section and their inventions.

Inventors	Inventions

Preview of Events



Voices from the Past



Factory workers

In 1844, a factory in Berlin posted the following rules for its workers:

“The normal working day begins at all seasons at 6 A.M. precisely and ends, after the usual break of half an hour for breakfast, an hour for dinner and half an hour for tea, at 7 P.M. . . . Workers arriving 2 minutes late shall lose half an hour’s wages; whoever is more than 2 minutes late may not start work until after the next break, or at least shall lose his wages until then. . . . No worker may leave his place of work otherwise than for reasons connected with his work. . . . All conversation with fellow-workers is prohibited . . .”

— *Documents of European Economic History*, Sidney Pollard and Colin Holmes, 1968

The new factories of the Industrial Revolution demanded a rigorous discipline to force employees to become accustomed to a new kind of work life.

The Industrial Revolution in Great Britain

TURNING POINT

As you will learn, during the Industrial Revolution, Europe saw a shift from an economy based on farming and handicrafts to an economy based on manufacturing by machines in factories.

The Industrial Revolution began in Great Britain in the 1780s and took several decades to spread to other Western nations. Several factors contributed to make Great Britain the starting place.



Young woman at work in a textile mill

Contributing Factors First, agricultural practices in the eighteenth century had changed. Expansion of farmland, good weather, improved transportation, and new crops, such as the potato, led to a dramatic increase in the food supply. More people could be fed at lower prices with less labor.

Second, with more abundant food supplies, the population grew. In the 1700s, Parliament passed laws that allowed large landowners to fence off common lands. As a result of this **enclosure movement**, many peasants were forced to move to towns to work in the new factories.

Third, Britain had a ready supply of money, or **capital**, to invest in the new industrial machines and the factories needed to house them. Many British people were very wealthy. Some, called **entrepreneurs**, were interested in finding new business opportunities and new ways to make profits.

Fourth, natural resources were plentiful in Britain. The country's many rivers provided water power and a means for transporting raw materials and finished products from one place to another. Britain also had abundant supplies of coal and iron ore, essential in manufacturing processes.

Finally, a supply of markets gave British manufacturers a ready outlet for their goods. Britain had a vast colonial empire, and British ships could transport goods anywhere in the world. In addition, because of population growth and cheaper food at

home, domestic markets were increasing. A growing demand for cotton cloth led British manufacturers to begin to look for ways to increase production.

Changes in Cotton Production In the eighteenth century, Great Britain had surged ahead in the production of inexpensive cotton goods. The manufacture of cotton cloth was a two-step process. First, spinners made cotton thread from raw cotton. Then, weavers wove the thread into cloth on looms. In the eighteenth century, these tasks were done by individuals in their rural homes—a production method known as **cottage industry**.

A series of technological advances in the eighteenth century made cottage industry inefficient. First, the invention of the “flying shuttle” made weaving faster. Now, weavers needed more thread from spinners because they could produce cloth at a faster rate.

In 1764 James Hargreaves had invented a spinning machine called the spinning jenny, which met this need. Other inventors made similar contributions. The spinning process became much faster. In fact, thread was being produced faster than weavers could use it.

Another invention made it possible for the weaving of cloth to catch up with the spinning of thread. This was a water-powered loom invented by Edmund Cartwright by 1787. It now became more efficient to bring workers to the new machines and have them work in factories near streams and rivers, which were used to power many of the early machines.

The cotton industry became even more productive when the steam engine was improved in the 1760s by a Scottish engineer, **James Watt**. In 1782, Watt made changes that enabled the engine to drive machinery. Steam power could now be used to spin and weave cotton. Before long, cotton mills using steam engines were found all over Britain. Because steam engines were fired by coal, they did not need to be located near rivers.

British cotton cloth production increased dramatically. In 1760, Britain had imported 2.5 million pounds (1.14 million kg) of raw cotton, which was used to produce cloth in cottage industries. In 1787, the British imported 22 million pounds (10 million kg) of cotton, most of it spun on machines. By 1840, 366 million pounds (166 million kg) of cotton were imported each year. By this time, cotton cloth was Britain's most valuable product. British cotton goods were sold everywhere in the world and were produced mainly in factories.





The Coal and Iron Industries The steam engine was crucial to Britain’s Industrial Revolution. For fuel, the engine depended on coal, a substance that seemed then to be unlimited in quantity. The success of the steam engine increased the need for coal and led to an expansion in coal production. New processes using coal aided the transformation of another industry—the iron industry.

Britain’s natural resources included large supplies of iron ore. At the beginning of the eighteenth century, the basic process of producing iron had changed little since the Middle Ages. It became possible to produce a better quality of iron in the 1780s, when Henry Cort developed a process called **puddling**.

In this process, coke, which was derived from coal, was used to burn away impurities in crude iron, called pig iron, and produce an iron of high quality. The British iron industry boomed. In 1740, Britain had produced 17,000 tons (15,419 t) of iron. After Cort’s process came into use in the 1780s, production jumped to nearly 70,000 tons (63,490 t). In 1852, Britain produced almost 3 million tons (2.7 million t)—more iron than was produced by the rest of the world combined. The high-quality iron was used to build new machines, especially new means of transportation.

Railroads In the eighteenth century, more efficient means of moving resources and goods developed. All-weather roads improved year-round transport, but it was the railroads that were particularly important.

In 1804, the first steam-powered locomotive ran on an industrial rail-line in Britain. It pulled 10 tons (9 t) of ore and 70 people at 5 miles (8.05 km) per hour. Better locomotives followed. One called the *Rocket* was used on the first public railway line, which opened in 1825 and extended 32 miles

(51.5 km) from **Liverpool** to **Manchester**, England. The *Rocket* sped along at 16 miles (25.7 km) per hour while pulling a 40-ton (36-t) train. Within 20



years, locomotives were able to reach 50 miles (80.5 km) per hour, an incredible speed to passengers. In 1840, Britain had almost 2,000 miles (3,218 km) of railroads. By 1850, 6,000 miles (9,654 km) of railroad track crisscrossed much of that country.

Building railroads created new jobs for farm laborers and peasants. Less expensive transportation led to lower-priced goods, thus creating larger markets. More sales meant more factories and more machinery. Business owners could reinvest their profits in new equipment, adding to the growth of the economy. This type of regular, ongoing economic growth became a basic feature of the new industrial economy.

The New Factories The factory was another important element in the Industrial Revolution. From its beginning, the factory created a new labor system. Factory owners wanted to use their new machines constantly. So, workers were forced to work in shifts to keep the machines producing at a steady rate.

Early factory workers came from rural areas, where they were used to periods of hectic work, followed by periods of inactivity. Early factory owners therefore had to create a system of work discipline in which employees became used to working regular hours and doing the same work over and over. For example, adult workers were fined for being late and were dismissed for serious misconduct, especially for being drunk. Child workers were often beaten.

One early industrialist said that his aim was “to make the men into machines that cannot err.”

✓ Reading Check Describing

How were adult and child factory workers disciplined?



Picturing History

In the *Rocket* (left), it took just two hours to travel 32 miles (51.5 km). **How does this picture capture people’s sense of wonder about train travel?**



The Spread of Industrialization

By the mid-nineteenth century, Great Britain had become the world's first and richest industrial nation. It produced one-half of the world's coal and manufactured goods. Its cotton industry alone in 1850 was equal in size to the industries of all other European countries combined.

Europe The Industrial Revolution spread to the rest of Europe at different times and speeds. First to be industrialized in continental Europe were Belgium, France, and the German states.

In these places, governments were very active in encouraging the development of industrialization. For example, governments provided funds to build roads, canals, and railroads. By 1850, a network of iron rails had spread across Europe.

North America An Industrial Revolution also occurred in the new nation of the United States. In 1800, six out of every seven American workers were farmers, and there were no cities with more than 100,000 people. Between 1800 and 1860, the

population in the United States grew from about 5 million to 30 million people. Cities grew, too. Nine cities had populations over 100,000. Only 50 percent of American workers were farmers.

The United States was a large country in the 1800s. A transportation system to move goods across the nation was vital. Thousands of miles of roads and canals were built to link east and west. **Robert Fulton** built the first paddle-wheel steamboat, the *Clermont*, in 1807. By 1860, a thousand steamboats plied the Mississippi River and made transportation easier on the Great Lakes and along the Atlantic coast.

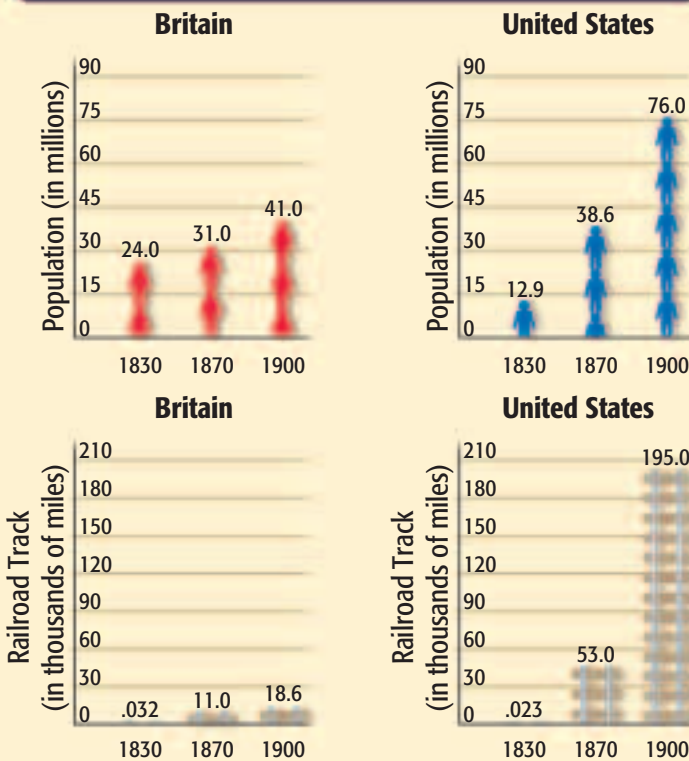
Most important in the development of an American transportation system was the railroad. It began with fewer than 100 miles (160.9 km) of track in 1830. By 1860, about 30,000 miles (48,270 km) of railroad track covered the United States. The railroad turned the United States into a single massive market for the manufactured goods of the Northeast.

Labor for the growing number of factories in the Northeast came chiefly from the farm population. Many of the workers in the new factories of New England were women. Indeed, women and girls made up a substantial majority of the workers in large textile (cotton and wool) factories.

Factory owners sometimes sought entire families, including children, to work in their factories. One advertisement in a newspaper in the town of Utica, New York, read: "Wanted: A few sober and industrious families of at least five children each, over the age of eight years, are wanted at the cotton factory in Whitestown. Widows with large families would do well to attend this notice."

