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Self-Check Quiz

Visit the *Glencoe World History* Web site at wh.glencoe.com and click on **Chapter 18—Self-Check Quiz** to prepare for the Chapter Test.

Writing about History

20. Expository Writing Look ahead to Section 3 in Chapter 23. Compare and contrast the American, French, and Russian Revolutions. Consider their causes and effects and summarize the principles of each revolution regarding ideas such as democracy, liberty, separation of powers, equality, popular sovereignty, human rights, constitutionalism, and nationalism.

Analyzing Sources

Read the following quotation by Napoleon, then answer the questions below.

“What the peoples of Germany desire most impatiently is that talented commoners should have the same right to your esteem and to public employments as the nobles, that any trace of serfdom and of an intermediate hierarchy between the sovereign and the lowest class of the people should be completely abolished. The benefits of the Code Napoleon, the publicity of judicial procedure, the creation of juries must be so many distinguishing marks of your monarchy.”

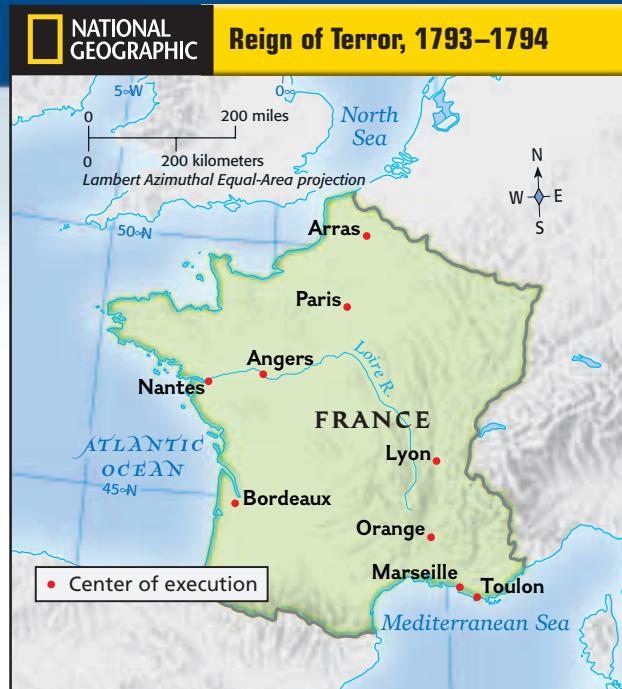
21. What does Napoleon say that the people of Germany want and do not want?
22. What were Napoleon’s views about how civil and military workers should be hired and promoted? Where in this quote does Napoleon refer to these views?

Applying Technology Skills

23. Using the Internet Use the Internet to do a keyword search for “Declaration of the Rights of Man.” Identify the places where the ideals of liberty, equality, and fraternity are still being debated today. Are there places where these ideals are not being discussed and should be?

Making Decisions

24. Think about the execution of Robespierre. Why did the National Convention decide to execute Robespierre? Can you think of another solution that would have addressed their concerns?



Analyzing Maps and Charts

Study the map above to answer the following questions.

25. What cities served as centers of execution?
26. Approximately how far from Paris were centers of execution established?
27. Research one of the towns on the map and write a brief essay that describes the impact of the Reign of Terror on the people who lived there.



Standardized Test Practice

Directions: Choose the best answer to the following question.

The rule of Robespierre was a time when the French Revolution

F was controlled by royalists who supported King Louis XVI.
G established a long-lasting constitutional monarchy.
H became a centralized military force under Napoleon.
J grew more violent as extremists took control.

Test-Taking Tip: If you do not know the answer to a question, eliminate any answer choices that you know are incorrect. Then choose the best answer from the remaining choices.

WORLD LITERATURE

from Candide

by Voltaire



Voltaire was born François-Marie Arouet on November 21, 1694. He assumed the pen name "Voltaire" in 1718. Voltaire was a critical and satirical writer who used his wit to attack both church and state. *Candide* is one of Voltaire's most brilliant and most well-known works.

Read to Discover

Candide has been taught that "everything is for the best." However, his adventures usually prove the opposite. Here, he has just been cast out of a castle. The "men in blue" he meets are army recruiters for Frederick the Great, king of Prussia, who was at war with the French when Voltaire wrote *Candide*. How can you tell that Voltaire is making fun of the Prussian king and his army?

Reader's Dictionary

bulwark: strong support or protection

summarily: done without delay or formality

Candide . . . dragged himself into the neighboring village, which was called Waldberghofftrarbkdikdorff; he was penniless, famished, and exhausted. At the door of a tavern he paused forlornly. Two men dressed in blue [Prussian soldiers] took note of him:

—Look, chum, said one of them, there's a likely young fellow of just about the right size.

They approached Candide and invited him very politely to dine with them.

—Gentlemen, Candide replied with charming modesty, I'm honored by your invitation, but I really don't have enough money to pay my share.

—My dear sir, said one of the blues, people of your appearance and your merit don't have to pay; aren't you five feet five inches tall?

—Yes, gentlemen, that is indeed my stature, said he, making a bow.

—Then, sire, you must be seated at once; not only will we pay your bill this time, we will never allow a man like you to be short of money; for men were made only to render one another mutual aid.

—You are quite right, said Candide; it is just as Dr. Pangloss always told me, and I see clearly that everything is for the best.

They beg him to accept a couple of crowns, he takes them, and offers an I.O.U.; they won't hear of it, and all sit down at table together.

—Don't you love dearly . . . ?

—I do indeed, says he, I dearly love Miss Cunégonde.



▲ Prussian soldiers

—No, no, says one of the gentlemen, we are asking if you don't love dearly the King of the Bulgars [Frederick the Great].

—Not in the least, says he, I never laid eyes on him

—What's that you say? He's the most charming of kings, and we must drink his health.

—Oh, gladly, gentlemen; and he drinks.

—That will do, they tell him; you are now the bulwark, the support, the defender, the hero of the Bulgars; your fortune is made and your future assured.

Promptly they slip irons on his legs and lead him to the regiment. There they cause him to right face, left face, present arms, order arms, aim, fire, doubletime, and they give him thirty strokes of the rod. Next day he does the drill a little less awkwardly and gets only twenty strokes; the third day, they give him only ten, and he is regarded by his comrades as a prodigy.

Candide, quite thunderstruck, did not yet understand very clearly how he was a hero. One fine spring morning he took it into his head to go for a walk, stepping straight out as if it were a privilege of the human race, as of animals in general, to use his legs as he chose. He had scarcely covered two leagues when four other heroes [Prussian soldiers], each six feet tall, overtook him, bound him, and threw him into a dungeon. At the court-martial they asked which he preferred, to be flogged thirty-six times by the entire regiment or to receive summarily a dozen bullets in the brain. In vain did he argue that the human will is free and insist that he preferred neither alternative; he had to choose; by virtue of the divine gift called "liberty" he decided to run the gauntlet thirty-six times, and actually endured two floggings. The regiment was composed of two thousand men. That made four thousand strokes. As they were preparing for the third beating, Candide, who could endure no more, begged as a special favor that they would have the

goodness to smash his head. His plea was granted; they bandaged his eyes and made him kneel down. The King of the Bulgars [Frederick the Great], passing by at this moment, was told of the culprit's crime; and as this king had a rare genius, he understood, from everything they told him of Candide, that this was a young metaphysician, extremely ignorant of the ways of the world, so he granted his royal pardon, with a generosity which will be praised in every newspaper in every age. A worthy surgeon cured Candide in three weeks with the ointments described by Dioscorides. He already had a bit of skin back and was able to walk when the King of the Bulgars went to war with the King of the Abares.

Nothing could have been so fine, so brisk, so brilliant, so well-drilled as the two armies. The trumpets, the fifes, the oboes, the drums, and the cannon produced such a harmony as was never heard in hell. First the cannons battered down about six thousand men on each side; then volleys of musket fire removed from the best of worlds about nine or ten thousand rascals who were cluttering up its surface.



▲ **Frederick the Great**
King of Prussia

Interpreting World Literature

1. Why do the men choose Candide to kidnap into the army?
2. Explain the irony of the soldiers' statement, "your fortune is made and your future assured."
3. Why is Candide punished? How does this relate to the philosophy of the Enlightenment?
4. **CRITICAL THINKING** What is Voltaire's attitude toward the "King of the Bulgars"?

Applications Activity

Write a satirical piece criticizing something about a television show or movie. Remember that a satire does not directly attack but criticizes by showing how ridiculous something is.

UNIT

4 An Era of European Imperialism

1800–1914

The Period in Perspective

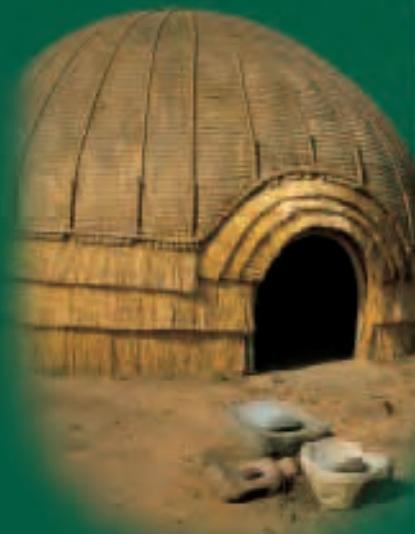
The period of world history from 1800 to 1914 was characterized by two major developments: the growth of industrialization and Western domination of the world. The Industrial Revolution became one of the major forces for change, leading Western civilization into the industrial era that has characterized 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 996–997 for primary source readings to accompany Unit 4.



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



▲ Zulu lodging



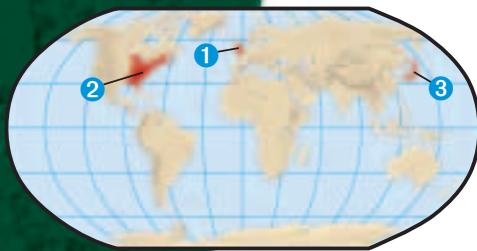
► Zulu king Cetewayo meeting with British ambassadors



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

—Cecil John Rhodes





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.

1705 Thomas Newcomen perfects the steam engine

1769 James Watt patents a more efficient steam engine

1787 Edmund Cartwright patents a power loom

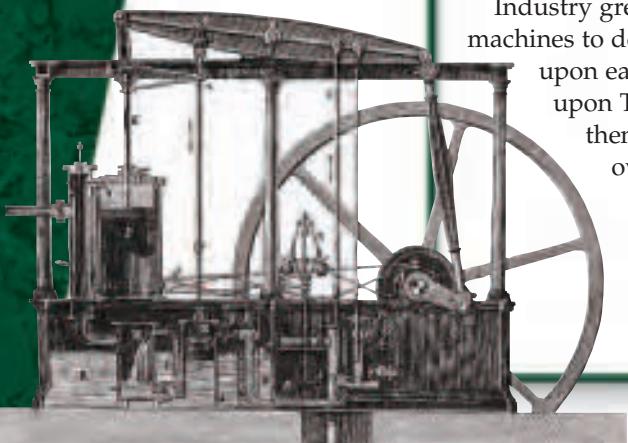
1 Great Britain

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 1799, 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 19

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 hand-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 Video The Chapter 19 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

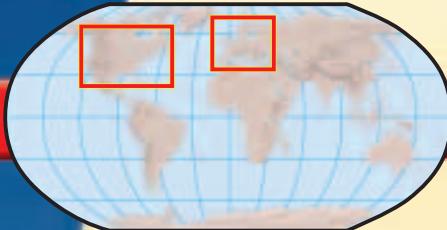
1830

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* Web site at wh.glencoe.com and click on **Chapter 19—Chapter Overview** to preview chapter information.

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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

◆ 1750

1764

James Hargreaves invents spinning jenny

◆ 1770

1782

James Watt builds steam engine that can drive machinery

◆ 1790

1807

Steamboats make transportation easier

◆ 1810

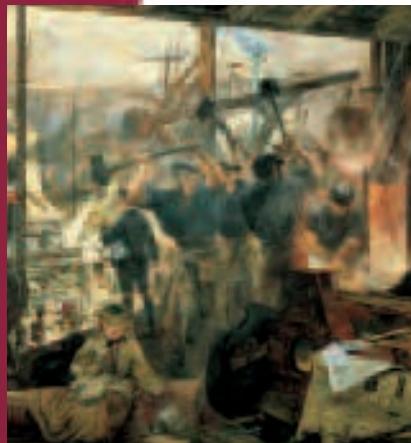
1833

Factory Act reduces child labor in Britain

◆ 1830

1840

Steamships begin to cross the Atlantic



Factory workers

Voices from the Past

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. Now even ordinary British families could use some of their income to buy manufactured goods.

Second, with more abundant food supplies, the population grew. This increase created a large labor force to work in the new factories that were emerging in Britain.

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. Railroads were particularly important to the success of the Industrial Revolution.

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 1830 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, more than 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?



CONTENTS



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."