✓ Reading Check Evaluating Why was the railroad important to the American Industrial Revolution?

Comparing Britain and the United States*



*As you study these comparisons, keep in mind the vast difference in area encompassed by Britain and the United States. Britain (England, Scotland, Wales, and Ireland) totals 94,548 square miles (244,879 sq km); the continental United States totals 3,717,796 square miles (9,629,091 sq km).

Graph Skills

Britain was the leading industrial nation in the early and mid-nineteenth century, but countries such as the United States eventually surpassed Britain in industrial production.

- 1. Comparing** How did Britain's population growth, from 1830 to 1870 and 1870 to 1900, compare to the United States's growth? How did Britain's expansion in railroad tracks compare to that of the United States during the same period?
- 2. Problem Solving** Which country had the highest percentage of railroad track miles in comparison to total square miles in 1870? In 1900?



Geography Skills

The Industrial Revolution spread throughout nineteenth-century Europe.

- 1. Interpreting Maps** What was the predominate industry in the United Kingdom?
- 2. Applying Geography Skills** What patterns do you see in the distribution of the major industries? What geographical factors could account for these patterns?

Social Impact in Europe

The Industrial Revolution drastically changed the social life of Europe and the world. This change was evident by 1850 in the growth of cities and the emergence of two new social classes: the industrial middle class and the industrial working class.

Growth of Population and Cities In 1750, European population stood at an estimated 140 million. By 1850, the population had almost doubled to 266 million. Population growth was so startling that in 1798 Thomas Malthus wrote a famous book arguing that the population would eventually out-

strip humans' ability to feed themselves. Population grew because of a decline in death rates, wars, and diseases, such as smallpox and plague. People ate better and were more resistant to disease. Famine was almost unknown. The 1840s potato famine proved an exception. The Irish depended on the potato for food. When a fungus infected the crop, almost a million people died. A million more emigrated, many to the United States.

City and town growth from roughly 1800 to 1850 was directly related to industrialization. By 1850,



especially in Great Britain and Belgium, cities were rapidly becoming home to many industries. With the steam engine, factory owners did not need water power and could locate their plants in cities. People moved from the country to the cities to find work, traveling on the new railroads.

In 1800, Great Britain had one major city, London, with a population of 1 million, and six cities with populations between 50,000 and 100,000. Fifty years later, London's population had swelled to 2,363,000. Nine cities had populations over 100,000, and 18 cities had populations between 50,000 and 100,000. Over 50 percent of the British population lived in towns and cities by 1850. Urban populations also grew in other European countries, but less dramatically.

The rapid growth of cities in the first half of the nineteenth century led to pitiful living conditions for many of the inhabitants. Eventually, these conditions prompted urban reformers to call on local governments to clean up their cities. The calls for reform

would be answered in the second half of the nineteenth century.

The Industrial Middle Class The Middle Ages had seen the rise of commercial capitalism, an economic system based on trade. With the Industrial Revolution came the rise of **industrial capitalism**, an economic system based on industrial production. Industrial capitalism produced a new middle-class group—the industrial middle class.

In the Middle Ages, the bourgeois, or middle-class person, was the burgher or town dweller, who may have been active as a merchant, official, artisan, lawyer, or intellectual. Later, the term *bourgeois* came to include people involved in industry and banking, as well as professionals, such as lawyers, teachers, doctors, and government officials.

The new industrial middle class was made up of the people who built the factories, bought the machines, and figured out where the markets were.

THE WAY IT WAS

YOUNG PEOPLE IN . . .

The Industrial Revolution

Children had been an important part of the family economy in preindustrial times. They worked in the fields or at home in cottage industries. In the Industrial Revolution, however, child labor was exploited.

Children represented a cheap supply of labor. In 1821, 49 percent of the British people were under 20 years of age. Hence, children made up a large pool of workers. Children were paid only about one-sixth to one-third of what a man was paid.

The owners of cotton factories in England found child labor especially useful.



Young laborers

Children had a delicate touch as spinners of cotton. Their smaller size made it easier for them to move under machines to gather loose cotton. Furthermore, they were more easily trained to factory work than adults.

In the cotton factories in 1838, children under the age of 18 made up 29 percent of the total workforce. In cotton mills, children as young as age seven worked 12 to 15 hours per day, six days a week.

Discipline was often harsh. A report from a British parliamentary inquiry into the condition of child factory workers in 1838 stated:

Their qualities included initiative, vision, ambition, and often, greed. One manufacturer said, "Getting of money . . . is the main business of the life of men."

The Industrial Working Class The Industrial Revolution also created an industrial working class. Industrial workers faced wretched working conditions. Work hours ranged from 12 to 16 hours a day, six days a week, with a half-hour for lunch and dinner. There was no security of employment and no minimum wage.

The worst conditions were in the cotton mills, where temperatures were especially harmful. One report noted that "in the cotton-spinning work, these creatures are kept, 14 hours in each day, locked up, summer and winter, in a heat of from 80 to 84 degrees." Mills were also dirty, dusty, dangerous, and unhealthy.

Conditions in the coal mines were also harsh. Although steam-powered engines were used to lift

coal from the mines to the top, inside the mines men still bore the burden of digging the coal out. Horses, mules, women, and children hauled coal carts on rails to the lift. Dangerous conditions, including cave-ins, explosions, and gas fumes (called "bad air"), were a way of life. The cramped conditions in mines—tunnels were often only three or four feet high—and their constant dampness led to deformed bodies and ruined lungs.

In Britain, women and children made up two-thirds of the cotton industry's workforce by 1830. However, the number of children declined under the Factory Act of 1833, which set 9 as the minimum age for employment. Children between 9 and 13 could work only 9 hours a day; those between 13 and 18 could work 12 hours.

As the number of children employed declined, their places were taken by women. Women made up 50 percent of the labor force in British textile factories before 1870. They were mostly unskilled labor and

“It is a very frequent thing at Mr. Marshall's . . . for Mr. Horseman to start the mill earlier in the morning than he formerly did; and provided a child should be drowsy, the overlooker walks round the room with a stick in his hand, and he touches that child on the shoulder, and says, 'Come here.' In a corner of the room there is an iron cistern; it is filled with water; he takes this boy, and takes him up by the legs, and dips him over head in the cistern, and sends him to work for the remainder of the day. . . . What means were taken to keep the children to their work?—Sometimes they would tap them over the head, or nip them over the nose, or give them a pinch of snuff, or throw water in their faces, or pull them off where they were, and job them about to keep them awake.”

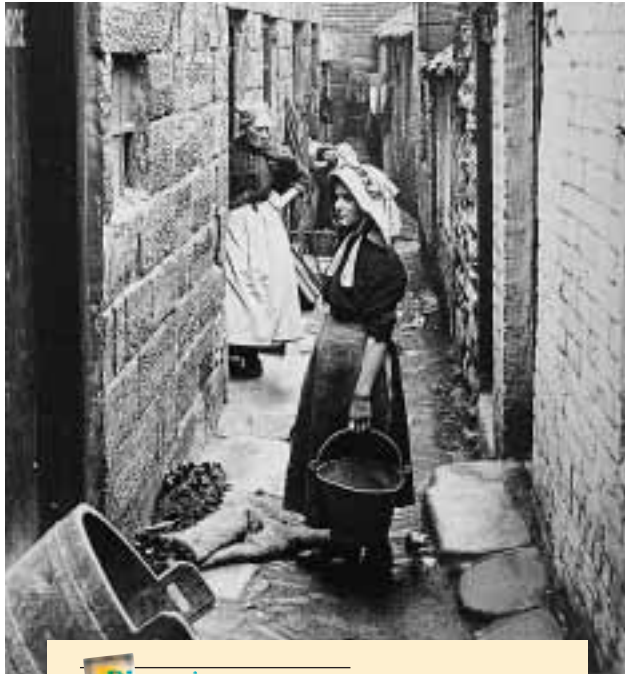
The same inquiry also reported that, in some factories, children were often beaten with a rod or whip to keep them at work.



Supervisors made sure children worked continuously.

CONNECTING TO THE PAST

- 1. Identifying** What kind of working conditions did children face in the factories during the early Industrial Revolution?
- 2. Analyzing** Why did factory owners permit such conditions and such treatment of children?
- 3. Writing about History** What are conditions like today for factory workers? Write an essay contrasting current conditions with those of 100 years ago.



Picturing History

A late nineteenth-century photo shows housing conditions in England. **How did the Industrial Revolution contribute to such scenes?**

were paid half or less than half of what men received. Excessive working hours for women were outlawed in 1844.

The employment of children and women was in large part carried over from an earlier pattern. Husband, wife, and children had always worked together in cottage industry. The laws that limited the work hours of children and women thus gradually led to a new pattern of work.

Men were now expected to earn most of the family income by working outside the home. Women, in contrast, took over daily care of the family and performed low-paying jobs, such as laundry work, that could be done in the home. Working at home for pay made it possible for women to continue to help with the family's financial survival.

Early Socialism In the first half of the nineteenth century, the pitiful conditions created by the Industrial Revolution gave rise to a movement known as **socialism**. Socialism is a system in which society, usually in the form of the government, owns and controls some means of production, such as factories and utilities.

Early socialism was largely the idea of intellectuals who believed in the equality of all people and who wanted to replace competition with cooperation in industry. To later socialists, especially the followers of Karl Marx, such ideas were merely impractical dreams. The later socialists contemptuously labeled the earlier theorists utopian socialists. The term has lasted to this day.

Robert Owen, a British cotton manufacturer, was one utopian socialist. He believed that humans would show their natural goodness if they lived in a cooperative environment. At New Lanark in Scotland, Owen transformed a squalid factory town into a flourishing community. He created a similar community at New Harmony, Indiana, in the United States in the 1820s, which failed.

Reading Check **Describing** What type of working conditions did the industrial workers face?

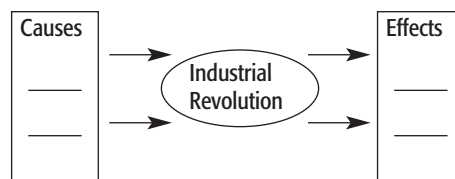
SECTION 1 ASSESSMENT

Checking for Understanding

- Define** capital, entrepreneur, cottage industry, puddling, industrial capitalism, socialism.
- Identify** enclosure movement, James Watt, Robert Fulton.
- Locate** Liverpool, Manchester.
- Describe** the importance of the railroads in the growth of cities in Europe and North America.
- List** the members of the new industrial middle class.

Critical Thinking

- Cause and Effect** Analyze how the Industrial Revolution changed the way families lived and worked.
- Cause and Effect** Use a diagram like the one below to list the causes and effects of the Industrial Revolution.



Analyzing Visuals

- Examine** the picture of a female textile worker shown on page 364 of your text. How does this picture reflect the role that women played in the Industrial Revolution?