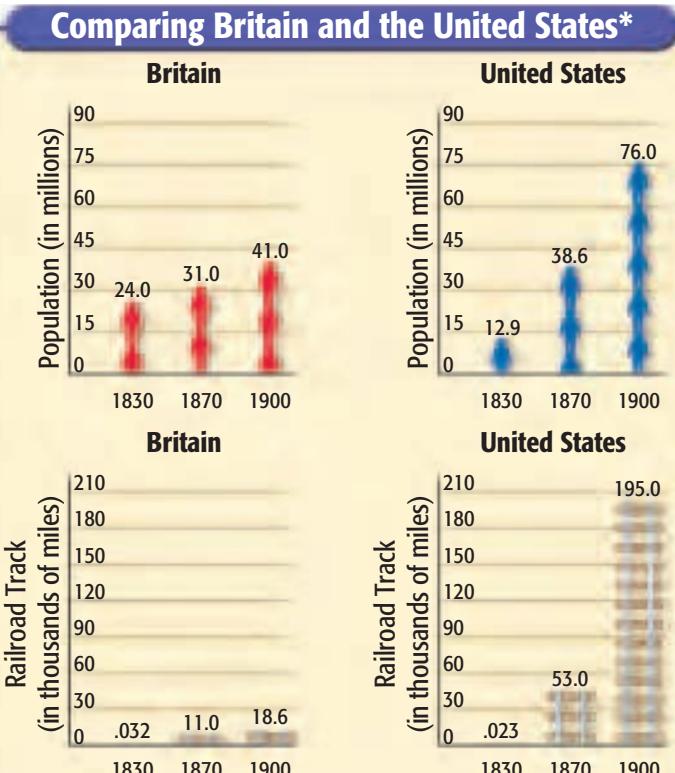
 **Reading Check** **Evaluating** Why was the railroad important to the American Industrial Revolution?

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?



*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).

Industrialization of Europe by 1870



Social Impact in Europe

The Industrial Revolution drastically changed the social life of Europe and the world. This change was evident in the first half of the nineteenth century 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. The key to this growth was a decline in death rates, wars, and diseases, such as smallpox and plague. Because of an increase in the food supply,

more people were better fed and resistant to disease. Famine largely disappeared from western Europe. The 1840s Irish potato famine proved an exception. The Irish depended on the potato for food. When a fungus infected the crops, almost a million died. A million more emigrated, many to the United States.

Cities and towns in Europe grew dramatically in the first half of the nineteenth century. The growth 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 about 1 million, and six cities with populations between 50,000 and 100,000. Fifty years later, London's population had swelled to about 2,500,000. 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 overseer 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.”

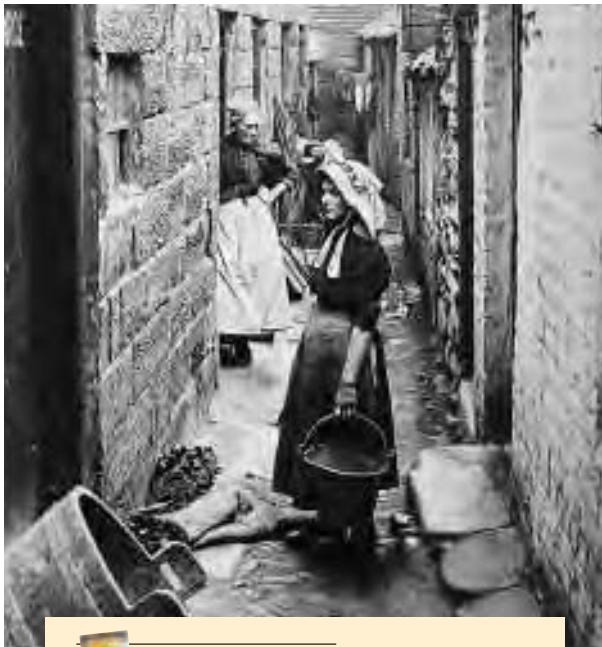
The same inquiry also reported that, in some factories, children were often beaten with a rod or whip to keep them at work.



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?

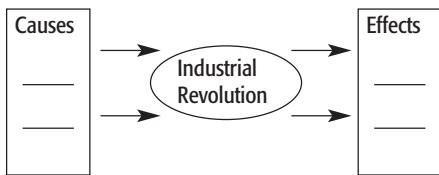
SECTION 1 ASSESSMENT

Checking for Understanding

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

Critical Thinking

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



Analyzing Visuals

8. **Examine** the picture of a female textile worker shown on page 582 of your text. How does this picture reflect the role that women played in the Industrial Revolution?

Writing About History

9. **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

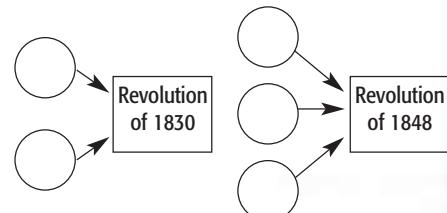
Klemens von Metternich, Louis-Napoleon

Places to Locate

Vienna, Prague

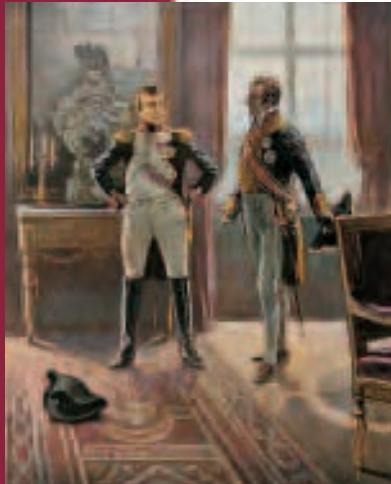
Reading Strategy

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

	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860
1814						
Congress of Vienna meets to create balance of power						
1830						
Liberals overthrow Charles X and establish a constitutional monarchy in France						
1848						
Revolutions sweep through Europe						
1849						
Austria reestablishes control over Lombardy						



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 Napier, 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



0 400 miles
0 400 kilometers
Lambert Azimuthal Equal-Area projection



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**.

Geography Skills

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

- Interpreting Maps** Within what political boundaries is Vienna located? Of what nation is Vienna the capital today?
- Applying Geography Skills** Compare this map to the map of Napoleonic Europe shown on page 567 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?

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

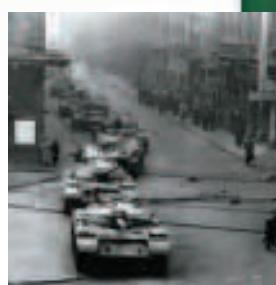
Russian Troops in Hungary

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.



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.

Revols 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 592. 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.

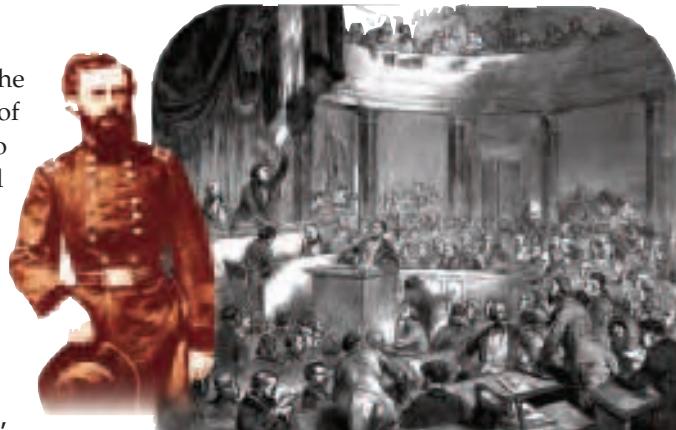
“One morning, toward the end of February, 1848, I sat quietly in my attic-chamber, working hard at my tragedy of “Ulrich von Hutten” [a sixteenth-century German knight], when suddenly a friend rushed breathlessly into the room, exclaiming: “What, you sitting here! Do you not know what has happened?”

“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

- What were the roles of Camillo di Cavour and Otto von Bismarck in the unification of their countries?
- 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 declaring war 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.

- 1. Interpreting Maps** Looking at the map, explain the sequence of events in Italian unification.
- 2. 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.

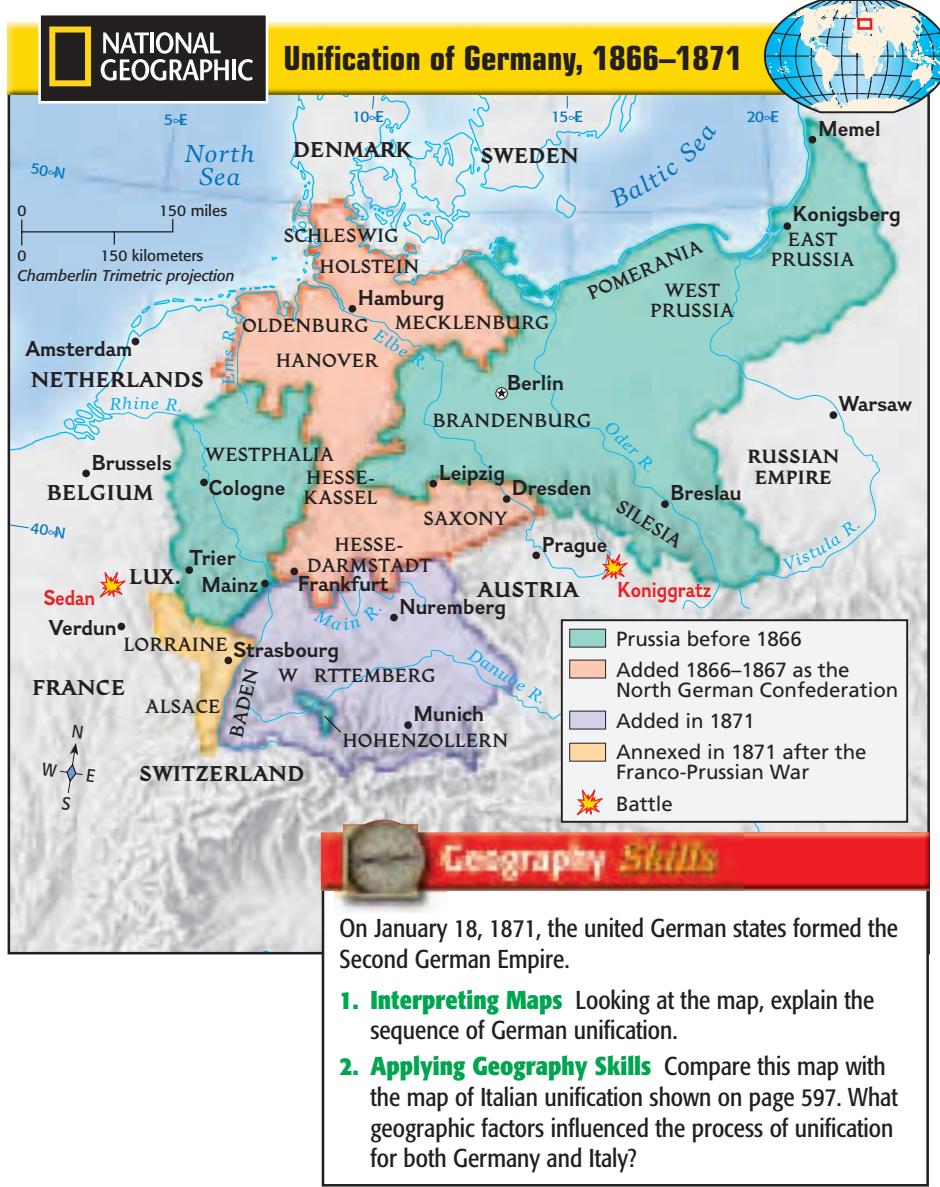
Garibaldi chose to turn over his conquests to Piedmont. On March 17, 1861, a new kingdom of Italy was proclaimed under King Victor Emmanuel II. The

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?

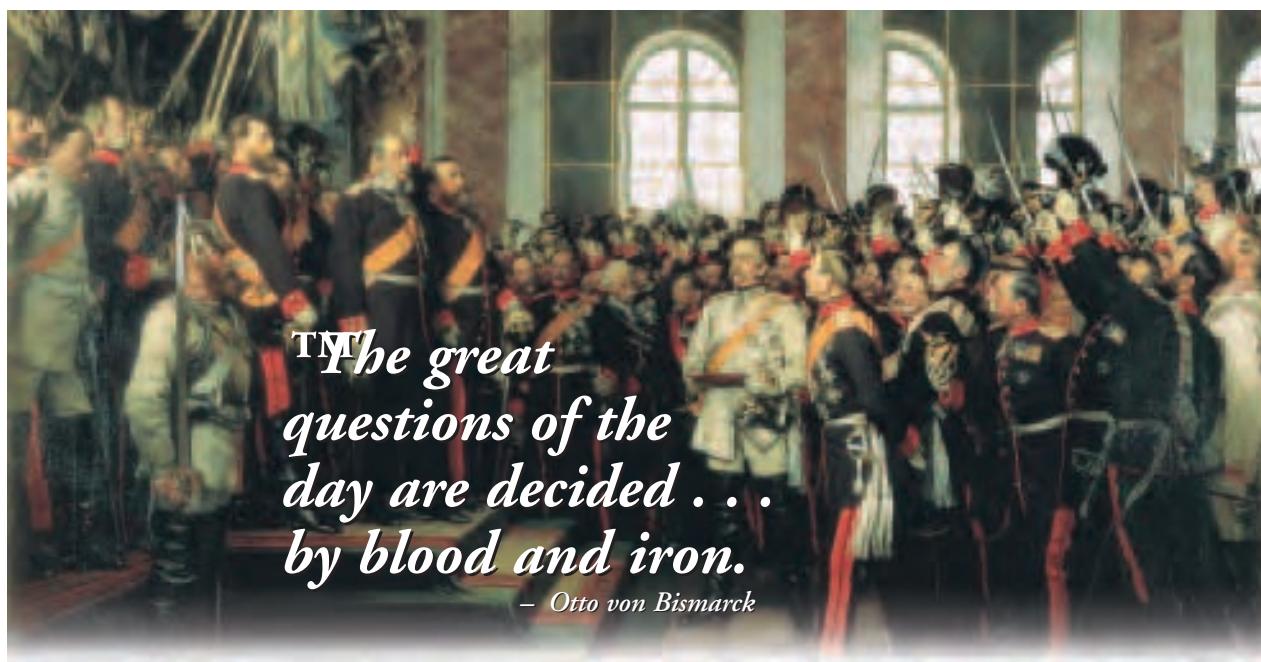


German Unification

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.