Writing About History

- Informative Writing** You are a nineteenth-century journalist. Write a brief article depicting the working conditions in cotton mills and an explanation of how owners defend such conditions.

SECTION 2

Reaction and Revolution

Guide to Reading

Main Ideas

- The great powers worked to maintain a conservative order throughout Europe.
- The forces of liberalism and nationalism continued to grow and led to the revolutions of 1848.

Key Terms

conservatism, principle of intervention, liberalism, universal male suffrage

People to Identify

Klemens von Metternich, Louis-Napoleon

Places to Locate

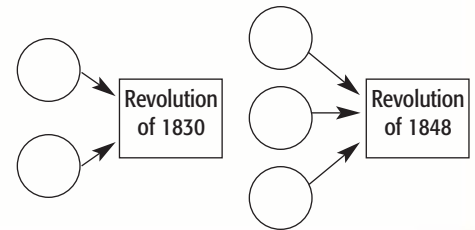
Vienna, Prague

Preview Questions

1. What did the Congress of Vienna try to accomplish?
2. Why did revolutions occur in 1848?

Reading Strategy

Cause and Effect Use a chart like the one below to identify the causes of the revolutions in France in 1830 and 1848.



Preview of Events



Klemens von Metternich confers with Napoleon.

Voices from the Past

Prince Klemens von Metternich, the foreign minister of the Austrian Empire, wrote:

“The first principle to be followed by the monarchs, united as they are by the coincidence of their desires and opinions, should be that of maintaining the stability of political institutions against the disorganized excitement which has taken possession of men’s minds. . . . The first and greatest concern for the immense majority of every nation is the stability of the laws, and their uninterrupted action—never their change. Therefore, let the governments govern, let them maintain the groundwork of their institutions, both ancient and modern; for it is at all times dangerous to touch them.”

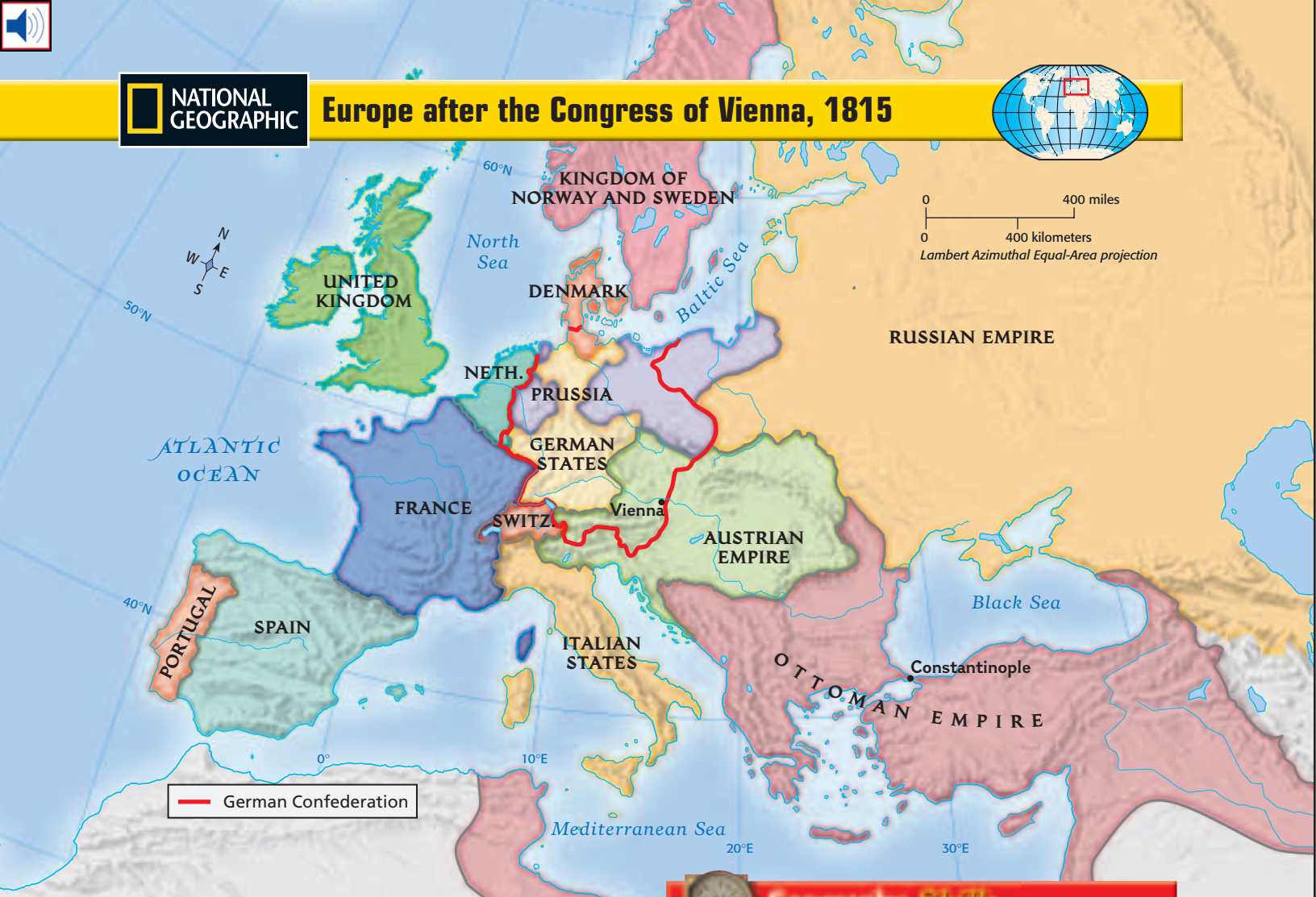
—*Memoirs*, Alexander Napler, trans., 1881

Metternich worked tirelessly for 30 years to repress the “revolutionary seed,” as he called it, that had been spread by Napoleon Bonaparte.

The Congress of Vienna

After the defeat of Napoleon, European rulers moved to restore the old order. This was the goal of the great powers—Great Britain, Austria, Prussia, and Russia—when they met at the **Congress of Vienna** in September 1814 to arrange a final peace settlement. The leader of the congress was the Austrian foreign minister, Prince **Klemens von Metternich** (MEH•tuhr•NIHK).

Metternich claimed that he was guided at **Vienna** by the principle of legitimacy. This meant that lawful monarchs from the royal families that had ruled before Napoleon would be restored to their positions of power in order to keep peace and stability in Europe. This had already been done in France with the



Geography Skills

The Congress of Vienna tried to create a new balance of power in Europe.

- 1. Interpreting Maps** Within what political boundaries is Vienna located? Of what nation is Vienna the capital today?
- 2. Applying Geography Skills** Compare this map to the map of Napoleonic Europe shown on page 349 of your text. What territories that belonged to the French Empire in 1812 were *not* part of France after the Congress of Vienna? What land did Russia gain?

restoration of the Bourbon monarchy. However, the principle of legitimacy was largely ignored elsewhere.

Practical considerations of power were addressed at the Congress of Vienna. The great powers rearranged territories in Europe, believing that this would form a new balance of power. The powers at Vienna wanted to keep any one country from dominating Europe. This meant balancing political and military forces that guaranteed the independence of the great powers. To balance Russian territorial gains, for example, new territories were given to Prussia and Austria.

✓ Reading Check Explaining What was the “principle of legitimacy”?

The Conservative Order

The arrangements worked out at the Congress of Vienna were a victory for rulers who wanted to contain the forces of change unleashed by the French Revolution. These rulers, like Metternich, believed in the political philosophy known as **conservatism**.

Conservatism is based on tradition and social stability. Most conservatives at that time favored obedience to political authority and believed that organized religion was crucial to order in society. Conservatives hated revolutions and were unwilling to accept demands from people who wanted either individual rights or representative governments.

To maintain the new balance of power, Great Britain, Russia, Prussia, and Austria (and later France) agreed to meet at times in conferences to take steps that would maintain the peace in Europe. These meetings came to be called the Concert of Europe.



Eventually, the great powers adopted a **principle of intervention**. According to this principle, the great powers had the right to send armies into countries where there were revolutions in order to restore legitimate monarchs to their thrones. Britain refused to accept the principle, arguing that the great powers should not interfere in the internal affairs of other states. Austria, Prussia, Russia, and France, however, used military forces to crush revolutions in Spain and Italy, as well as to restore monarchs to their thrones.

 **Reading Check Summarizing** What were the views of the conservative movement?

Forces of Change

Between 1815 and 1830, conservative governments throughout Europe worked to maintain the old order. However, powerful forces for change—known as liberalism and nationalism—were also at work.

Liberalism **Liberalism**, a political philosophy based largely on Enlightenment principles, held that people should be as free as possible from government restraint.

Liberals had a common set of political beliefs. Chief among them was the protection of civil liberties, or the basic rights of all people. These civil liberties included equality before the law and freedom of assembly, speech, and press. Liberals believed that all these freedoms should be guaranteed by a written document, such as the American **Bill of Rights**.

Most liberals wanted religious toleration for all, as well as separation of church and state. Liberals also demanded the right of peaceful opposition to the government. They believed that laws should be made by a representative assembly (legislature) elected by qualified voters.

Many liberals, then, favored government ruled by a constitution such as in a constitutional monarchy, in which a king is regulated by a constitution. They believed that written constitutions would guarantee the rights they sought to preserve.

Liberals did not, however, believe in a democracy in which everyone had a right to vote. They thought that the right to vote and hold office should be open only to men of property. Liberalism, then, was tied to middle-class men, especially industrial middle-class men, who wanted voting rights for themselves so that they could share power with the landowning classes. The liberals feared mob rule and had little desire to let the lower classes share that power.

Nationalism Nationalism was an even more powerful force for change in the nineteenth century than was liberalism. Nationalism arose out of people's awareness of being part of a community with common institutions, traditions, language, and customs. This community is called a nation. For nationalists, people owe their chief political loyalty to the nation rather than to a dynasty, city-state, or other political unit.

Nationalism did not become a popular force for change until the French Revolution. From then on, nationalists came to believe that each nationality should have its own government. Thus, the Germans, who were separated into many principalities, wanted national unity in a German nation-state with one central government. Subject peoples, such as the Hungarians, wanted the right to establish their own governments rather than be subject to the Austrian emperor.

Nationalism, then, was a threat to the existing political order. A united Germany, for example, would upset the balance of power set up at the Congress of Vienna in 1815. At the same time, an independent Hungarian state would mean the breakup of the Austrian Empire. Conservatives feared such change and thus tried hard to repress nationalism.

In the first half of the nineteenth century, nationalism found a strong ally in liberalism. Most liberals

People In History

Klemens von Metternich

1773–1859—Austrian statesman

There was no greater symbol of conservatism in the first half of the nineteenth century than Prince Klemens von Metternich. Born in the Rhineland of Germany, he fled to Austria in 1794 and joined the Austrian diplomatic service. He was made Austrian foreign minister in 1809.

An experienced diplomat, Metternich was conceited and self-assured. He described himself in his memoirs in 1819: "There is a wide sweep about my mind. I am always above and beyond the preoccupation of most public men; I cover a ground much vaster than they can see. I cannot keep myself from saying about twenty times a day: 'How right I am, and how wrong they are.'" When revolution erupted in 1848, Metternich fled to England.





Picturing History

In 1830, Charles X of France dissolved the French legislature and suspended freedom of the press. Revolution followed. The rebels (left) demanded a republic. [How was Louis-Philippe involved in these events?](#)



Louis-Philippe

believed that freedom could only be possible in people who ruled themselves. Each group of people should have its own state: no state should attempt to dominate another state. The association with liberalism meant that nationalism had a wider scope.

Revolutionary Outbursts Beginning in 1830, the forces of change—liberalism and nationalism—began to break through the conservative domination of Europe. In France, liberals overthrew the Bourbon monarch Charles X in 1830 and established a constitutional monarchy. Political support for the new monarch, Louis-Philippe, a cousin of Charles X, came from the upper middle class.

Nationalism was the chief force in three other revolutions the same year. Belgium, which had been annexed to the former Dutch Republic in 1815, rebelled and created an independent state. Revolutions in Poland and Italy were less successful. Russian forces crushed the Poles' attempt to free themselves from foreign domination. Austrian troops marched into Italy and put down revolts in a number of Italian states.

✓ Reading Check Evaluating How did liberalism and nationalism begin to break through the conservative domination of Europe?

The Revolutions of 1848

Despite liberal and nationalist successes in France and Belgium, the conservative order still dominated much of Europe as the midpoint of the nineteenth

century approached. However, the forces of liberalism and nationalism continued to grow. These forces of change erupted once more in the revolutions of 1848.

Another French Revolution Revolution in France was again the spark for revolution in other countries. Severe economic problems beginning in 1846 brought untold hardship in France to the lower middle class, workers, and peasants. At the same time, members of the middle class clamored for the right to vote. The government of Louis-Philippe refused to make changes, and opposition grew.

The monarchy was finally overthrown in 1848. A group of moderate and radical republicans set up a provisional, or temporary, government. The republicans were people who wished France to be a republic—a government in which leaders are elected.

The provisional government called for the election of representatives to a Constituent Assembly that would draw up a new constitution. Election was to be by **universal male suffrage**—that is, all adult men could vote.

The provisional government also set up national workshops to provide work for the unemployed. From March to June, the number of unemployed enrolled in the national workshops rose from about 66,000 to almost 120,000. This emptied the treasury and frightened the moderates, who reacted by closing the workshops on June 21.

The workers refused to accept this decision and poured into the streets. In four days of bitter and





bloody fighting, government forces crushed the working-class revolt. Thousands were killed, and thousands more were sent to the French prison colony of Algeria in northern Africa.

The new constitution, ratified on November 4, 1848, set up a republic, called the Second Republic. The Second Republic had a single legislature elected by universal male suffrage. A president, also chosen by universal male suffrage, served for four years. In the elections for the presidency held in December 1848, Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte (called **Louis-Napoleon**), the nephew of the famous French ruler, won a resounding victory.

Trouble in the German States News of the 1848 revolution in France led to upheaval in other parts of Europe. The Congress of Vienna in 1815 had recognized the existence of 38 independent German states (called the **German Confederation**). Of these, Austria and Prussia were the two great powers. The other states varied in size.

In 1848, cries for change led many German rulers to promise constitutions, a free press, and jury trials. Indeed, an all-German parliament, called the Frankfurt Assembly, was held to fulfill a liberal and nationalist dream—the preparation of a constitution for a

new united Germany. Deputies to the parliament were elected by universal male suffrage.

Ultimately, however, the Frankfurt Assembly failed to achieve its goal. The members drafted a constitution but had no real means of forcing the German rulers to accept it. German unification was not achieved.

Revolutions in Central Europe The Austrian Empire also had its problems. The empire was a **multinational state**—a collection of different peoples, including Germans, Czechs, Magyars (Hungarians), Slovaks, Romanians, Slovenes, Poles, Croats, Serbians, and Italians. Only the Hapsburg emperor provided a common bond. The Germans, though only a quarter of the population, played a leading role in governing the Austrian Empire.

In March 1848, demonstrations in the major cities led to the dismissal of Metternich, the Austrian foreign minister. In Vienna, revolutionary forces took control of the capital and demanded a liberal constitution. To appease the revolutionaries, the government gave Hungary its own legislature. In Bohemia, the Czechs clamored for their own government.

Austrian officials had made concessions to appease the revolutionaries but were determined to reestablish their control over the empire. In June 1848, Austrian



CONNECTIONS Past To Present

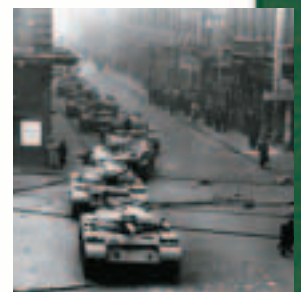
Russian Troops in Hungary

On November 1, 1956, Imre Nagy, leader of Hungary, declared Hungary a free nation and promised new elections. Hungary was at that time under the control of the Soviet Union. Fearing that these elections would mean the end of Communist rule in Hungary, Nikita Khrushchev, leader of the Soviet Union, reacted dramatically.

On November 4, two hundred thousand Soviet (mostly Russian) troops and four thousand Soviet tanks invaded Budapest, Hungary's capital city. An estimated fifty thousand Hungarians died on that day. Nagy fled but was later arrested and executed. The Hungarian Revolution of 1956 had failed.

To Hungarians who knew their country's history, the use of Russian troops to crush their independence had an all-too-familiar ring. In 1848, Louis Kossuth had led a revolt that forced Hungary's Austrian rulers to grant Hungary its own legislature and a separate national army. In April 1849, the Hungarian legislature declared Hungary a republic. Kossuth was made the new president.

Meanwhile, the Austrians were unwilling to give up their control of Hungary. Unable to subdue the Hungarians, the Austrian government asked the Russians for help. Czar Nicholas I of Russia, who feared revolution anywhere, gladly agreed. A Russian army of 140,000 men crushed the Hungarian forces, and Kossuth fled abroad. The Hungarian Revolution of 1848–1849 had failed.



▲ Soviet tanks in Hungary

Comparing Past and Present

There have been other, more recent revolts against repressive governments that have been met with force, violence, and loss of life. Review recent news-magazines to locate one such event. Write a historical account of the event, using both primary and secondary sources.



NATIONAL GEOGRAPHIC **Revolutions in Europe, 1848–1849**

Center of revolution

0 300 miles
0 300 kilometers
Chamberlin Trimetric projection

50°N
45°N
40°N
5°E 10°E 20°E

PRUSSIA: Berlin, Warsaw
RUSSIA: Warsaw
BELGIUM: Paris
FRANCE: Paris, Lyon
GERMANY: Frankfurt, Dresden, Prague, Munich
AUSTRIAN EMPIRE: Vienna, Buda, Milan, Venice
PAPAL STATES: Rome, Livorno
KINGDOM OF THE TWO SICILIES: Naples, Palermo, Sicily
OTTOMAN EMPIRE
GREECE
Sardinia, Corsica

Geography Skills

In 1848 and 1849, revolution spread through Europe.

- Interpreting Maps** How far south did the revolutions of 1848 to 1849 extend?
- Applying Geography Skills** Pose and answer one question about the pattern in world history shown on this map.

military forces crushed the Czech rebels in **Prague**. By the end of October, the rebels in Vienna had been defeated as well. With the help of a Russian army of 140,000 men, the Hungarian revolutionaries were finally subdued in 1849. The revolutions in the Austrian Empire had failed.

Revolts in the Italian States The Congress of Vienna had set up nine states in Italy, including the Kingdom of Piedmont in the north; the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies (Naples and Sicily); the Papal States; a handful of small states; and the northern provinces of Lombardy and Venetia, which were now part of the Austrian Empire.

In 1848, a revolt broke out against the Austrians in Lombardy and Venetia. Revolutionaries in other Italian states also took up arms and sought to create liberal constitutions and a unified Italy. By 1849, however, the Austrians had reestablished complete control over Lombardy and Venetia. The old order also prevailed in the rest of Italy.

Throughout Europe in 1848, popular revolts started upheavals that had led to liberal constitutions and liberal governments. However, moderate liberals and more radical revolutionaries were soon divided over their goals, and so conservative rule was reestablished. Even with the reestablishment of conservative governments, however, the forces of nationalism and liberalism continued to influence political events.

Reading Check Identifying What countries experienced revolutions in 1848?

SECTION 2 ASSESSMENT

Checking for Understanding

- Define** conservatism, principle of intervention, liberalism, universal male suffrage.
- Identify** Congress of Vienna, Klemens von Metternich, Bill of Rights, Louis-Napoleon, German Confederation, multinational state.
- Locate** Vienna, Prague.
- Explain** the effect of conservatism in 1848.
- List** the different peoples living in the Austrian Empire.

Critical Thinking

- Analyze** How did the social and economic changes from the Industrial Revolution contribute to the spread of liberalism?
- Compare and Contrast** Use a table like the one below to compare and contrast the ideologies of conservatism, liberalism, and nationalism.

Conservatism	Liberalism	Nationalism

Analyzing Visuals

- Examine** the portrait of Louis-Philippe shown on page 374. How does this portrait reflect Louis-Philippe's position in France? How is this portrait different from that of earlier French rulers like Louis XIV or Napoleon?

Writing About History

- Expository Writing** Select one of the following ideologies: conservatism, liberalism, or nationalism. Write an essay in which you identify contemporary ideas that are influenced by that ideology.

Revolutionary Excitement

THE EXCITEMENT WITH WHICH GERMAN liberals and nationalists received the news of the revolution in France are captured well in the *Reminiscences* of Carl Schurz. After the failure of the German revolution of 1848, Schurz went to the United States, where he fought in the Civil War and became secretary of the interior.

“One morning, toward the end of February, 1848, I sat quietly in my attic-chamber, working hard at my tragedy of “Ulrich von Hutten” [a sixteenth-century German knight], when suddenly a friend rushed breathlessly into the room, exclaiming: “What, you sitting here! Do you not know what has happened?”

“No; what?”

“The French have driven away Louis Philippe and proclaimed the republic.”