*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?

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



Web Activity Visit the *Glencoe World History* Web site at wh.glenco.com and click on **Chapter 19—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 996 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



Slavery challenged national unity in the United States.

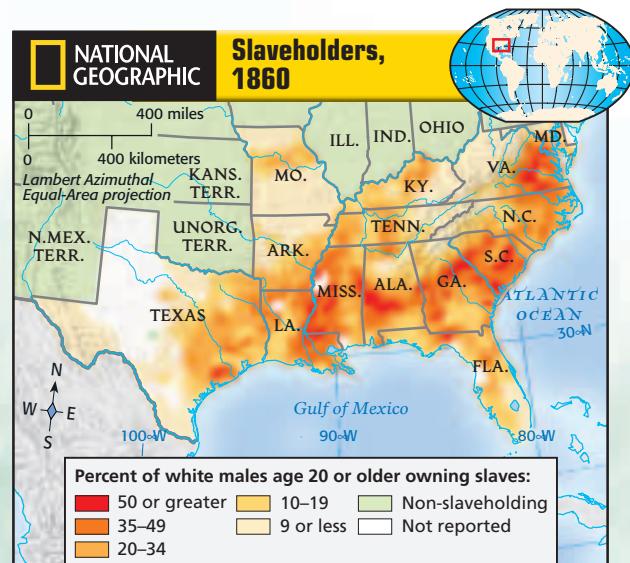
government to be subordinate to the state governments. These early divisions had ended with the War of 1812 against the British. A surge of national feeling had served to cover over the nation's divisions.

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, the issue of American national unity had reemerged. Slavery had become a threat to that unity. Although the importation of slaves had been banned in 1808, 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 cotton economy and plantation-based slavery were closely related. The South was determined to maintain them. 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?

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

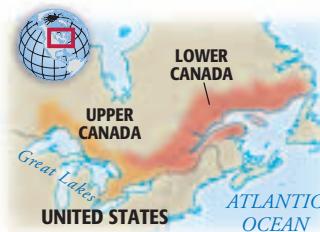
By the Treaty of Paris in 1763, signed at the end of the Seven Years' War, Canada passed from the French to the British. By 1800, most of the Canadian people

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?



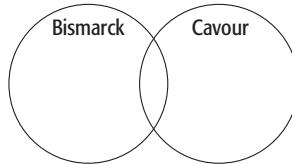
SECTION 3 ASSESSMENT

Checking for Understanding

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

Critical Thinking

6. **Drawing Inferences** Explain how the forces of liberalism and nationalism affected events in the United States during the nineteenth century.
7. **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

8. Examine the photographs of a peasant and a slave family shown on pages 601 and 602. 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

9. **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 silkworkers . . . 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

Preview of Events

1820	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880
1820 Walter Scott writes <i>Ivanhoe</i>	1849 Courbet paints <i>The Stonebreakers</i>	1859 Charles Darwin publishes <i>On the Origin of Species by Means of Natural Selection</i>			1869 Mendeleyev presents classification of material elements	



Charles Dickens

People to Identify

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

Places to Locate

London, France

Preview Questions

- What were the major features of romanticism and realism?
- 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

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 Allan 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





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. With the Industrial Revolution, however, came a heightened interest in scientific research. By the 1830s, new discoveries in science had led to many practical benefits that affected all Europeans. Science came to have a greater and greater impact on people.

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 Mendeleyev 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 than

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 realist 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	
Mendeleev	
Faraday	
Darwin	

Analyzing Visuals

8. **Examine** the painting by John Constable shown on page 607 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.

CHAPTER 19 ASSESSMENT and ACTIVITIES

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.

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?

- 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?

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	Conflict	Change	Reaction	Diversity
<ul style="list-style-type: none">Steam and coal are new sources of power.Higher-quality iron leads to better railroads.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Nationalism and liberalism become forces for change.Conservatives attempt to suppress nationalism.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">People move to cities for factory work.Italy unifies.Germany emerges as a strong European power.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Russian czars oppose the forces of liberalism and nationalism.Science has a greater impact on people, undermining religious faith.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Austria-Hungary contains many different ethnic groups seeking self-rule.Romanticism and realism are opposite artistic styles.

CLICK HERE



Self-Check Quiz

Visit the *Glencoe World History* Web site at wh.glencoe.com and click on **Chapter 19—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 (such as 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 585 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?

- A** The Industrial Revolution led to greater urbanization.
- B** London neighborhoods in the 1800s were sharply divided between rich and poor.
- C** A boom in railroad and canal construction made transportation more difficult.
- D** 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.

CHAPTER 20

Mass Society and Democracy

1870–1914

Key Events

As you read this chapter, look for the key events in the development of mass society.

- The Second Industrial Revolution resulted in changes in political, economic, and social systems.
- After 1870, higher wages and improved conditions in cities raised the standard of living for urban workers.
- The late 1800s and early 1900s were a time of political conflict that led to the Balkan crises and, eventually, World War I.
- New discoveries radically changed scientific thought, art, architecture, and social consciousness between 1870 and 1914.

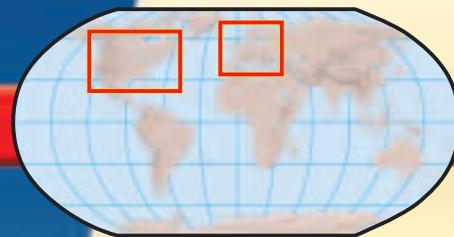
The Impact Today

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

- Because of poor working conditions, labor unions were organized to fight for improvements. Millions of workers are members of various unions today.
- Many of the inventions produced during this time, such as telephones and automobiles, are still used today.



World History Video The Chapter 20 video, "The Industrial Movement," chronicles the impact of the development and advancements of the Second Industrial Revolution.



1835

1845

1855

1865

1875

Karl Marx

1848

*The Communist
Manifesto* is
published

1861

First Civil War
battle fought in
United States

1871

British unions
gain legal
recognition

Transmitter and
receiver used for
first telephone call



1876
Alexander
Graham Bell
invents the
telephone



The Gare Saint-Lazare: Arrival of a Train by Claude Monet, 1877 This painting illustrates Monet's fascination with light as it is reflected and absorbed by the sky, clouds, windows, and trains.

1888
Eastman creates the Kodak camera



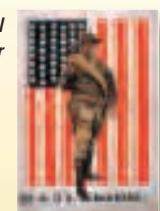
1885

1895

1905
A revolution in Russia produces limited reforms

1889
Daimler and Maybach build gasoline-powered car
1901
Marconi sends radio waves across the Atlantic

1914
World War I begins



1915

World War I recruitment poster

HISTORY Online

Chapter Overview

Visit the Glencoe World History Web site at wh.glencoe.com and click on **Chapter 20—Chapter Overview** to preview chapter information.

CLICK HERE

Early German automobile, Daimler-Stahlradwagen, 1889



Steeplechase swimming pool at Coney Island, New York, c. 1919

The New Leisure

By the second half of the nineteenth century, new work patterns had established the concept of the weekend as a distinct time of recreation and fun. New forms of transportation—railroads and streetcars—enabled workers to make brief trips to amusement parks. Coney Island was only eight miles from central New York City; Blackpool, in England, was a short train ride from nearby industrial towns.

With their Ferris wheels and other daring rides that threw young men and women together, amusement parks offered a whole new world of entertainment. Before leaving, people purchased picture postcards to remember the day's fun.

Thanks to the railroad, seaside resorts—once visited only by the wealthy—became accessible to more people for weekend visits. One upper-class seaside resort regular expressed his disgust with the new “day-trippers”:

“They swarm upon the beach, wandering about with apparently no other aim than to get a mouthful of fresh air. You may see them in groups of three or four—the husband, a pale man, dressed in black coat, carries the baby; the wife, equally pale and thin, decked out in her best, labors after with a basket of food. And then there is generally another child . . . wandering behind.”

Businessmen in resorts like Blackpool, however, welcomed the crowds of new visitors and built for them boardwalks laden with food, drink, and entertainment.

Why It Matters

A new leisure was one part of the mass society that emerged in the late nineteenth century. The development of this new mass society helped improve the lives of the lower classes, who benefited from extended voting rights, a better standard of living, and public education. In addition, the European nation-states now fostered national loyalty and created mass armies. Political democracy grew as the right to vote was extended to all adult males.

History and You In 1850, a person born in the West could expect to live about 40 years. By 1910, life expectancy had increased to 54 years. Using a recent almanac, compare the life expectancy rates of people in the United States, United Kingdom, and Russia today with the rates in 1910. Create a bar graph with the data you find.

SECTION 1

The Growth of Industrial Prosperity

Guide to Reading

Main Ideas

- New sources of energy and consumer products transformed the standard of living for all social classes in many European countries.
- Working-class leaders used Marx's ideas to form socialist parties and unions.

Key Terms

bourgeoisie, proletariat, dictatorship, revisionist

Preview of Events

◆ 1845

◆ 1855

◆ 1865

◆ 1875

◆ 1885

◆ 1895

◆ 1905

1848

Marx and Engels publish
The Communist Manifesto

1875

Creation of German
Social Democratic Party

1879

Thomas Edison
invents the light bulb

1889

The Second International
socialist association forms

1903

Wright brothers
make first flight

People to Identify

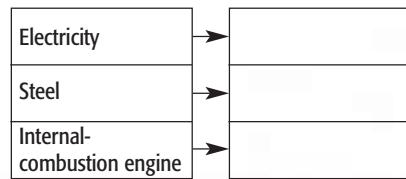
Thomas Edison, Alexander Graham Bell, Guglielmo Marconi, Karl Marx

Places to Locate

Netherlands, Austria-Hungary, Spain, Portugal, Russia

Reading Strategy

Cause and Effect As you read this section, complete a diagram like the one below showing the cause and effect relationship between the resources and the products produced.



Preview Questions

1. What was the Second Industrial Revolution?
2. What were the chief ideas of Karl Marx?



Guglielmo Marconi and his wireless apparatus, 1896

Voices from the Past

On December 12, 1901, Guglielmo Marconi reported a remarkable discovery:

◆ Shortly before mid-day I placed the single earphone to my ear and started listening. . . . I was at last on the point of putting . . . my beliefs to test. The answer came at 12:30 when I heard, faintly but distinctly, *pip-pip-pip*. I handed the phone to Kemp: 'Can you hear anything?' I asked. 'Yes,' he said, 'the letter S'—he could hear it. . . . The electric waves sent out into space from Britain had traversed the Atlantic—the distance, enormous as it seemed then, of 1,700 miles [2,735 km] —It was an epoch in history. I now felt for the first time absolutely certain the day would come when mankind would be able to send messages without wires . . . between the farthest ends of the earth.◆

—*Eyewitness to History*, John Carey, ed., 1987

Marconi's discovery of radio waves was one of the many advances of the Second Industrial Revolution.

The Second Industrial Revolution

Westerners in the late 1800s worshiped progress. At the heart of this belief in progress was the stunning material growth produced by what is called the Second Industrial Revolution. The first Industrial Revolution had given rise to textiles, railroads, iron, and coal. In the Second Industrial Revolution, steel, chemicals, electricity, and petroleum led the way to new industrial frontiers.

New Products The first major change in industry between 1870 and 1914 was the substitution of steel for iron. New methods for shaping steel made it useful in the building of lighter, smaller, and faster machines and engines, as well as railways, ships, and weapons. In 1860, Great Britain, France, Germany, and Belgium produced 125,000 tons (112,500 t) of steel. By 1913, the total was an astounding 32 million tons (29 million t).

Electricity was a major new form of energy that proved to be of great value. It could be easily converted into other forms of energy, such as heat, light, and motion, and moved easily through space by means of wires. In the 1870s, the first practical generators of electrical current were developed. By 1910, hydroelectric power stations and coal-fired steam-generating plants enabled homes and factories to be tied to a single, common source of power.