I threw down my pen—and that was the end of “Ulrich von Hutten.” I never touched the manuscript again. We tore down the stairs, into the street, to the market-square, the accustomed meeting-place for all the student societies after their midday dinner. Although it was still forenoon, the market was already crowded with young men talking excitedly. . . . We were dominated by a vague feeling as if a great outbreak of elemental forces had begun, as if an earthquake was impending of which we had felt the first shock, and we instinctively crowded together. . . .

The next morning there were the usual lectures to be attended. But how profitless! The voice of the professor sounded like a monotonous drone coming from far away. What he had to say did not seem to concern us. At last we closed with a sigh the notebook and went away, pushed by a feeling that now we had something more important to do—to devote ourselves to the affairs of the fatherland. . . . Now had arrived in Germany the day for the establishment of “German Unity,” and the founding of a great, powerful national German Empire. In the first line the meeting of a national parliament. Then the



Carl Schurz and the Frankfurt Assembly

demands for civil rights and liberties, free speech, free press, the right of free assembly, equality before the law, a freely elected representation of the people with legislative power . . . the word *democracy* was soon on all tongues. . . . Of course the regeneration of the fatherland must, if possible, be accomplished by peaceable means. Like many of my friends, I was dominated by the feeling that at last the great opportunity had arrived for giving to the German people the liberty which was their birthright and to the German fatherland its unity and greatness, and that it was now the first duty of every German to do and to sacrifice everything for this sacred object.”

—Carl Schurz, *Reminiscences*

Analyzing Primary Sources

1. Why were Schurz and other Germans so excited about the revolution in France?
2. Would you be willing to sacrifice everything for your freedom and liberty? Why or why not?



SECTION 3

National Unification and the National State

Guide to Reading

Main Ideas

- The rise of nationalism contributed to the unification of Italy and Germany.
- While nationalism had great appeal, not all peoples achieved the goal of establishing their own national states.

Key Terms

militarism, kaiser, plebiscite, emancipation, abolitionism, secede

People to Identify

Giuseppe Garibaldi, Otto von Bismarck, Queen Victoria, Czar Alexander II

Places to Locate

Piedmont, Alsace, Lorraine, Budapest

Preview Questions

1. What were the roles of Camillo di Cavour and Otto von Bismarck in the unification of their countries?
2. What caused the American Civil War?

Reading Strategy

Summarizing Information Use a table like the one below to list the changes that took place in the indicated countries during the nineteenth century.

Great Britain	France	Austrian Empire	Russia

Preview of Events

◆ 1850

◆ 1855

◆ 1860

◆ 1865

◆ 1870

◆ 1875

1852

Second Empire begins in France

1861

Kingdom of Italy proclaimed

1867

The British North America Act is passed

1870

Franco-Prussian War begins

1871

William I becomes kaiser of a united Germany



Giuseppe Garibaldi

Voices from the Past

On June 13, 1860, the *Times* of London made the following report:

“In the afternoon, Garibaldi made a tour of inspection round [Palermo]. The popular idol [Garibaldi], in his red flannel shirt, with a loose colored handkerchief around his neck, was walking on foot among those cheering, laughing, crying, mad thousands; and all his few followers could do was to prevent him from being bodily carried off the ground. The people threw themselves forward to kiss his hands, or at least, to touch the hem of his garment. Children were brought up, and mothers asked on their knees for his blessing.”

—The *Times* of London, June 13, 1860

Garibaldi, hailed by the Italians as a great hero, was one of the most colorful figures involved in the unification of Italy.

Breakdown of the Concert of Europe

The revolutions of 1848 had failed. By 1871, however, both Germany and Italy would be unified. The changes that made this possible began with the Crimean War.

The Crimean War was the result of a long-standing struggle between Russia and the Ottoman Empire. The Ottoman Empire had long controlled much of the territory in the Balkans in southeastern Europe. By the beginning of the

nineteenth century, however, the Ottoman Empire was in decline, and its authority over its territories in the Balkans began to weaken.

Russia was especially interested in expanding its power into Ottoman lands in the Balkans. This expansion would give Russia access to the Dardanelles and thus the Mediterranean Sea. Russia would become the major power in eastern Europe and could challenge British naval control of the eastern Mediterranean. Other European powers feared Russian ambitions and had their own interest in the decline of the Ottoman Empire.

In 1853, the Russians invaded the Turkish Balkan provinces of Moldavia and Walachia. In response, the Ottoman Turks declared war on Russia. Great Britain and France, fearful of Russian gains, declared war on Russia the following year. This conflict came to be called the Crimean War.

The Crimean War was poorly planned and poorly fought. Eventually, heavy losses caused the Russians to seek peace. By the Treaty of Paris, signed in March 1856, Russia agreed to allow Moldavia and Walachia to be placed under the protection of all the great powers.

The effect of the Crimean War was to destroy the Concert of Europe. Austria and Russia had been the two chief powers maintaining the status quo in the first half of the nineteenth century. They were now enemies because Austria, which had its own interests in the Balkans, had refused to support Russia in the Crimean War. A defeated and humiliated Russia withdrew from European affairs for the next 20 years. Austria was now without friends among the great powers. This new international situation opened the door for the unification of both Italy and Germany.

Reading Check Explaining How did the Crimean War destroy the Concert of Europe?

Italian Unification

In 1850, Austria was still the dominant power on the Italian Peninsula. After the failure of the revolution of 1848, people began to look to the northern Italian state of **Piedmont** for leadership in achieving the unification of Italy. The royal house of Savoy ruled the Kingdom of Piedmont, which included Piedmont, the island of Sardinia, Nice, and Savoy. The ruler of the kingdom, beginning in 1849, was King Victor Emmanuel II.

The king named Camillo di Cavour his prime minister in 1852. Cavour was a dedicated political leader. As prime minister, he pursued a policy of economic

expansion that increased government revenues and enabled the kingdom to equip a large army. Cavour, however, knew that Piedmont's army was not strong enough to defeat the Austrians. He would need help, so he made an alliance with the French emperor Louis-Napoleon. He then provoked the Austrians into invading Piedmont in 1859.

The final result of the conflict that followed was a peace settlement that gave the French Nice and Savoy. Cavour had promised Nice and Savoy to the French for making the alliance. Lombardy, which had been under Austrian control, was given to Piedmont, while Austria retained control of Venetia. Cavour's success caused nationalists in some other northern Italian states (Parma, Modena, and Tuscany) to overthrow their governments and join their states to Piedmont.



Geography Skills

From 1859 to 1870, Italy struggled to become a unified country.

- Interpreting Maps** Looking at the map, explain the sequence of events in Italian unification.
- Applying Geography Skills** What geographic factors help to explain why the state of Piedmont became the leader in the struggle to unify Italy?



Meanwhile, in southern Italy, a new leader of Italian unification had arisen. **Giuseppe Garibaldi**, a dedicated Italian patriot, raised an army of a thousand volunteers—called Red Shirts because of the color of their uniforms.

The Kingdom of the Two Sicilies (Sicily and Naples) was ruled by a branch of the Bourbon dynasty, and a revolt had broken out in Sicily against the king. Garibaldi's forces landed in Sicily and, by the end of July 1860, controlled most of the island. In August, Garibaldi and his forces crossed over to the mainland and began a victorious march up the Italian Peninsula. Naples and the entire Kingdom of the Two Sicilies fell in early September.

Garibaldi chose to turn over his conquests to Piedmont. On March 17, 1861, a new kingdom of Italy was proclaimed under King Victor Emmanuel II. The

task of unification was not yet complete, however. Venetia in the north was still held by Austria, and Rome was under the control of the pope, supported by French troops.

The Italians gained control of Venetia as a result of a war between Austria and Prussia. In the Austro-Prussian War of 1866, the new Italian state became an ally of Prussia. Prussia won the war, and the Italians were given Venetia.

In 1870, during the Franco-Prussian War, French troops withdrew from Rome. Their withdrawal enabled the Italian army to annex Rome on September 20, 1870. Rome became the capital of the united Italian state.

Reading Check Explaining How did Giuseppe Garibaldi contribute to Italian unification?



German Unification

After the failure of the Frankfurt Assembly to achieve German unification in 1848 and 1849, Germans looked to Prussia for leadership in the cause of German unification. In the course of the nineteenth century, Prussia had become a strong and prosperous state. Its government was authoritarian. The Prussian king had firm control over both the government and the army. Prussia was also known for its **militarism**, or reliance on military strength.

In the 1860s, King William I tried to enlarge the Prussian army. When the Prussian legislature refused to levy new taxes for the proposed military changes, William I appointed a new prime minister, Count **Otto von Bismarck**.

Bismarck has often been seen as the foremost nineteenth-century practitioner of *realpolitik*—the “politics of reality,” or politics based on practical matters rather than on theory or ethics. Bismarck was open about his strong dislike of anyone who opposed him.

Geography Skills

On January 18, 1871, the united German states formed the Second German Empire.

- 1. Interpreting Maps** Looking at the map, explain the sequence of German unification.
- 2. Applying Geography Skills** Compare this map with the map of Italian unification shown on page 379. What geographic factors influenced the process of unification for both Germany and Italy?



“The great questions of the day are decided . . . by blood and iron.”

—Otto von Bismarck

Bismarck stands at the center as William I is named Emperor William I of the Second German Empire.

After his appointment, Bismarck ignored the legislative opposition to the military reforms. He argued instead that “Germany does not look to Prussia’s liberalism but to her power.”

Bismarck proceeded to collect taxes and strengthen the army. From 1862 to 1866, Bismarck governed Prussia without approval of the parliament. In the meantime, he followed an active foreign policy, which soon led to war.

After defeating Denmark with Austrian help in 1864 and gaining control of the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, Bismarck created friction with the Austrians and forced them into a war on June 14, 1866. The Austrians, no match for the well-disciplined Prussian army, were decisively defeated on July 3.

Prussia now organized the German states north of the Main River into a North German Confederation. The southern German states, which were largely Catholic, feared Protestant Prussia. However, they also feared France, their western neighbor. As a result, they agreed to sign military alliances with Prussia for protection against France.

Prussia now dominated all of northern Germany, but problems with France soon arose. Bismarck realized that France would never be content with a strong German state to its east because of the potential threat to French security.

In 1870, Prussia and France became embroiled in a dispute over the candidacy of a relative of the Prussian king for the throne of Spain. Bismarck took advantage of the misunderstandings between the French and Prussians to goad the French into

declaring war on Prussia on July 19, 1870. This conflict was called the Franco-Prussian War.

The French proved to be no match for the better led and better organized Prussian forces. The southern German states honored their military alliances with Prussia and joined the war effort against the French. Prussian armies advanced into France. At Sedan, on September 2, 1870, an entire French army and the French ruler, Napoleon III, were captured.

Paris finally surrendered on January 28, 1871, and an official peace treaty was signed in May. France had to pay 5 billion francs (about \$1 billion) and give up the provinces of **Alsace** and **Lorraine** to the new German state. The loss of these territories left the French burning for revenge.