Electricity gave birth to a series of inventions. The creation of the light bulb by **Thomas Edison** in the United States and Joseph Swan in Great Britain opened homes and cities to electric lights. A revolution in communications began when **Alexander Graham Bell** invented the telephone in 1876 and **Guglielmo Marconi** sent the first radio waves across the Atlantic in 1901.

By the 1880s, streetcars and subways powered by electricity had appeared in major European cities. Electricity transformed the factory as well. Conveyor belts, cranes, and machines could all be powered by electricity. With electric lights, factories could remain open 24 hours a day.

The development of the internal-combustion engine, fired by oil and gasoline, provided a new source of power in transportation. This engine gave rise to ocean liners with oil-fired engines, as well

SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY & SOCIETY

The Automobile

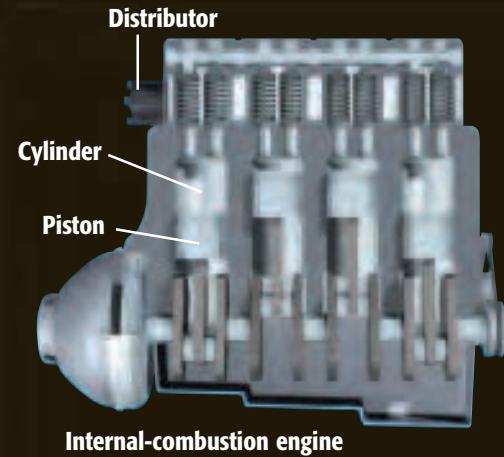
Many new forms of transportation were created in the Industrial Revolution, but none affected more people on a daily basis than the automobile. It was the invention of the internal-combustion engine that made the automobile possible.

A German engineer, Gottlieb Daimler, invented a light, portable internal-combustion engine in 1885. In 1889, Daimler and Wilhelm Maybach produced an automobile powered by a gasoline engine that reached a speed of 10 miles [16 km] per hour. In 1926, Daimler and Karl Benz, another German, merged to form Daimler-Benz, an automotive company that would later manufacture the Mercedes-Benz.

Early cars were handmade and expensive. Only several hundred were sold between 1893 and 1901. Their slow speed, 14 miles [22.5 km] per hour, was a problem, too. Early models were not able to climb steep hills.

An American, Henry Ford, revolutionized the car industry in 1908 by using an assembly line to mass-produce his Model T. Before, it had taken a group of workers 12 hours to build a single car. Now, the same number of workers could build a car in an hour and a half. By cutting production costs, Ford lowered the price of the automobile. A Model T cost \$850 in 1908 but only \$360 by 1916. By 1916, Ford's factories were producing 735,000 cars a year. By 1925, Ford's Model T cars would make up half of the automobiles in the world.

Analyzing *Why were early cars expensive?*



Internal-combustion engine



1914 Ford Model T



2001 Ford Explorer

Industrialization of Europe by 1914



as to the airplane and the automobile. In 1903, Orville and Wilbur Wright made the first flight in a fixed-wing plane at Kitty Hawk, North Carolina. In 1919, the first regular passenger air service was established.

New Patterns Industrial production grew at a rapid pace because of greatly increased sales of manufactured goods. Europeans could afford to buy more consumer products for several reasons. Wages for workers increased after 1870. In addition, prices for manufactured goods were lower because of reduced transportation costs.

In the cities, the first department stores began to sell a new range of consumer goods made possible by the development of the steel and electrical industries. Clocks, bicycles, electric lights, and typewriters were sold in great quantities.

Not all nations benefited from the Second Industrial Revolution. By 1900, Europe was divided into two economic zones. Great Britain, Belgium, France, the Netherlands, Germany, the western part of the

Geography Skills

Steel, electricity, and chemicals were some of the products of the Second Industrial Revolution.

1. Interpreting Maps Locate the areas shown on the map that have the heaviest concentrations of industry. What geographic factors could have helped these areas become heavily industrialized?

2. Applying Geography Skills Use the information provided in this map to create a chart that shows the type of industry in each European country.

Austro-Hungarian Empire, and northern Italy made up an advanced industrialized core. These nations had a high standard of living and decent systems of transportation.

Another part of Europe was still largely agricultural. This was the little-industrialized area to the south and east, consisting of southern Italy, most of Austria-Hungary, Spain, Portugal, the Balkan kingdoms, and Russia. These countries provided food and raw materials for the industrial countries.

Toward a World Economy The Second Industrial Revolution, combined with the growth of transportation by steamship and railroad, fostered a true world economy. By 1900, Europeans were receiving beef and wool from Argentina and Australia, coffee from Brazil, iron ore from Algeria, and sugar from Java.

European capital was also invested abroad to develop railways, mines, electrical power plants, and banks. Of course, foreign countries also provided markets for the manufactured goods of Europe. With its capital, industries, and military might, Europe dominated the world economy by the beginning of the twentieth century.

 **Reading Check** **Explaining** *Why did Europe dominate the world economy by the beginning of the twentieth century?*

Organizing the Working Classes

The desire to improve their working and living conditions led many industrial workers to form socialist political parties and socialist trade unions. These organizations emerged after 1870, but the theory on

which they were based had been developed earlier by Karl Marx.

Marx's Theory In 1848, *The Communist Manifesto* was published. It was written by two Germans, Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels, who were appalled at the horrible conditions in factories. They blamed the system of industrial capitalism for these conditions. Their solution was a new social system. One form of Marxist socialism was eventually called communism (see Chapter 23).

Marx believed that all of world history was a "history of class struggles." According to Marx, oppressor and oppressed have "stood in constant opposition to one another" throughout history.

One group of people—the oppressors—owned the means of production (land, raw materials, money, and so forth) and thus had the power to control government and society. Indeed, government itself was an instrument of this ruling class. The other group, which depended on the owners of the means of production, were the oppressed.

In the industrialized societies of Marx's day, the class struggle continued. According to Marx, "society as a

May Day

On May 1, 1997, parades and demonstrations took place around the world. Mexican workers poured into the streets of Mexico City to denounce the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA). Workers believed it had caused a decline in their wages. In Seoul, Korean workers hurled rocks at police to protest government corruption in South Korea. In Berlin and Leipzig, union workers marched to protest high unemployment in Germany. In Beijing, people filled Tiananmen Square to praise workers at the beginning of a three-day vacation. In Japan, two million workers attended rallies across the country. Fifteen thousand workers marched in the

streets of San Salvador to demand that the government pass laws to benefit the workers of El Salvador.

Why did these marches and demonstrations occur around the world on May 1? In the nineteenth century, the rise of socialist parties in Europe led to a movement to form an international organization. The purpose of this organization was to strengthen the position of socialist parties against international capitalism.

In 1889, leaders of various socialist parties formed the Second International, a loose association of national groups. Its first action was to declare May 1 as May Day, an international labor day to be marked by strikes and mass labor demonstrations. Although the Second International no longer exists, workers around the world still observe May Day.



◀ *May Day rally near St. Basil's cathedral in Moscow, May 1, 1997*

Comparing Past and Present

Using outside sources, research what occurred last May 1. Were May Day celebrations held, and if so, where? Is May 1 still an international labor day or has the meaning of the date changed?

whole is more and more splitting up into two great hostile camps, into two great classes directly facing each other: Bourgeoisie and Proletariat." The **bourgeoisie**—the middle class—were the oppressors. The **proletariat**—the working class—were the oppressed.

Marx predicted that the struggle between the two groups would finally lead to an open revolution where the proletariat would violently overthrow the bourgeoisie. After their victory, the proletariat would form a **dictatorship** (government in which a person or group has absolute power) to organize the means of production. However, since the proletariat victory would essentially abolish the economic differences that create separate social classes, Marx believed that the final revolution would ultimately produce a classless society. The state—which had been an instrument of the bourgeois interests—would wither away.

Socialist Parties In time, working-class leaders formed socialist parties based on Marx's ideas. Most important was the German Social Democratic Party (SPD), which emerged in 1875. Under the direction of its Marxist leaders, the SPD advocated revolution while organizing itself into a mass political party that competed in elections for the German parliament. Once in the parliament, SPD delegates worked to pass laws that would improve conditions for the working class.

Despite government efforts to destroy it, the German Social Democratic Party grew. When it received four million votes in the 1912 elections, it became the largest single party in Germany.

Socialist parties also emerged in other European states. In 1889, leaders of the various socialist parties joined together and formed the Second International, an association of national socialist groups that would fight against capitalism worldwide. (The First International had failed in 1872.)

Marxist parties were divided over their goals. Pure Marxists thought that capitalism would be overthrown in a violent revolution. Other Marxists, called **revisionists**, rejected the revolutionary approach and argued that workers must continue to organize in mass political parties and even work with other parties to gain reforms. As workers received the right to vote, they could achieve their aims by working within democratic systems.

Trade Unions Another force working for evolutionary rather than revolutionary socialism was the trade union. In Great Britain, unions won the right to strike in the 1870s. (A strike is a work stoppage called by members of a union to pressure an employer into meeting their demands.) Soon after, workers in factories were organized into trade unions so they could use strikes to achieve reforms.

By 1900, there were two million workers in British trade unions. By 1914, there were almost four million. Trade unions in the rest of Europe had varying degrees of success. By 1914, however, they had made considerable progress in bettering both the living and the working conditions of the working classes.

 **Reading Check** **Summarizing** *How would you summarize Marx's theory as expressed in The Communist Manifesto?*

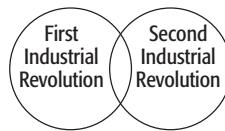
SECTION | ASSESSMENT

Checking for Understanding

1. **Define** bourgeoisie, proletariat, dictatorship, revisionist.
2. **Identify** Thomas Edison, Alexander Graham Bell, Guglielmo Marconi, Karl Marx.
3. **Locate** Netherlands, Austria-Hungary, Spain, Portugal, Russia.
4. **Explain** how Marx's ideas came to directly impact society.
5. **List** the European nations that were still largely agricultural in 1900.

Critical Thinking

6. **Drawing Inferences** Do you think there is a relationship between the large number of technical innovations made during this period and the growing need for labor reforms and unions?
7. **Compare and Contrast** Use a Venn diagram like the one below to compare and contrast the first and second Industrial Revolutions.



Analyzing Visuals

8. **Compare** the photos of the two Ford vehicles on page 616. Identify the differences and similarities.

Writing About History

9. **Expository Writing** After Marconi's first transmission across radio waves, he said, "I now felt for the first time absolutely certain the day would come when mankind would be able to send messages without wires. . . ." Write a paragraph about how this was a prophecy of technology to come.

Marx and Engels Proclaim the Classless Society

IN *THE COMMUNIST MANIFESTO*, Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels expressed their view that a classless society would be the end product of the struggle between the bourgeoisie and the proletariat.

“We have seen above, that the first step in the revolution by the working class, is to raise the proletariat to the position of ruling class. . . . The proletariat will use its political supremacy to wrest, by degrees, all capital from the bourgeoisie, to centralize all instruments of production in the hands of the State, i.e., of the proletariat organized as the ruling class; and to increase the total of productive forces as rapidly as possible. . . .

When, in the course of development, class distinctions have disappeared, and all production has been concentrated in the whole nation, the public power will lose its political character. Political power, properly so called, is merely the organized power of one class for oppressing another. If the proletariat during its contest with the bourgeoisie is compelled, by the force of circumstances, to organize itself as a class, if, by means of a revolution, it makes itself the ruling class, and, as such, sweeps away by force the old conditions of production, then it will, along with these conditions, have swept away the conditions for the existence of class antagonisms and of classes generally, and will thereby have abolished its own supremacy as a class.

In place of the old bourgeois society, with its classes and class antagonisms, we shall have an association, in which the free development of each is the condition for the free development of all. . . .

The Communists disdain to conceal their views and aims. They openly declare that their ends can be attained only by the forcible overthrow of all existing social conditions. Let the ruling classes



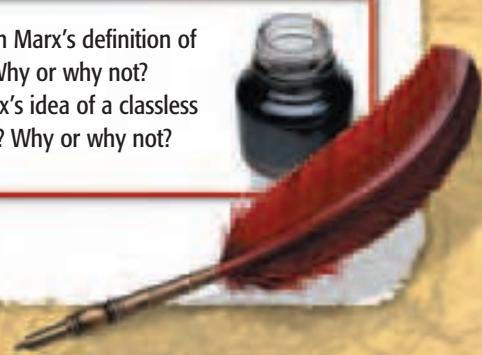
German poster proclaiming “Proletarians of the World, Unite!”

tremble at a Communist revolution. The proletarians have nothing to lose but their chains. They have a world to win. Workingmen of all countries, unite! 

—Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels,
The Communist Manifesto

Analyzing Primary Sources

1. Do you agree with Marx’s definition of political power? Why or why not?
2. Do you think Marx’s idea of a classless society is realistic? Why or why not?



SECTION 2

The Emergence of Mass Society

Guide to Reading

Main Ideas

- A varied middle class in Victorian Britain believed in the principles of hard work and good conduct.
- New opportunities for women and the working class improved their lives.

Key Terms

feminism, literacy

Preview of Events

1870

British wives gain greater property rights

1875

1880
First publication of London's *Evening News*

1885

1885
10,000 people watch British Soccer Cup finals

1890

1895
1900

1903

Women's Social and Political Union established

People to Identify

Amalie Sieveking, Florence Nightingale, Clara Barton, Emmeline Pankhurst

Places to Locate

London, Frankfurt

Preview Questions

1. What were the chief characteristics of the middle class in the nineteenth century?
2. How did the position of women change between 1870 and 1914?

Reading Strategy

Summarizing Information As you read this section, complete a graphic organizer like the one below summarizing the divisions among the social classes.

Social Classes		
Working	Middle	Wealthy



Sylvia Pankhurst, feminist and daughter of Emmeline Pankhurst

Voices from the Past

In *History of the Suffrage Movement*, Sylvia Pankhurst described the efforts of women to enter the House of Commons to petition for the right to vote:

“Those of us who took refuge in doorways were dragged roughly down the steps and hurled back in front of the horses. When even this failed to banish us, the foot constables rushed at us and, catching us fiercely by the shoulders, turned us round again and then seizing us by the back of the neck and thumping us cruelly between the shoulders forced us at a running pace along the streets until we were far from the House of Commons. They had been told to drive us away and to make as few arrests as possible. Still we returned, until at last sixty-five women, all of them bruised, had been taken to the police station.”

—*Sources of the West*, Mark A. Kishlansky, ed., 1998

The movement for women's rights was one aspect of the new mass society.

The New Urban Environment

By the end of the nineteenth century, the new industrial world had led to the emergence of a mass society in which the concerns of the majority of the population—the lower classes—were central. More and more people lived in cities. In the early 1850s, urban dwellers made up about 40 percent of the English population, 15 percent of the French, 10 percent of the population in Prussia (the largest

German state), and 5 percent in Russia. By 1890, urban dwellers had increased to some 60 percent in England, 25 percent in France, 30 percent in Prussia, and 10 percent in Russia. The size of cities also grew, especially in industrialized countries. Between 1800 and 1900, the population in **London** grew from 960,000 to 6,500,000.

Urban populations grew quickly because of the vast migration to cities from rural areas. Lack of jobs and lack of land drove people from the countryside to the city. There, they found jobs in factories and, later, in service trades and professions.

Cities also grew faster in the second half of the nineteenth century because living conditions improved so much that more people could survive there longer. In the 1840s, a number of urban reformers had pointed to filthy living conditions as the chief cause of deadly epidemic diseases in the cities. Cholera, for example, had ravaged Europe in the early 1830s and 1840s, especially in the overcrowded cities.

Following the advice of reformers, city governments created boards of health to improve the quality of housing. City medical officers and building inspectors now inspected dwellings for public health hazards. New building regulations required running water and internal drainage systems for all new buildings.

Essential to the public health of the modern European city was the ability to bring in clean water and to expel sewage. The need for fresh water was met by a system of dams and reservoirs that stored the water and by aqueducts and tunnels that carried it from the countryside to the city and into individual dwellings. Gas heaters in the 1860s, and later electric heaters, made regular hot baths available to many people.

The treatment of sewage was improved by building mammoth underground pipes that carried raw sewage far from the city for disposal. The city of **Frankfurt**, Germany, began its program for sewers with a lengthy public campaign featuring the slogan "from the toilet to the river in half an hour."

 **Reading Check** **Explaining** Why did cities grow so quickly in the nineteenth century?

Social Structure of Mass Society

After 1871, most people enjoyed an improved standard of living. Even so, great poverty remained a part of Western society. Between the few who were rich and the many who were very poor existed several middle-class groups.

 NATIONAL GEOGRAPHIC

Geography Skills

In 1820, a small percentage of Europeans lived in cities.

1. Interpreting Maps

Where was the heaviest concentration of Europeans per square mile in 1820?

2. Applying Geography

Skills Create a database that lists each country or empire shown on the map. Using the legend, estimate the inhabitants per square mile for each country. Which European country had the fewest inhabitants per square mile?



The New Elite At the top of European society stood a wealthy elite. This group made up only 5 percent of the population but controlled between 30 and 40 percent of the wealth. During the nineteenth century, landed aristocrats had joined with the most successful industrialists, bankers, and merchants—the wealthy upper middle class—to form this new elite. Members of the elite, whether aristocratic or upper middle class in background, became leaders in the government and military.

Marriage also served to unite the two groups. Daughters of business tycoons gained aristocratic titles and aristocratic heirs gained new sources of cash. For example, when wealthy American Consuelo Vanderbilt married the British duke of Marlborough, the new duchess brought approximately \$10 million to her husband.

The Middle Classes The middle classes consisted of a variety of groups. Below the upper middle class, which formed part of the new elite, was a middle group that included lawyers, doctors, members of the civil service, business managers, engineers, architects, accountants, and chemists. Beneath this solid and comfortable middle group was a lower middle

class of small shopkeepers, traders, and prosperous peasants. The members of this group provided goods and services for the classes above them.

The Second Industrial Revolution produced a new group of white-collar workers between the lower middle class and the lower classes. This group included traveling salespeople, bookkeepers, telephone operators, department store salespeople, and secretaries. Although not highly paid, these white-collar workers were often committed to middle-class ideals.

The middle classes shared a certain lifestyle with values that tended to dominate much of nineteenth-century society. The members of the middle class liked to preach their worldview both to their children and to the upper and lower classes of their society. This was especially evident in Victorian Britain, often considered a model of middle-class society.

The European middle classes believed in hard work, which was open to everyone and guaranteed to have positive results. They were also regular churchgoers who believed in the good conduct associated with Christian morality. The middle class was concerned with the right way of doing things, which gave rise to such best-selling manners and etiquette books as *The Habits of Good Society*.



Geography Skills

Two population changes occurred in Europe from 1820 to 1900: the overall population increased, and it shifted from rural to urban areas.

1. Interpreting Maps

Which country has the greater population density: Spain or Italy?

2. Applying Geography

Skills Analyze the relationship between the increased urban populations shown here and the areas of industrial concentration shown on the map on page 617.

The Working Classes Below the middle classes on the social scale were the working classes, which made up almost 80 percent of the European population. Many of the members of these classes were landholding peasants, farm laborers, and sharecroppers, especially in eastern Europe.

The urban working class consisted of many different groups, including skilled artisans and semi-skilled laborers. At the bottom of the urban working class were the unskilled laborers. They were the largest group of workers and included day laborers and large numbers of domestic servants. One out of every seven employed persons in Great Britain in 1900 was a domestic servant. Most domestic servants were women.

Urban workers experienced an improvement in the material conditions of their lives after 1870. Reforms created better living conditions in cities. In addition, a rise in wages, along with a decline in many consumer costs, made it possible for workers to buy more than just food and housing. Workers now had money for more clothes and even leisure activities. At the same time, strikes were leading to 10-hour workdays and Saturday afternoons off.

 **Reading Check** **Identifying** Name the major groups in the social structure of the late nineteenth century.



Women worked as operators and secretaries at the Paris telephone exchange in 1904.

employers to hire women. Both industrial plants and retail shops needed clerks, typists, secretaries, file clerks, and salesclerks.

The expansion of government services created opportunities for women to be secretaries and telephone operators, and to take jobs in the fields of education, health, and social services. While some middle-class women held these jobs, they were mainly filled by the working class who aspired to a better quality of life.

Marriage and the Family Many people in the nineteenth century believed in the ideal expressed in Lord Tennyson's *The Princess*, published in 1847:

“Man for the field and woman for the hearth:
Man for the sword and for the needle she:
Man with the head and woman with the heart:
Man to command and woman to obey. . . .”

This view of the sexes was strengthened during the Industrial Revolution. As the chief family wage earners, men worked outside the home. Women were left with the care of the family.

Throughout the 1800s, marriage remained the only honorable and available career for most women. There was also one important change. The number of children born to the average woman began to decline—the most significant development in the modern family. This decline in the birthrate was tied to improved economic conditions, as well as increased use of birth control. In 1882, Europe's first birth control clinic was founded in Amsterdam.

The family was the central institution of middle-class life. With fewer children in the family, mothers could devote more time to child care and domestic leisure.

The middle-class family fostered an ideal of togetherness. The Victorians created the family Christmas with its Yule log, tree, songs, and exchange of gifts. By the 1850s, Fourth of July celebrations in the United States had changed from wild celebrations to family picnics.

The lives of working-class women were different from those of their middle-class counterparts. While they may have aspired to middle-class ideals, most working-class women had to earn money to help support their families. Daughters in working-class families were expected to work until they married. After marriage, they often did small jobs at home to support the family. For the children of the working classes, childhood was over by the age of nine or ten, when children became apprentices or were employed in odd jobs. (See page 997 to read excerpts from *L'Atelier's The Unfortunate Situation of Working Women in the Primary Sources Library*.)

Between 1890 and 1914, however, family patterns among the working class began to change. Higher-paying jobs in heavy industry and improvements in the standard of living made it possible for working-class families to depend on the income of husbands alone.

By the early twentieth century, some working-class mothers could afford to stay at home, following the pattern of middle-class women. At the same time, working-class families aspired to buy new consumer products, such as sewing machines and cast-iron stoves.

The Movement for Women's Rights Modern feminism, or the movement for women's rights, had its beginnings during the Enlightenment, when some women advocated equality for women based on the doctrine of natural rights. In the 1830s, a number of women in the United States and Europe argued for the right of women to divorce and own property. (By law, a husband had almost complete control over his wife's property.) These early efforts were not very successful, and married women in Britain did not win the right to own some property until 1870.

The fight for property rights was only the beginning of the women's movement. Some middle- and upper-middle-class women fought for and gained access to universities, and others sought entry into occupations dominated by men.

Though training to become doctors was largely closed to women, some entered the medical field by becoming nurses. In Germany, **Amalie Sieveking** was a nursing pioneer who founded the Female Association for the Care of the Poor and Sick in Hamburg. More famous is the British nurse **Florence Nightingale**. Her efforts during the Crimean War (1853–1856), combined with those of **Clara Barton** in the U.S. Civil War (1861–1865), transformed nursing into a profession of trained, middle-class "women in white."

By the 1840s and 1850s, the movement for women's rights expanded as women called for equal political rights. Many feminists believed that the right to vote was the key to improving the overall position of women.

The British women's movement was the most active in Europe. The Women's Social and Political Union, founded in 1903 by **Emmeline Pankhurst** and her daughters, used unusual publicity stunts to call attention to its demands. Its members pelted

Picturing History

Shown below are Emmeline Pankhurst, her daughters, and a fellow suffragist. Why do you think women such as these had to fight so hard and long to obtain the right to vote?



SPORTS & CONTESTS

The New Team Sports

Sports were by no means a new activity in the late nineteenth century. Soccer games had been played by peasants and workers, and these games had often been bloody and even deadly. However, in the late nineteenth century, sports became strictly organized. The English Football Association (founded in 1863) and the American Bowling Congress (founded in 1895), for example, provided strict rules and officials to enforce them.

The new sports were not just for leisure or fun. Like other forms of middle-class recreation, they were intended to provide excellent training, especially for youth.



Woodcut of scene from 1886 baseball game between New York and Boston

The participants could not only develop individual skills but also acquire a sense of teamwork useful for military service.

These characteristics were already evident in British schools in the 1850s and 1860s. Such schools as Harrow and Loretto placed organized sports at the center of education. At Loretto, for example, education was supposed to instill "First—Character. Second—Physique. Third—Intelligence. Fourth—Manners. Fifth—Information."

The new team sports rapidly became professionalized as well. The English Football Association, mentioned above, regulated professional soccer. In the United States, the first national association to recognize professional baseball players was

government officials with eggs, chained themselves to lampposts, burned railroad cars, and smashed the windows of department stores on fashionable shopping streets. These suffragists (people who advocate the extension of political rights, such as voting rights) had one basic aim: the right of women to full citizenship in the nation-state.

Before World War I, demands for women's rights were being heard throughout Europe and the United States. Before 1914, however, women had the right to vote in only a few nations like Norway and Finland, along with some American states. It would take the dramatic upheaval of World War I to make male-dominated governments give in on this basic issue of the rights of women.

 **Reading Check** **Identifying** What was the basic aim of the suffragists?

Universal Education

Universal education was a product of the mass society of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Education in the early nineteenth century was primarily for the elite and the wealthier middle class. However, between 1870 and 1914, most Western governments began to set up state-financed primary schools. Both boys and girls between the ages of 6 and 12 were required to attend these schools. States also took responsibility for training teachers by setting up teacher-training schools.

Why did Western nations make this commitment to public education? One reason was industrialization. In the first Industrial Revolution, unskilled labor (workers without training or experience) was able to meet factory needs. The new firms of the Second Industrial Revolution, however, needed trained,

formed in 1863. By 1900, the National League and the American League had complete control over professional baseball.

Mass spectator sports became a big business. In 1872, two thousand people watched the British Soccer Cup finals. By 1885, the crowd had increased to ten thousand and by 1901, to a hundred thousand. Spectator sports even reflected class differences. Upper-class soccer teams in Britain viewed working-class teams as vicious and inclined to "money-grubbing, tricks, sensational displays, and utter rottenness."