Even before the war had ended, the southern German states had agreed to enter the North German Confederation. On January 18, 1871, Bismarck and six hundred German princes, nobles, and generals filled the Hall of Mirrors in the palace of Versailles, 12 miles outside Paris. William I of Prussia was proclaimed **kaiser**, or emperor, of the Second German Empire (the first was the medieval Holy Roman Empire).

German unity had been achieved by the Prussian monarchy and the Prussian army. The authoritarian and militaristic values of Prussia were triumphant in the new German state. With its industrial resources and military might, the new state had become the strongest power on the European continent.

 **Reading Check** **Summarizing** What events led to German unification?





CLICK HERE

Nationalism and Reform in Europe

While Italy and Germany were being unified, other states in Europe were also experiencing changes.

Great Britain Great Britain managed to avoid the revolutionary upheavals of the first half of the nineteenth century. In 1815, Great Britain was governed by aristocratic landowning classes, which dominated both houses of Parliament. In 1832, Parliament passed a bill that increased the number of male voters. The new voters were chiefly members of the industrial middle class. By giving the industrial middle class an interest in ruling Britain, Britain avoided revolution in 1848. In the 1850s and 1860s, Parliament continued to make both social and political reforms that helped the country to remain stable.

Another reason for Britain's stability was its continuing economic growth. By 1850, the British middle class was already prosperous as a result of the Industrial Revolution. After 1850, the working classes at last began to share some of this prosperity. Real wages for laborers increased more than 25 percent between 1850 and 1870.

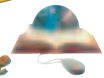
The British feeling of national pride was well reflected in **Queen Victoria**, whose reign from 1837 to 1901 was the longest in English history. Her sense of duty and moral respectability reflected the attitudes of her age, which has ever since been known as the Victorian Age.

France In France, events after the revolution of 1848 moved toward the restoration of the monarchy. Four years after his election as president in 1848, Louis-Napoleon returned to the people to ask for the restoration of the empire. In this **plebiscite**, or popular vote, 97 percent responded with a yes vote. On December 2, 1852, Louis-Napoleon assumed the title of Napoleon III, Emperor of France. (The first Napoleon had named his son as his successor and had given him the title of Napoleon II. Napoleon II never ruled France, however.) The Second Empire had begun.

The government of Napoleon III was clearly authoritarian. As chief of state, Napoleon III controlled the armed forces, police, and civil service. Only he could introduce legislation and declare war. The Legislative Corps gave an appearance of representative government, because the members of the group were elected by universal male suffrage for six-year terms. However, they could neither initiate legislation nor affect the budget.

Napoleon III completely controlled the government and limited civil liberties. Nevertheless, the

HISTORY
Online



Web Activity Visit the *Glencoe World History—Modern Times* Web site at wh.mt.glencoe.com and click on **Chapter 12—Student Web Activity** to learn more about Queen Victoria.



Napoleon III



History through Art

La Place Clichy by Eugene Galien-Laloue

To distract citizens from their loss of civil liberties, Napoleon III beautified the city of Paris.

How successful was this policy?



first five years of his reign were a spectacular success. To distract the public from their loss of political freedom, he focused on expanding the economy. Government subsidies helped foster the rapid construction of railroads, harbors, roads, and canals. Iron production tripled.

In the midst of this economic expansion, Napoleon III also carried out a vast rebuilding of the city of Paris. The old Paris of narrow streets and walls was replaced by a modern Paris of broad boulevards, spacious buildings, public squares, an underground sewage system, a new public water supply system, and gaslights. The new Paris served a military purpose as well. Broad streets made it more difficult for would-be rebels to throw up barricades and easier for troops to move rapidly through the city in the event of revolts.

In the 1860s, opposition to some of Napoleon's economic and governmental policies arose. In response, Napoleon III began to liberalize his regime. For example, he gave the legislature more power. In a plebiscite held in 1870, the French people gave Napoleon another victory. This triumph was short-lived, however. After the French were defeated in the Franco-Prussian War in 1870, the Second Empire fell.

The Austrian Empire As we have seen, nationalism was a major force in nineteenth-century Europe. However, one of Europe's most powerful states—the Austrian Empire—was a multinational empire that had been able to frustrate the desire of its ethnic groups for independence.

After the Hapsburg rulers crushed the revolutions of 1848 and 1849, they restored centralized, autocratic government to the empire. Austria's defeat at the hands of the Prussians in 1866, however, forced the Austrians to make concessions to the fiercely nationalistic Hungarians.

The result was the Compromise of 1867. This compromise created the dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary. Each of these two



Peasants had to pay for the poor-quality land they received from the Russian government.

components of the empire now had its own constitution, its own legislature, its own government bureaucracy, and its own capital (Vienna for Austria and **Budapest** for Hungary). Holding the two states together were a single monarch (Francis Joseph was both emperor of Austria and king of Hungary) and a common army, foreign policy, and system of finances.


In domestic affairs, then, the Hungarians had become an independent nation. The compromise, of course, did not satisfy the other nationalities that made up the multinational Austro-Hungarian Empire.

Russia At the beginning of the nineteenth century, Russia was overwhelmingly rural, agricultural, and autocratic. The Russian czar was still regarded as a divine-right monarch with unlimited power. The Russian government, based on soldiers, secret police, repression, and censorship, withstood the revolutionary fervor of the first half of the nineteenth century.

In 1856, however, as described earlier, the Russians suffered a humiliating defeat in the Crimean War. Even staunch conservatives now realized that Russia was falling hopelessly behind the western European powers. **Czar Alexander II** decided to make serious reforms.

Serfdom was the largest problem in czarist Russia. On March 3, 1861, Alexander issued an **emancipation** edict, which freed the serfs. Peasants could now own property and marry as they chose. The government provided land for the peasants by buying it from the



landlords.  (See page 776 to read excerpts from *Czar Alexander II's Imperial Decree to Free the Serfs in the Primary Sources Library*.)

The new land system, however, was not that helpful to the peasants. The landowners often kept the best lands for themselves. The Russian peasants soon found that they did not have enough good land to support themselves. Emancipation of the serfs, then, led not to a free, landowning peasantry, but to an unhappy, land-starved peasantry that largely followed old ways of farming.

Alexander II attempted other reforms as well, but he soon found that he could please no one. Reformers wanted more changes and a faster pace for change. Conservatives thought that the czar was trying to destroy the basic institutions of Russian society. When a group of radicals assassinated Alexander II in 1881, his son and successor, Alexander III, turned against reform and returned to the old methods of repression.

 **Reading Check** **Examining** How was Great Britain able to avoid a revolution in 1848?

Nationalism in the United States

The government under the U.S. Constitution had committed the United States to two of the major forces of the first half of the nineteenth century: liberalism and nationalism. National unity had not come easily, however.

Two factions had fought bitterly about the division of power in the new government. The Federalists had favored a strong central government. The Republicans, fearing central power, had wanted the federal

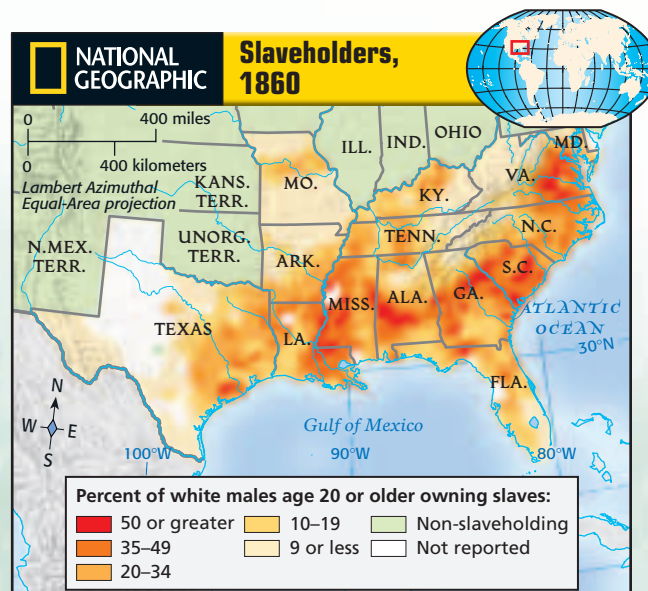
government to be subordinate to the state governments. These early divisions had ended with the War of 1812 against the British. A surge of national feeling had served to cover over the nation's divisions.


The election of Andrew Jackson as president in 1828 had opened a new era in American politics. Property qualifications for voting had been reduced. The right to vote was eventually extended to almost all adult white males.

By the mid-nineteenth century, slavery had become a threat to American national unity. There were four million African American slaves in the South by 1860, compared with one million in 1800.

The South's economy was based on growing cotton on plantations, chiefly by slave labor. The invention of the cotton gin by Eli Whitney in 1793 had made it easier to clean cotton of its seeds, thus increasing cotton production. The South was determined to maintain both its cotton economy and plantation-based slavery. At the same time, **abolitionism**, a movement to end slavery, arose in the North and challenged the Southern way of life.

As opinions over slavery grew more divided, compromise became less possible. Abraham Lincoln said in a speech in Illinois in 1858 that "this government cannot endure permanently half slave and half free."



 **Geography Skills**

By 1860, there were four million African American slaves in the South.

1. Applying Geography Skills What conclusions can you draw about economic conditions in the southern United States in 1860 from looking at this map?



Slavery challenged national unity in the United States.



When Lincoln was elected president in November 1860, the die was cast.

On December 20, 1860, a South Carolina convention voted to **secede**, or withdraw, from the United States. In February 1861, six more Southern states did the same, and a rival nation—the Confederate States of America—was formed. In April, fighting erupted between North and South—the Union and the Confederacy.

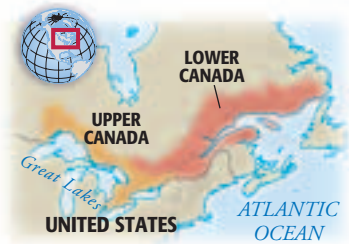
The American Civil War (1861 to 1865) was an extraordinarily bloody struggle. Over 600,000 soldiers died, either in battle or from deadly diseases spawned by filthy camp conditions. The Union, with more men and resources, gradually wore down the Confederacy. On January 1, 1863, Lincoln’s Emancipation Proclamation declared most of the nation’s slaves “forever free.” The surrender of Confederate forces on April 9, 1865, meant that the United States would be “one nation, indivisible.” National unity had prevailed in the United States.

✓ Reading Check Explaining How did the election of Andrew Jackson influence American politics?

The Emergence of a Canadian Nation

By the Treaty of Paris in 1763, signed at the end of the Seven Years’ War, Canada passed from the French to the British. By 1800, most of the Canadian people

favored more freedom from British rule. However, there were also serious differences among the colonists. Upper Canada (now Ontario) was mostly English speaking, whereas Lower Canada (now Quebec) was mostly French speaking.