Sports in the late nineteenth century were mostly for men, who believed that females were not well suited for "vigorous physical activity." Nevertheless, middle-class women could play "easy" sports—croquet and lawn tennis. Eventually, some sports began to appear at women's colleges and girls' public schools in England.

Late nineteenth-century game of croquet



CONNECTING TO THE PAST

- 1. Describing** What did sports offer middle-class men of the late nineteenth century?
- 2. Evaluating** Why do you think spectator sports became such a big business?
- 3. Writing about History** Write a brief essay comparing the educational goals at your school with those at Loretto. What are the differences and similarities?

skilled labor. Both boys and girls with an elementary education now had new job possibilities beyond their villages or small towns. These included white-collar jobs in railways, post offices, and the teaching and nursing fields.

The chief motive for public education, however, was political. Giving more people the right to vote created a need for better-educated voters. Even more important was the fact that primary schools instilled patriotism. As people lost their ties to local regions and even to religion, nationalism gave them a new faith.

Compulsory elementary education created a demand for teachers, and most of them were women. Many men saw teaching as a part of women's "natural role" as nurturers of children. Females were also paid lower salaries, which in itself was a strong incentive for states to set up teacher-training schools

for women. The first female colleges were really teacher-training schools.

The most immediate result of public education was an increase in **literacy**, or the ability to read. In western and central Europe, most adults could read by 1900. Where there was less schooling, the story was very different. Nearly 79 percent of adults in Serbia and Russia still could not read by 1900.

With the increase in literacy after 1870 came the rise of mass newspapers, such as the *Evening News* (1881) and the *Daily Mail* (1896) in London. Millions of copies were sold each day. These newspapers were all written in an easily understood style. They were also sensationalistic—that is, they provided gossip and gruesome details of crimes.

✓ **Reading Check Explaining** Why did states make a commitment to provide public education?



This English train (c. 1845) was an early form of the mass transportation that enabled more people to participate in leisure activities.

New Forms of Leisure

The Second Industrial Revolution allowed people to pursue new forms of leisure. The new forms of popular mass leisure both entertained large crowds and distracted them from the realities of their work lives. Leisure came to be viewed as what people do for fun after work. The industrial system gave people new times—evening hours, weekends, and a week or two in the summer—to indulge in leisure activities.

Amusement parks introduced people to exciting new experiences and technology. By the late nineteenth century, team sports had developed into yet another form of leisure. Subways and streetcars

meant that even the working classes could make their way to athletic games, amusement parks, and dance halls.

The new mass leisure was quite different from earlier forms of popular culture. The earlier festivals and fairs had been based on community participation. The new forms of leisure were standardized for largely passive audiences. Amusement parks and professional sports teams were essentially big businesses organized to make profits.

Reading Check **Explaining** How did innovations in transportation change leisure activities during the Second Industrial Revolution?

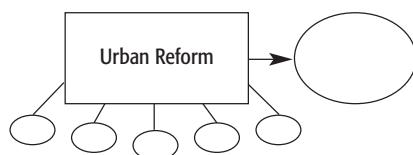
SECTION 2 ASSESSMENT

Checking for Understanding

1. **Define** feminism, literacy.
2. **Identify** Amalie Sieveking, Florence Nightingale, Clara Barton, Emmeline Pankhurst.
3. **Locate** London, Frankfurt.
4. **Explain** what is meant by the term *universal education*. How did industrialization help propel the movement for universal education?
5. **List** the explanations given in this section for the decline in birthrate during the 1800s.

Critical Thinking

6. **Explain** Why have certain occupations such as elementary teaching and nursing historically been dominated by women?
7. **Summarizing Information** Use a graphic organizer like the one below to summarize the results of urban reforms.



Analyzing Visuals

8. **Examine** the clothing worn by the women in the photos on pages 624, 625, and 627. How have women's fashions changed since the late nineteenth century? How have women's political rights changed? In what ways might these changes be related?

Writing About History

9. **Persuasive Writing** The feminist movement changed the role of women. In an essay, argue whether these changes had a positive or negative impact on society.

SECTION 3

The National State and Democracy

Guide to Reading

Main Ideas

- The governments of western Europe were challenged by the development of new political parties and labor unions.
- International rivalries led to conflicts in the Balkans and to World War I.

Key Terms

ministerial responsibility, Duma

People to Identify

Otto von Bismarck, William II, Francis Joseph, Nicholas II, Queen Liliuokalani

Places to Locate

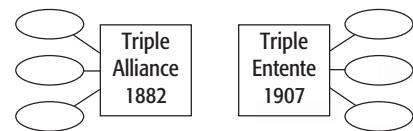
St. Petersburg, Montenegro

Preview Questions

- What domestic problems did the United States and Canada face?
- What issues sparked the crises in the Balkans?

Reading Strategy

Summarizing Information As you read this section, complete a diagram like the one below listing the countries in each alliance.



Preview of Events

1860	1870	1880	1890	1900	1910
1867 Dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary created	1870 France establishes the Third Republic	1882 Triple Alliance created		1900 Labour Party emerges in Great Britain	1907 Triple Entente formed



Czar Nicholas II

Voices from the Past

On January 22, 1905, a group of peaceful demonstrators tried to present a petition of grievances to Czar Nicholas II. One described the result:

“We were not more than thirty yards from the soldiers, being separated from them only by the bridge over the Tarakanovskii Canal, when suddenly, without any warning and without a moment’s delay, was heard the dry crack of many rifle-shots. . . . A little boy of ten years, who was carrying a church lantern, fell pierced by a bullet. Both the [black]smiths who guarded me were killed, as well as all those who were carrying the icons and banners; and all these emblems now lay scattered on the snow. The soldiers were actually shooting into the courtyards of the adjoining houses, where the crowd tried to find refuge.”

—*Eye-witness to History*, John Carey, ed., 1987

As a result of the massacre of peaceful demonstrators, the czar faced a revolution. In Russia and other parts of central and eastern Europe, many groups struggled for independence. Throughout much of the western world, however, the national state had become the focus of people’s loyalties.

Western Europe and Political Democracy

By the late nineteenth century, progress had been made toward establishing constitutions, parliaments, and individual liberties in the major European states.



Austria-Hungary
 French Empire
 German Empire
 Kingdom of Italy
 Ottoman Empire
 Russian Empire

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 500 miles
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 500 kilometers
 Lambert Equal-Area projection

N 50°N 60°N

W 10°W 0° 10°E 20°E 30°E

ATLANTIC OCEAN

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five years after it was proclaimed, the Third Republic gained a republican constitution. The new government had a president and a legislature made up of two houses. Members of the upper house, called the Senate, were elected indirectly. In the lower house, called the Chamber of Deputies, members were elected by universal male suffrage.

The powers of the president were not well defined in the constitution. A premier (or prime minister) actually led the government. The premier and his ministers were responsible to the Chamber of Deputies, not to the president. This principle of **ministerial responsibility**—the idea that the prime minister is responsible to the popularly elected legislative body and not to the executive officer—is crucial for democracy.

France failed to develop a strong parliamentary system. The existence of a dozen political parties forced the premier to depend on a coalition of parties to stay in power. Frequent changes of government leadership plagued the republic. Nevertheless, by 1914, the Third Republic commanded the loyalty of most French people.

Italy Italy had emerged by 1870 as a united national state. The nation had little sense of unity, however, because a great gulf separated the poverty-stricken south from the industrialized north. Constant turmoil between labor and industry weakened the social fabric of the nation. Widespread corruption among government officials prevented the government from dealing with these problems. Universal male suffrage was granted in 1912 but did little to stop corruption and weakness in the government.

 **Reading Check Summarizing** *What is the principle of ministerial responsibility?*



Analyzing Political Cartoons

In 1890, Emperor William II fired Otto von Bismarck and took control of Germany's relations with other countries. In this scene, the emperor is shown relaxing on a throne made of cannonballs and artillery, while Bismarck bids him good-bye. The woman watching represents Germany. **What do you think the cartoonist is trying to say?**

Central and Eastern Europe: The Old Order

Germany, Austria-Hungary (or the Austro-Hungarian Empire), and Russia pursued policies that were quite different from those of some western European nations.

Germany The constitution of the new imperial Germany begun by **Otto von Bismarck** in 1871 provided for a two-house legislature. The lower house of the German parliament, the Reichstag, was elected on the basis of universal male suffrage.

Ministers of government, however, were responsible not to the parliament, but to the emperor. The emperor also controlled the armed forces, foreign policy, and the government bureaucracy. As chancellor (prime minister), Bismarck worked to keep Germany from becoming a democracy.

By the reign of **William II**, emperor from 1888 to 1918, Germany had become the strongest military and industrial power in Europe. With the expansion of industry and cities came demands for democracy.

Conservative forces—especially the landowning nobility and big industrialists, two powerful ruling groups in imperial Germany—tried to block the movement for democracy by supporting a strong



foreign policy. They believed that expansion abroad would not only increase their profits, but would also divert people from pursuing democratic reforms.

Austria-Hungary After the creation of the dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary in 1867, Austria enacted a constitution that, in theory, set up a parliamentary system with ministerial responsibility. In reality, the emperor, **Francis Joseph**, largely ignored this system. He appointed and dismissed his own ministers and issued decrees, or laws, when the parliament was not in session.

Austria remained troubled by conflicts between the various nationalities in the state. The German minority that governed Austria felt increasingly threatened by Czechs, Poles, and other Slavic groups within the empire. Representatives of these groups in the parliament agitated for their freedom, which

further encouraged the emperor to ignore the parliament and govern by imperial decrees.

Unlike Austria, Hungary had a parliament that worked. It was controlled by Magyar landowners who dominated the peasants and ethnic groups.

Russia In Russia, **Nicholas II** began his rule in 1894 believing that the absolute power of the czars should be preserved: "I shall maintain the principle of autocracy just as firmly and unflinchingly as did my unforgettable father." Conditions were changing, however.

Industrialization began late in Russia but progressed rapidly after 1890. By 1900, Russia had become the fourth largest producer of steel behind the United States, Germany, and Great Britain. With industrialization came factories, an industrial working class, and pitiful working and living conditions. Socialist parties developed, including the Marxist Social Democratic Party and the Social Revolutionaries, but government repression forced both parties to go underground. Growing discontent and opposition to the czarist regime finally exploded into the Revolution of 1905.

On January 22, 1905, a massive procession of workers went to the Winter Palace in **St. Petersburg** to present a petition of grievances to the czar. Troops foolishly opened fire on the peaceful demonstration, killing hundreds. This "Bloody Sunday" caused workers throughout Russia to call strikes.

Nicholas II was eventually forced to grant civil liberties and create a legislative assembly, called the **Duma**. These reforms, however, proved short-lived. By 1907, the czar had already curtailed the power of the Duma, and again used the army and bureaucracy to rule Russia.

Reading Check **Identifying**
What was the role of the Duma in the Russian government?



Scene at the Narva Gate in St. Petersburg, January 22, 1905, the day known as "Bloody Sunday"

The United States and Canada

Between 1870 and 1914, the United States became an industrial power with a foreign empire. Canada faced problems of national unity during this period.

Aftermath of the Civil War Four years of bloody civil war had preserved American national unity, but the old South had been destroyed. One-fifth of the adult white male population in the South had been killed, and four million African American slaves had been freed.

In 1865, the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution was passed, abolishing slavery. Later, the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments gave citizenship to African Americans and the right to vote to African American males. However, new state laws in southern states soon stripped African Americans of their right to vote. By 1880, supporters of white supremacy were in power everywhere in the South.

Economy Between 1860 and 1914, the United States shifted from an agrarian to an industrial nation. In 1860, 20 percent of Americans lived in cities, but by 1900, 40 percent lived in cities. American steel and iron production was the best in the world in 1900, with Carnegie Steel Company alone producing more steel than all of Great Britain.

Migration patterns were an important factor. Europeans migrated to both North and South America, but they migrated to the United States in massive numbers—almost 11 million did so between 1870 and 1900. Some left to escape European conditions. Others were drawn by new opportunities.

In 1900, the United States was the world's richest nation, but the richest 9 percent of Americans owned 71 percent of the wealth. Many workers labored in unsafe factories, and devastating cycles of unemployment made them insecure. Many tried to organize unions, but the American Federation of Labor represented only 8.4 percent of the labor force.

Expansion Abroad At the end of the nineteenth century, the United States began to expand abroad. The Samoan Islands in the Pacific became the first important United States colony. By 1887, American settlers had gained control of the sugar industry on the Hawaiian Islands.

As more Americans settled in Hawaii, they sought to gain political power. When Queen Liliuokalani (lee•lee•oo•oh•kah•LAH•nee) tried to strengthen the power of the monarchy to keep the islands under her peoples' control, the United States government

sent military forces to the islands. The queen was deposed, and Hawaii was annexed by the United States in 1898.

In 1898, the United States also defeated Spain in the Spanish-American War. As a result, the United States acquired the formerly Spanish possessions of Puerto Rico, Guam, and the Philippines.

The Filipino people hoped for independence, but the United States refused to grant it. It took the United States three years to pacify the Philippines and establish control. By the beginning of the twentieth century, the United States, the world's richest nation, had an empire.

Canada At the beginning of 1870, the Dominion of Canada had four provinces: Quebec, Ontario, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick. With the addition in 1871 of two more provinces—Manitoba and British Columbia—the Dominion of Canada extended from the Atlantic to the Pacific.

Real unity was difficult to achieve, however, because of distrust between the English-speaking and French-speaking peoples of Canada. Wilfred Laurier, who became the first French-Canadian prime minister in 1896, was able to reconcile these two major groups. During his administration, industrialization boomed, and immigrants from Europe helped populate Canada's vast territories.

 **Reading Check** **Identifying** Name the territories acquired by the United States in 1898.

International Rivalries

Otto von Bismarck realized that Germany's emergence in 1871 as the most powerful state in continental Europe had upset the balance of power established at Vienna in 1815. Fearing that France intended to create an anti-German alliance, Bismarck made a defensive alliance with Austria-Hungary in 1879. In 1882, Italy joined this alliance.

The Triple Alliance of 1882 united the powers of Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy in a defensive alliance against France. At the same time, Bismarck maintained a separate treaty with Russia and tried to remain on good terms with Great Britain.

In 1890, Emperor William II fired Bismarck and took control of Germany's foreign policy. The emperor embarked on an activist policy dedicated to enhancing German power. He wanted, as he put it, to find Germany's rightful "place in the sun."

One of the changes he made in Bismarck's foreign policy was to drop the treaty with Russia. The ending

of that alliance brought France and Russia together. In 1894, these two powers formed a military alliance.

Over the next 10 years, German policies abroad caused the British to draw closer to France. By 1907, an alliance of Great Britain, France, and Russia—known as the Triple Entente—stood opposed to the Triple Alliance of Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy.

Europe was now dangerously divided into two opposing camps that became more and more unwilling to compromise. A series of crises in the Balkans between 1908 and 1913 set the stage for World War I.

 **Reading Check** **Summarizing** *What countries formed the Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente?*

Crises in the Balkans

Over the course of the nineteenth century, the Balkan provinces of the Ottoman Empire had gradually gained their freedom, although regional rivalries between Austria-Hungary and Russia had complicated the process. By 1878, Greece, Serbia, Romania, and Montenegro had become independent states. Bulgaria did not become totally independent, but was allowed to operate under Russian protection. The Balkan territories of Bosnia and Herzegovina were placed under the protection of Austria-Hungary.

In 1908, Austria-Hungary took the drastic step of annexing Bosnia and Herzegovina. Serbia was outraged. The annexation of these two Slavic-speaking

territories dashed the Serbians' hopes of creating a large Serbian kingdom that would include most of the southern Slavs.

The Russians, as protectors of their fellow Slavs, supported the Serbs and opposed the annexation. Backed by the Russians, the Serbs prepared for war against Austria-Hungary. At this point, Emperor William II of Germany demanded that the Russians accept Austria-Hungary's annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina or face war with Germany.

Weakened from their defeat in the Russo-Japanese War in 1905, the Russians backed down but vowed revenge. Two wars between Balkan states in 1912 and 1913 further embittered the inhabitants and created more tensions among the great powers.

The Serbians blamed Austria-Hungary for their failure to create a large Serbian kingdom. Austria-Hungary was convinced that Serbia was a mortal threat to its empire and must at some point be crushed. As Serbia's chief supporters, the Russians were angry and determined not to back down again in the event of another confrontation with Austria-Hungary or Germany in the Balkans. The allies of Austria-Hungary and Russia were determined to support their respective allies more strongly in another crisis. By the beginning of 1914, these countries viewed each other with suspicion.

 **Reading Check** **Explaining** *Why were the Serbs outraged when Austria-Hungary annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina?*

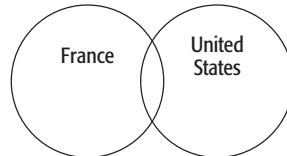
SECTION 3 ASSESSMENT

Checking for Understanding

1. **Define** ministerial responsibility, Duma.
2. **Identify** Otto von Bismarck, William II, Francis Joseph, Nicholas II, Queen Liliuokalani.
3. **Locate** St. Petersburg, Montenegro.
4. **Explain** how the United States became an industrial power. What problems did industrialization cause in the United States and how did people attempt to solve some of these problems?
5. **List** the series of events leading to unrest in Russia at the turn of the century. What were the consequences of "Bloody Sunday"?

Critical Thinking

6. **Analyze** Which country do you think had a stronger democracy at the end of the nineteenth century, France or England? Why?
7. **Compare and Contrast** Use this chapter and Chapter 17 to create a Venn diagram like the one below comparing and contrasting the systems of government in France and the United States.



Analyzing Visuals

8. **Examine** the illustration of "Bloody Sunday" on page 632. What does the artist seem to be saying about the events that occurred on January 22, 1905? Does the picture reflect a particular point of view? Where might an illustration such as this have been exhibited and why?

Writing About History

9. **Expository Writing** Do some research about recent conflicts in the Balkans. Write one or two paragraphs comparing the causes of the recent conflicts with the causes of the conflicts between Balkan countries in the early twentieth century.

Critical Thinking SKILLBUILDER

Detecting Bias

Why Learn This Skill?

Suppose you see an ad showing two happy customers shaking hands with a used-car salesman. The ad says, "Visit Honest Harry for the best deal on wheels." That evening you see a television program that investigates used-car sales businesses. The report says that many of these businesses cheat their customers.

Each message expresses a bias—an inclination or prejudice that inhibits impartiality. Harry wants to sell cars; the television program wants to attract viewers. Most people have preconceived feelings, opinions, and attitudes that affect their judgment on many topics. Ideas stated as facts may be opinions. Detecting bias enables us to evaluate the accuracy of information.



Learning the Skill

In detecting bias:

- Identify the writer's or speaker's purpose.
- Watch for emotionally charged language such as *exploit*, *terrorize*, and *cheat*.
- Look for visual images that provoke a strong emotional response.
- Look for overgeneralizations such as *unique*, *honest*, and *everybody*.
- Notice italics, underlining, and punctuation that highlight particular ideas.
- Examine the material to determine whether it presents equal coverage of differing views.

Practicing the Skill

Industrialization produced widespread changes in society and widespread disagreement on its effects. Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels presented their viewpoint on industrialization in *The Communist Manifesto* in 1848. Read the following excerpt and then answer these questions.

“The bourgeoisie . . . has put an end to all feudal, patriarchal, idyllic relations. It has pitilessly torn asunder the motley feudal ties that bound man to his ‘natural superiors,’ and has left remaining no other nexus [link] between man and man than naked self-interest, than callous ‘cash payment.’ It has drowned the most heavenly of ecstasies of religious fervor, of chivalrous enthusiasm . . . in the icy water of egotistical calculation. . . . In one word, for exploitation, veiled by religious and political illusions, it has substituted naked, shameless, direct, brutal exploitation.”

- 1 What is the purpose of this quote?
- 2 What are three examples of emotionally charged language?
- 3 According to Marx and Engels, which is more inhumane—the exploitation by feudal lords or by the bourgeoisie? Why?
- 4 What bias about the bourgeoisie is expressed in this excerpt?

Applying the Skill

Find written material about a topic of interest in your community. Possible sources include editorials, letters to the editor, and pamphlets from political candidates and interest groups. Write a short report analyzing the material for evidence of bias.



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

Toward the Modern Consciousness

Guide to Reading

Main Ideas

- Innovative artistic movements during the late 1800s and early 1900s rejected traditional styles.
- Extreme nationalism and racism led to an increase in anti-Semitism.
- Developments in science changed how people saw themselves and their world.

Key Terms

psychoanalysis, pogrom, modernism

Preview of Events

1890	1895	1900	1905	1910	1915	1920
1896 Herzl publishes <i>The Jewish State</i>		1900 Freud publishes <i>The Interpretation of Dreams</i>		1905 Einstein publishes his special theory of relativity		1913 Stravinsky's <i>The Rite of Spring</i> performed in Paris

People to Identify

Marie Curie, Albert Einstein, Sigmund Freud, Claude Monet, Pablo Picasso

Places to Locate

Vienna, France

Preview Questions

- How did Einstein and Freud challenge people's views of the world?
- How did modernism revolutionize architecture?

Reading Strategy

Identifying Information As you read this section, complete a chart like the one below that lists an artist and a characteristic of the art movement indicated.

Impressionism		
Post-Impressionism		
Cubism		
Abstract		
Expressionism		



Self-Portrait
by Camille Pissarro

Voices from the Past

Camille Pissarro, a French artist, expressed his philosophy of painting in this way:

“Do not define too closely the outlines of things; it is the brush stroke of the right value and color which should produce the drawing. . . . The eye should not be fixed on one point, but should take in everything, while observing the reflections which the colors produce on their surroundings. Work at the same time upon sky, water, branches, ground, keeping everything going on an equal basis. . . . Don’t proceed according to rules and principles, but paint what you observe and feel. Paint generously unhesitatingly, for it is best not to lose the first impression.”

—*History of Impressionism*, John Rewald, 1961

Pissarro was part of a revolution in the arts. Between 1870 and 1914, radical ideas in the arts and sciences opened the way to a modern consciousness.

A New Physics

TURNING POINT As you will learn, Albert Einstein challenged the Newtonian idea of a mechanical universe, thus introducing an element of uncertainty into humankind's perception of space and time.

Before 1914, many people in the Western world continued to believe in the values and ideals that had been put forth by the Scientific Revolution and the Enlightenment. *Reason*, *science*, and *progress* were still important words to Europeans.

Science was one of the chief pillars supporting the optimistic view of the world that many Westerners shared in the nineteenth century. Science, which was supposedly based on hard facts and cold reason, offered a certainty of belief in the orderliness of nature. Many believed that by applying already known scientific laws, humans could arrive at a complete understanding of the physical world and an accurate picture of reality.

Throughout much of the nineteenth century, Westerners believed in a mechanical conception of the universe that was based on the ideas of Isaac Newton. In this perspective, the universe was viewed as a giant machine. Time, space, and matter were objective realities that existed independently of those observing them. Matter was thought to be composed of solid material bodies called atoms.



Marie Curie, c. 1910

These views were seriously questioned at the end of the nineteenth century. The French scientist **Marie Curie** discovered that an element called radium gave off energy, or radiation, that apparently came from within the atom itself. Atoms were not simply hard material bodies but small, active worlds.

At the beginning of the twentieth century, **Albert Einstein**, a German-born scientist working in Switzerland, provided a new view of the universe. In 1905, Einstein published his special theory of relativity, which stated that space and time are not absolute but are relative to the observer.

According to this theory, neither space nor time has an existence independent of human experience. As Einstein later explained to a journalist, "It was formerly believed that if all material things disappeared out of the universe, time and space would be left. According to the relativity theory, however, time and space disappear together with the things."

Moreover, matter and energy reflect the



Albert Einstein, 1940

relativity of time and space. Einstein concluded that matter is nothing but another form of energy. This idea led to an understanding of the vast energies contained within the atom and to the Atomic Age. To some, however, a relative universe—unlike Newton's universe—was a universe without certainty.

 **Reading Check** **Explaining** How did Marie Curie's discovery change people's ideas about the atom?

Freud and Psychoanalysis

At the turn of the century, **Sigmund Freud** (FROYD), a doctor from **Vienna**, proposed a series of theories that raised questions about the nature of the human mind. Freud's ideas, like the new physics, added to the uncertainties of the age. His major theories were published in 1900 in *The Interpretation of Dreams*.

According to Freud, human behavior was strongly determined by past experiences and internal forces of which people were largely unaware. Freud argued that painful and unsettling experiences were repressed, or hidden from a person's conscious awareness. Freud believed that these hidden feelings continued to influence behavior, however, because they were part of the unconscious.

According to Freud, repression of such experiences began in childhood, so he devised a method—known as **psychoanalysis**—by which a therapist and patient could probe deeply into the patient's memory. In this way, they could retrace the chain of repressed thoughts all the way back to their childhood origins. If the patient's conscious mind could be made aware of the unconscious and its repressed contents, the patient could be healed.

The full importance of Sigmund Freud's thought was not felt until after World War I. In the 1920s, his ideas gained worldwide acceptance. Freudian terms, such as *unconscious* and *repression*, became standard vocabulary words. Psychoanalysis, pioneered by Freud, developed into a major profession.

 **Reading Check** **Summarizing** What is Freud's theory of the human unconscious?



Sigmund Freud, c. 1938

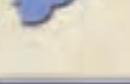
Revolution in the Arts and Sciences			
		Old View	New View
	Architecture	Ornamentalism	Functionalism
	Literature	Naturalism	Symbolism
	Music	Romanticism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Impressionism Chromaticism Expressionism
	Painting	Realism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Impressionism Postimpressionism Cubism Abstract expressionism
	Physics	Newton's mechanical universe	Einstein's relative universe
	Psychology	Conscious awareness	Freud's unconscious mind

Chart Skills

In the late nineteenth century, major changes occurred in the arts and sciences.