After two short rebellions against the government broke out in Upper and Lower Canada in 1837 and 1838, the British moved toward change. In 1840, the British Parliament formally joined Upper and Lower Canada into the United Provinces of Canada. The United Provinces was not self-governed.

The head of Upper Canada’s Conservative Party, John Macdonald, became a strong voice for self-government. The British, fearful of American designs on Canada, finally gave in. In 1867, Parliament passed the **British North America Act**, which established a Canadian nation—the Dominion of Canada—with its own constitution. John Macdonald became the first prime minister of the Dominion. Canada now possessed a parliamentary system and ruled itself, although foreign affairs remained in the hands of the British government.

✓ Reading Check Describing How did the British North America Act change the government of Canada?

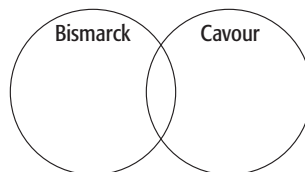
SECTION 3 ASSESSMENT

Checking for Understanding

- Define** militarism, kaiser, plebiscite, emancipation, abolitionism, secede.
- Identify** Giuseppe Garibaldi, Otto von Bismarck, Queen Victoria, Czar Alexander II, British North America Act.
- Locate** Piedmont, Alsace, Lorraine, Budapest.
- Explain** why you think Alexander III turned against the reforms of his father.
- List** the Prussian values and assets that caused the Second German Empire to become the strongest European state.

Critical Thinking

- Drawing Inferences** Explain how the forces of liberalism and nationalism affected events in the United States during the nineteenth century.
- Compare and Contrast** Use a Venn diagram to compare and contrast Bismarck’s and Cavour’s methods for achieving unification in Germany and Italy.



Analyzing Visuals

- Examine** the photographs of a peasant and a slave family shown on pages 383 and 384. Based on the visual evidence of the two photographs, how do you think the living conditions of Russian peasants compared to living conditions of slaves in the United States?

Writing About History

- Expository Writing** Write an essay comparing the events and outcomes of the rules of Bismarck and Napoleon III. What personal characteristics did each man have that contributed to his accomplishments?



CRITICAL THINKING SKILLBUILDER

Identifying an Argument

Why Learn This Skill?

In everyday conversation, the word **argument** refers to a conflict involving two or more opinions. However, in writing and in formal debate, an **argument** is the full presentation of a single opinion. An argument uses facts to support a particular opinion. After hearing these facts, it is then up to you to determine whether the argument is valid or not.

Learning the Skill

There are three basic elements to consider in an argument.

- **What is the thesis?** The main idea of an argument is its thesis, or the writer's basic position or viewpoint on the subject. In some arguments the thesis is stated explicitly. In others, you must read carefully to determine the writer's position.
- **What are the supporting reasons, examples, and facts?** The writer supports the thesis with reasons and supports the reasons with examples or facts.
- **What are its strengths and weaknesses?** Before accepting or rejecting an argument, evaluate its strengths and weaknesses. How well is each reason supported by facts and examples? Does the author's bias invalidate the argument?

Practicing the Skill

Read the following quotation published in 1842 in *L'Atelier (The Workshop)*, a Parisian newspaper. Then answer the following questions.

“Who has not heard of the women silkwormers . . . working fourteen to sixteen hours (except for one hour for both meals); always standing, without a single minute for repose [rest], putting forth an enormous amount of effort. And many of them have to walk a league or more, morning and evening, to get home, which is often a cause for moral disorder. Nor should we neglect to mention the danger that exists merely from working in these large factories, surrounded by wheels, gears, enormous leather belts that always threaten to seize you and pound you to



Men, women, and children working in a factory

pieces. There is not a factory in which some kind of accident has not happened—some woman worker caught by the hair or her clothing, and thereby pulverized; some mutilation of the fingers or the hands.”

- 1 What is the writer's thesis?
- 2 What reasons does the writer give to support this thesis?
- 3 What facts support the statement that danger exists for the workers in the workplace?
- 4 What is your reaction to the author's argument?

Applying the Skill

Find a recent article that states an argument about a political or historical issue. Identify the thesis of the argument and the major reasons and evidence supporting it. Decide whether you accept or reject this argument and explain why.



Glencoe's **Skillbuilder Interactive Workbook, Level 2**, provides instruction and practice in key social studies skills.

SECTION 4

Culture: Romanticism and Realism

Guide to Reading

Main Ideas

- At the end of the eighteenth century, romanticism emerged as a reaction to the ideas of the Enlightenment.
- The Industrial Revolution created a new interest in science and helped produce the realist movement.

Key Terms

romanticism, secularization, organic evolution, natural selection, realism

People to Identify

Ludwig van Beethoven, Louis Pasteur, Charles Darwin, Charles Dickens

Places to Locate

London, France

Preview Questions

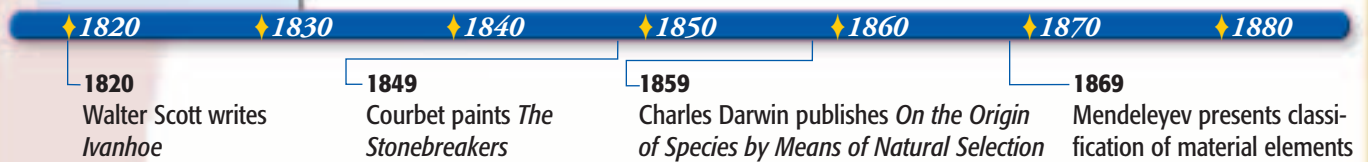
1. What were the major features of romanticism and realism?
2. How did the Scientific Revolution lead to secularization?

Reading Strategy

Summarizing Information Use a table like the one below to list popular literature from the romantic and realist movements.

Romanticism	Realism

Preview of Events



Charles Dickens

Voices from the Past

In *The Old Curiosity Shop*, Charles Dickens described the English mill town of Birmingham:

“A long suburb of red brick houses—some with patches of garden ground, where coal-dust and factory smoke darkened the shrinking leaves, and coarse rank flowers; and where the struggling vegetation sickened and sank under the hot breath of kiln and furnace . . . —a long, flat, straggling suburb passed, they came by slow degrees upon a cheerless region, where not a blade of grass was seen to grow; where not a bud put forth its promise in the spring; where nothing green could live but on the surface of the stagnant pools, which here and there lay idly sweltering by the black roadside.”

—Charles Dickens, *The Old Curiosity Shop*, 1840–1841

Dickens, a highly successful English novelist, realistically portrayed the material surroundings of his time, but an element of romanticism still pervaded his novels.

Romanticism

At the end of the eighteenth century, a new intellectual movement, known as **romanticism**, emerged as a reaction to the ideas of the Enlightenment. The Enlightenment had stressed reason as the chief means for discovering truth. The romantics emphasized feelings, emotion, and imagination as sources of knowing.



The romantics believed that emotion and sentiment were only understandable to the person experiencing them. In their novels, romantic writers created figures who were often misunderstood and rejected by society but who continued to believe in their own worth through their inner feelings.

Romantics also valued individualism, the belief in the uniqueness of each person. Many romantics rebelled against middle-class conventions. Male romantics grew long hair and beards and both men and women wore outrageous clothes to express their individuality.

Many romantics had a passionate interest in the past. They revived medieval architecture and built castles, cathedrals, city halls, parliamentary buildings (such as the Houses of Parliament in **London**), and even railway stations in a style called neo-Gothic. Literature, too, reflected this interest in the past. The novels of Walter Scott became best-sellers in the first half of the nineteenth century. *Ivanhoe*, in which Scott tried to evoke clashes between knights in medieval England, became his most popular novel. By focusing on their nations' past, many romantic

writers created literature that reflected the nineteenth century's fascination with nationalism.

The exotic and unfamiliar also attracted many romantics. This attraction gave rise to Gothic literature. Chilling examples are Mary Shelley's *Frankenstein* in Britain and Edgar Allen Poe's short stories of horror in the United States. Some romantics even sought the unusual in their own lives by exploring their dreams and nightmares and seeking altered states of consciousness.

The romantics viewed poetry as the direct expression of the soul. Romantic poetry gave expression to one of the most important characteristics of romanticism—its love of nature. Romantics believed that nature served as a mirror into which humans could look to learn about themselves. This is especially evident in the poetry of William Wordsworth, the foremost English romantic poet of nature. His experience of nature was almost mystical:

“One impulse from a vernal wood
May teach you more of man,
Of moral evil and of good,
Than all the sages can.”

The worship of nature also caused Wordsworth and other romantic poets to be critical of eighteenth-century science, which, they believed, had reduced nature to a cold object of study. To Wordsworth, the scientists' dry, mathematical approach left no room

for the imagination or for the human soul. The poet who left to the world “one single moral precept,” or principle, said Wordsworth, did more for the world than did scientists, who were soon forgotten. The monster created by Frankenstein in Mary Shelley's novel was a symbol of the danger of science's attempt to conquer nature. Many romantics were convinced that the emerging industrialization would cause people to become alienated from their inner selves and the natural world around them.

Like the literary arts, the visual arts were deeply affected by romanticism. Romantic artists shared at least two features. First, to them, all art was a reflection of

History through Architecture

Lights illuminate the Houses of Parliament and Big Ben in London. **What are the Gothic architectural elements of these buildings?**





Like his contemporary William Wordsworth, English artist John Constable sought to capture nature's dramatic beauty in his works. Constable's watercolor of Stonehenge from 1835 reflects the romantic emphasis on emotion over reason.

the artist's inner feelings. A painting should mirror the artist's vision of the world and be the instrument of the artist's own imagination. Second, romantic artists abandoned classical reason for warmth and emotion.

Eugène Delacroix (DEH•luh•KWAH) was one of the most famous romantic painters from **France**. His paintings showed two chief characteristics: a fascination with the exotic and a passion for color. His works reflect his belief that "a painting should be a feast to the eye."

To many romantics, music was the most romantic of the arts, because it enabled the composer to probe deeply into human emotions. Music historians have called the nineteenth century the age of romanticism. One of the greatest composers of all time, **Ludwig van Beethoven**, was the bridge between the classical and romantic periods in music.

Beethoven was one of the few composers who was able singlehandedly to transform the art of music. For Beethoven, music had to reflect his deepest inner feelings: "I must write, for what weighs on my heart, I must express." Beethoven's early work fell largely within the classical framework of the eighteenth century. However, his Third Symphony embodied the elements of romanticism with its use of powerful melodies to create dramatic intensity.

 **Reading Check** **Examining** How did the popularity of *Ivanhoe* reflect the interests of the nineteenth century?

A New Age of Science

The Scientific Revolution had created a modern, rational approach to the study of the natural world. For a long time, only the educated elite understood its importance. By the 1830s, however, new discoveries in science had led to many practical benefits that affected all Europeans. In 1796, for example, Edward Jenner had discovered a vaccine for smallpox, a widespread disease that killed mostly infants and young children.

In biology, the Frenchman **Louis Pasteur** proposed the germ theory of disease, which was crucial to the development of modern scientific medical practices. In chemistry, the Russian Dmitry Mendeleev in the 1860s classified all the material elements then known on the basis of their atomic weights. In Great Britain, Michael Faraday put together a primitive generator that laid the foundation for the use of electric current.

The dramatic material benefits often provided by science and technology led Europeans to have a growing faith in science. This faith, in turn, undermined the religious faith of many people. It is no accident that the nineteenth century was an age of increasing **secularization** (indifference or rejection of religion or religious consideration). For many people, truth was now to be found in science and the concrete material existence of humans. No one did more to create a picture of humans as material beings that



were simply part of the natural world than Charles Darwin.

In 1859, **Charles Darwin** published *On the Origin of Species by Means of Natural Selection*. The basic idea of this book was that each kind of plant and animal had evolved over a long period of time from earlier and simpler forms of life. Darwin called this principle **organic evolution**.

How did this natural process work? According to Darwin, in every species, “many more individuals of each species are born than can possibly survive.” This results in a “struggle for existence.” Darwin believed that some organisms are more adaptable to the environment than others, a process that Darwin called **natural selection**.

Those that are naturally selected for survival (“survival of the fittest”) reproduce and thrive. The unfit do not survive. The fit who survive pass on the variations that enabled them to survive until, according to Darwin, a new, separate species emerges. In *The Descent of Man*, published in 1871, Darwin argued that human beings had animal origins and were not an exception to the rule governing other species.

Darwin’s ideas raised a storm of controversy. Some people objected that Darwin’s theory made human beings ordinary products of nature rather

than unique beings. Others were bothered by his idea of life as a mere struggle for survival. “Is there a place in the Darwinian world for moral values?” they asked. Many people also condemned Darwin for denying God’s role in creation. Gradually, however, many scientists and other intellectuals came to accept Darwin’s theory.

✓ Reading Check Describing How did Darwin’s theory of natural selection influence the way in which people viewed the world?

Realism

The belief that the world should be viewed realistically, a view frequently expressed after 1850, was closely related to the scientific outlook. In politics, Bismarck had practiced the “politics of reality.” **Realism** became a movement in the literary and visual arts as well.

The literary realists of the mid-nineteenth century rejected romanticism. They wanted to write about ordinary characters from actual life rather than romantic heroes in exotic settings. They also tried to avoid emotional language by using precise description. They preferred novels to poems.

Many literary realists combined their interest in everyday life with an examination of social issues.

These artists expressed their social views through their characters. Although this type of realistic writing occurred worldwide, the French led the way.

The realist novel was perfected by the French author Gustave Flaubert, who was a leading novelist of the 1850s and 1860s. His work *Madame Bovary* presents a critical description of small-town life in France. The British novelist **Charles Dickens** became very successful with his realistic novels focusing on the lower and middle classes in Britain’s early Industrial Age. In such novels as *Oliver Twist* and *David Copperfield*, Dickens described the urban poor and the brutal life they led with vivid realism.

Picturing History

Louis Pasteur developed a vaccine against rabies. In 1983, the Louis Pasteur Institute researchers were the first to isolate the AIDS virus. [Research other medical advances that were made during the 1800s.](#)





History through Art

The Stonebreakers by Gustave Courbet, 1849 As an artist of the realist school, Courbet broke with the mystical and imaginative romantic period. [Which style do you prefer?](#)

In art, too, realism became dominant after 1850. Realist artists sought to show the everyday life of ordinary people and the world of nature with photographic realism. The French became leaders in realist painting, as they had become leaders in realistic writing.

Gustave Courbet was the most famous artist of the realist school. He loved to portray scenes from everyday life. His subjects were factory workers, peasants, and the wives of saloon keepers. “I have never seen

either angels or goddesses, so I am not interested in painting them,” Courbet said.

One of his famous works, *The Stonebreakers*, shows two roadworkers engaged in the deadening work of breaking stones to build a road. There were those who objected to Courbet’s “cult of ugliness” and who found such scenes of human misery scandalous. To Courbet, however, no subject was too ordinary, too harsh, or too ugly.

✓ Reading Check Evaluating What factors helped to produce the movement known as realism?

SECTION 4 ASSESSMENT

Checking for Understanding

- 1. Define** romanticism, secularization, organic evolution, natural selection, realism.
- 2. Identify** Ludwig van Beethoven, Louis Pasteur, Charles Darwin, Charles Dickens.
- 3. Locate** London, France.
- 4. Explain** how scientific developments affected the cultural movements of the nineteenth century.
- 5. List** the values of the romantics.

Critical Thinking

- 6. Compare and Contrast** How did romanticism compare to the ideas of the Enlightenment?
- 7. Organizing Information** Use a table to list scientists and their discoveries in the mid-nineteenth century.

Scientist	Discovery
Pasteur	
Mendeleyev	
Faraday	
Darwin	

Analyzing Visuals

- 8. Examine** the painting by John Constable shown on page 389 of your text. How does this painting reflect the characteristics of the romantic movement?

Writing About History

- 9. Expository Writing** Read poetry by two different poets of romanticism. Write a paper describing the elements of romanticism found in the poems. Be sure to include quotations.



Using Key Terms

- _____ was the movement to end slavery in the United States.
- At the Congress of Vienna in 1814, the _____ became the guiding political principle for the great powers.
- _____ means that all adult men have the right to vote.
- The process invented by Henry Cort to produce high quality iron is called _____.
- The basic idea of Charles Darwin's book, *On the Origin of Species*, was the principle of _____.
- Obedience to political authority, emphasis on organized religion to maintain the social order, and resistance to the ideas of individual rights and representative government are characteristics of _____.
- Before the Industrial Revolution, goods were often produced by individuals working in their own homes, a method known as _____.
- Louis-Napoleon became president when 97 percent of the _____ responded with a yes vote.
- A system in which society and not individuals owns the means of production is called _____.
- _____ emphasized feeling, emotion, and imagination as sources of knowing.
- Government** Which governments supported the ideology of conservatism?
- Culture** What features can be found in paintings of the romantic style?
- History** What countries were involved in the Crimean War? What were the causes of the war?
- Economics** How did the Industrial Revolution affect Great Britain's social structure?
- Science and Technology** Explain the role of the steam engine in the development of the factory system.
- Government** What were the provisions of the British voting bill in 1832?
- Government** Why did the reforms of Czar Alexander II satisfy few Russians?
- History** Between 1815 and 1830, what forces for change threatened the conservative governments throughout Europe?
- Culture** Name the social classes that tended to support conservatism.
- Science and Technology** How did new discoveries in science in the 1800s provide practical benefits to Europeans?
- Government** Identify and describe the Compromise of 1867. To what was the compromise a response, and how successful was it?
- Government** Describe how Otto von Bismarck contributed to German unification.
- Economics** What was the economic impact of railroads on the Industrial Revolution?

Reviewing Key Facts

- History** The Concert of Europe was destroyed by which war?
- History** What four nations were prepared to use military forces to crush revolts in other nations?

Chapter Summary

In this chapter, you have studied developments from industry to art, faith to science, and liberalism to conservatism. The chart below summarizes some of these developments.

Advances

- Steam and coal are new sources of power.
- Higher-quality iron leads to better railroads.

Conflict

- Nationalism and liberalism become forces for change.
- Conservatives attempt to suppress nationalism.

Change

- People move to cities for factory work.
- Italy unifies.
- Germany emerges as a strong European power.

Reaction

- Russian czars oppose the forces of liberalism and nationalism.
- Science has a greater impact on people, undermining religious faith.

Diversity

- Austria-Hungary contains many different ethnic groups seeking self-rule.
- Romanticism and realism are opposite artistic styles.

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HISTORY
Online



Self-Check Quiz

Visit the *Glencoe World History—Modern Times* Web site at wh.mt.glencoe.com and click on **Chapter 12—Self-Check Quiz** to prepare for the Chapter Test.

Critical Thinking

- 26. Making Comparisons** Compare the motives for Czar Alexander II's emancipation of the serfs with Abraham Lincoln's motives for issuing the Emancipation Proclamation in 1863.
- 27. Cause and Effect** Describe how the Crimean War indirectly contributed to the unification of the Italian and German states.

Writing About History

- 28. Expository Writing** How did the political, economic, and social injustices that existed during the nineteenth century contribute to romanticism and realism?

Analyzing Sources

Read the following excerpt from the poetry of William Wordsworth:

“One impulse from a vernal wood
May teach you more of man,
Of moral evil and of good,
Than all the sages can.”

- 29.** What characteristic of romantic poetry is evident in Wordsworth's poem?
- 30.** What message is Wordsworth trying to convey? Do you agree?

Applying Technology Skills

- 31. Using the Internet** Search the Internet to find information about Charles Dickens. Use a search engine to help focus your search by using words such as *Charles Dickens*, *Industrial Revolution*, *London*, and *Oliver Twist*. Prepare a report on the life of Charles Dickens, including his views on the working conditions in Britain and how he portrayed the lower and middle classes in his novels.

Making Decisions

- 32.** Pretend that you are a monarch in Europe in 1847. You can tell that agitation is spreading in your country and you fear revolution. Using what you know about the causes of revolution and how other countries (i.e., Britain) have been able to avoid it, what reforms might you choose to enact? What steps or policies would you avoid?

- 33.** Evaluate the political choices and decisions that European rulers made at the Congress of Vienna in 1814. What were the consequences of the decisions these leaders made?

Analyzing Maps and Charts

Study the map, *Industrialization of Europe by 1870*, on page 367 to answer the following questions.

- 34.** In which part of the United Kingdom is industrialization concentrated?
- 35.** What relationship exists between railways and industrial centers?

Standardized Test Practice

Directions: Choose the best answer to the following question.

Use the information in the box *and* your knowledge of world history to answer the following question.

British Economic Conditions During the Early 1800s

- Canal miles tripled between 1760 and 1830.
- Britain had built more than 6,000 miles (9,654 km) of railroad tracks by 1850.
- Britain produced nearly 3 million tons (2.7 million t) of iron ore by 1852.
- London's population grew by 236 percent between 1800 and 1850.

Which of the following statements is based on the information in this box?

- The Industrial Revolution led to massive urbanization.
- London neighborhoods in the 1800s were sharply divided between rich and poor.
- A boom in railroad and canal construction made transportation more difficult.
- Parliament disagreed with the king over taxes and spending.

Test-Taking Tip: This question asks for an answer that is supported by the facts provided in the box. Find the answer choice that is *proven true* by the information listed in the box.