- Identifying** Review earlier chapters of your text and identify artists and scientists whose work exemplified the “Old Views,” as listed above.
- Evaluating** After reading about the changes that took place in each of the areas listed above, write a paragraph or two explaining which area of change you think had the biggest impact on societies and cultures of the early twentieth century.

Social Darwinism and Racism

In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, scientific theories were sometimes applied inappropriately to achieve desired results. For example, Charles Darwin’s theories were applied to human society in a radical way by nationalists and racists. Their ideas are known as Social Darwinism.

The most popular exponent of Social Darwinism was the British philosopher Herbert Spencer. He argued that social progress came from “the struggle for survival” as the “fit”—the strong—advanced while the weak declined. Some prominent businessmen used Social Darwinism to explain their success. To them, the strong and fit—the able and energetic—had risen to the top; the stupid and lazy had fallen by the wayside.

In their pursuit of national greatness, extreme nationalists often insisted that nations, too, were engaged in a “struggle for existence” in which only the fittest (the strongest) survived. The German general Friedrich von Bernhardi argued in 1907, “War is a biological necessity of the first importance, . . . since without it an unhealthy development will follow, which excludes every advancement of the race, and therefore all real civilization. War is the father of all things.”

Perhaps nowhere was the combination of extreme nationalism and racism more evident than in Germany. One of the chief exponents of German racism was Houston Stewart Chamberlain, a Briton who became a German citizen. He believed that modern-day Germans were the only pure successors of the Aryans, who were portrayed as the original creators of

Western culture. Chamberlain singled out Jews as the racial enemy who wanted to destroy the Aryan race.

Reading Check **Explaining** What does the theory of Social Darwinism state?

Anti-Semitism and Zionism

Anti-Semitism—hostility toward and discrimination against Jews—was not new to European civilization. Since the Middle Ages, the Jews had been portrayed as the murderers of Christ and subjected to mob violence. Their rights had been restricted, and they had been physically separated from Christians by being required to live in areas of cities known as ghettos.

In the nineteenth century, Jews were increasingly granted legal equality in many European countries. Many Jews now left the ghettos and became assimilated into the cultures around them. Many became successful as bankers, lawyers, scientists, scholars, and journalists.

Berthe Morisot

1841–1895—French painter



Berthe Morisot was the first woman painter to join the Impressionists. She came from a wealthy French family that had settled in Paris when she was seven. Her dedication to the new style of painting won her the disfavor of more traditional French artists.

Morisot believed that women had a special vision, which was, as she said, "more delicate than that of men." She developed her own unique style, using lighter colors and flowing brushstrokes. Near the end of her life, she lamented the refusal of men to take her work seriously: "I don't think there has ever been a man who treated a woman as an equal, and that's all I would have asked, for I know I'm worth as much as they."

These achievements were only one side of the picture, however, as is evident from the Dreyfus affair in France. Alfred Dreyfus, a Jew, was a captain in the French general staff. In 1894, a secret military court found him guilty of selling army secrets and condemned him to life imprisonment. During his trial, angry right-wing mobs yelled anti-Semitic sayings such as, "Death to the Jews."

Soon after the trial, however, evidence emerged that pointed to Dreyfus's innocence. Another officer, a Catholic aristocrat, was more obviously the traitor. The army refused a new trial. A wave of public outrage finally forced the government to pardon Dreyfus in 1899.

In Germany and Austria-Hungary during the 1880s and 1890s, new parties arose that used anti-Semitism to win the votes of people who felt threatened by the changing economic forces of the times. However, the worst treatment of Jews at the turn of the century occurred in eastern Europe, where a majority of the world Jewish population lived. Russian Jews were forced to live in certain regions of the country. Persecutions and **pogroms** (organized massacres) were widespread.

Hundreds of thousands of Jews decided to emigrate to escape the persecution. Many went to the United States. Some (probably about 25,000) moved to Palestine, which became home for a Jewish nationalist movement called Zionism.

For many Jews, Palestine, the land of ancient Israel, had long been the land of their dreams. A key figure in the growth of political Zionism was Theodor Herzl, who stated in his book *The Jewish State* (1896), "The Jews who wish it will have their state."

Settlement in Palestine was difficult, however, because it was then part of the Ottoman Empire, which was opposed to Jewish immigration. Although three thousand Jews went annually to Palestine between 1904 and 1914, the Zionist desire for a homeland in Palestine remained only a dream on the eve of World War I.

Reading Check **Explaining** Why did Jews begin to move to Palestine?

The Culture of Modernity

Between 1870 and 1914, many writers and artists rebelled against the traditional literary and artistic styles that had dominated European cultural life since the Renaissance. The changes that they produced have since been called **modernism**.

Literature Throughout much of the late nineteenth century, literature was dominated by naturalism. Naturalists felt that literature should be realistic and address social problems. These writers, such as Henrik Ibsen and Émile Zola, explored issues such as the role of women in society, alcoholism, and the problems of urban slums.

At the beginning of the twentieth century, a group of writers known as the **symbolists** caused a literary revolution. Primarily interested in writing poetry and strongly influenced by the ideas of Freud, the symbolists believed that objective knowledge of the world was impossible. The external world was only a collection of symbols that reflected the true reality—the individual human mind. Art, the symbolists believed, should function for its own sake instead of serving, criticizing, or seeking to understand society.

Painting The period from 1870 to 1914 was one of the most productive in the history of art. Since the Renaissance, the task of artists had been to represent reality as accurately as possible. By the late nineteenth century, artists were seeking new forms of expression to reflect their changing views of the world.



Web Activity Visit the Glencoe World History Web site at wh.glencoe.com and click on **Chapter 20—Student Web Activity** to learn more about Impressionism.

CLICK HERE



History *through Art*

***Starry Night* by Vincent van Gogh, 1889**

During the last two years of his life, van Gogh painted many night scenes such as this one.

What adjectives would you use to describe the feelings van Gogh conveyed in this painting?

Impressionism was a movement that began in France in the 1870s, when a group of artists rejected the studios where artists had traditionally worked and went out into the countryside to paint nature directly. One important Impressionist is **Claude Monet** (moh•NAY), who painted pictures in which he sought to capture the interplay of light, water, and sky. Other Impressionist painters include Pierre-Auguste Renoir (REHN• WAHR) and Berthe Morisot.

In the 1880s, a new movement, known as Postimpressionism, arose in France and soon spread to other European countries. A famous Postimpressionist is Vincent van Gogh (GOH). For van Gogh, art was a spiritual experience. He was especially interested in color and believed that it could act as its own form of language. Van Gogh maintained that artists should paint what they feel.

By the beginning of the twentieth century, the belief that the goal of art was to represent reality had lost much of its meaning. This was especially true in the visual arts. Perhaps the most important factor in the decline of realism in painting was the spread of photography to the mass markets. Photography had been invented in the 1830s and became widespread after George Eastman created the first Kodak camera

in 1888. Now, anyone could take a photograph that looked exactly like the subject.

Artists came to realize that their strength was not in mirroring reality, which the camera could do, but in creating reality. The visual artists, like the symbolist writers of the time, sought meaning in individual consciousness. Between 1905 and 1914, this search for individual expression created modern art. One of the most outstanding features of modern art is the attempt of the artist to avoid "visual reality."

By 1905, one of the most important figures in modern art was beginning his career. **Pablo Picasso** was from Spain but settled in Paris in 1904. He painted in a remarkable variety of styles. He created a new style, called cubism, that used geometric designs to recreate reality in the viewer's mind. In his paintings, Picasso attempted to view human form from many sides. In this aspect he seems to have been influenced by the increasingly popular theory of relativity.



History *through* Architecture

Fallingwater by Frank Lloyd Wright
1936 Why do you think this Pennsylvania house is a good example of modern architecture?



In 1910, abstract painting began. Wassily Kandinsky, a Russian who worked in Germany, was one of the founders of abstract expressionism. Kandinsky sought to avoid visual reality altogether. He believed that art should speak directly to the soul. To do so, it must use only line and color.

Architecture Modernism in the arts revolutionized architecture and gave rise to a new principle known as functionalism. Functionalism was the idea that buildings, like the products of machines, should be functional, or useful. They should fulfill the purpose for which they were built. All unnecessary ornamentation should be stripped away.

The United States was a leader in the new architecture. The country's rapid urban growth and lack of any architectural tradition allowed for new building methods. The Chicago School of the 1890s, led by Louis H. Sullivan, used reinforced concrete, steel frames, and electric elevators to build skyscrapers virtually free of external ornamentation.

One of Sullivan's most successful pupils was Frank Lloyd Wright. Wright's private houses, built chiefly for wealthy patrons, were geometric structures with long lines and overhanging roofs. Wright pioneered the modern American house.

Music At the beginning of the twentieth century, developments in music paralleled those in painting. The music of the Russian composer Igor Stravinsky was the first to reflect expressionist theories.

Stravinsky's ballet *The Rite of Spring* revolutionized music. When it was performed in Paris in 1913, the sounds and rhythms of the music and dance caused a near riot by an outraged audience.

✓ **Reading Check** **Explaining** How did the Impressionists radically change the art of painting in the 1870s?

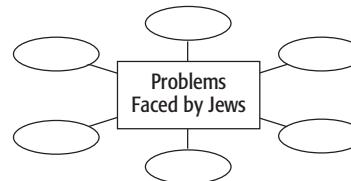
SECTION 4 ASSESSMENT

Checking for Understanding

1. **Define** psychoanalysis, pogrom, modernism.
2. **Identify** Marie Curie, Albert Einstein, Sigmund Freud, symbolists, Claude Monet, Pablo Picasso.
3. **Locate** Vienna, France.
4. **Explain** why photography caused some artists to reject realism.
5. **List** some of the modernist movements in art, music, and architecture and an individual associated with each of the movements.

Critical Thinking

6. **Analyze** Why are times of political and economic change often associated with times of artistic change?
7. **Organizing Information** Use a web diagram to summarize the problems the Jews faced during the time period discussed in this section.



Analyzing Visuals

8. **Compare** the painting by van Gogh on page 640 to other paintings of night scenes in art history books. Pick one such painting and tell why you enjoy that painting either more or less than the van Gogh painting.

Writing About History

9. **Expository Writing** Research the symbolist writers. Who were they and what did they write about? Write a short biography about one of the symbolists who interests you. Include the titles of this symbolist's best-known works.

CHAPTER 20 ASSESSMENT and ACTIVITIES

Using Key Terms

1. The _____ were Marxists who rejected the revolutionary approach of pure Marxists.
2. According to Marx, the middle-class oppressors were the _____, and the working-class oppressed were the _____.
3. _____ is the movement for gaining women's rights.
4. The principle by which a prime minister is directly answerable to a popularly elected representative body is _____.
5. The _____ is the Russian legislative assembly.
6. _____ is a method by which a therapist and a patient probe for repressed experiences.
7. A literary and artistic style that rejected traditional styles was called _____.
8. _____ were organized massacres of helpless people, such as the acts against the Jews.
9. A _____ is a government in which a person or group has absolute power.
10. The introduction of universal education in the late nineteenth century led to an increase in _____.

Reviewing Key Facts

11. **Science and Technology** List one invention each of Guglielmo Marconi, Thomas Edison, and Alexander Graham Bell.
12. **Government** Who wrote *The Communist Manifesto*?

13. **Culture** How did Florence Nightingale and Clara Barton transform nursing?
14. **Culture** What purposes were served by compulsory education?
15. **Government** What was the name given to France's government after the adoption of a new constitution in 1875?
16. **Government** What was the result of "Bloody Sunday" in St. Petersburg in 1905?
17. **Economics** Why did American workers organize unions?
18. **Culture** What did Louis H. Sullivan contribute to the field of architecture?
19. **Government** Who was the emperor of Germany at the end of the nineteenth century?
20. **Culture** Who was Vincent van Gogh and why was he important?
21. **Government** What basic right were women denied until World War I?
22. **Economics** By 1900, Russia had become the fourth largest producer of what product?

Critical Thinking

23. **Evaluating** Why was revisionist socialism more powerful in western Europe than in eastern Europe?
24. **Drawing Conclusions** Was the Revolution of 1905 in Russia a success or a failure? Why?
25. **Summarizing** Identify changes that resulted from the Second Industrial Revolution.

Chapter Summary

Innovations in technology and production methods created great economic, political, social, and cultural changes between 1870 and 1914, as shown in the chart below. The development of a mass society led to labor reforms and the extension of voting rights. New scientific theories radically changed people's vision of the world. Change also brought conflict as tensions increased in Europe and new alliances were formed.

Economics

- Industrial growth and the development of new energy resources lead to increased production of consumer goods.

Politics

- Growth of mass politics leads to the development of new political parties.
- Labor leaders use ideas of socialism and Marxism to form unions.

Society

- Women fight for equal rights.
- Society adopts middle-class values.
- Unions fight for labor reforms.
- Mass leisure develops.

Culture

- Many artists reject traditional styles and develop new art movements.
- New scientific ideas radically change people's perception of the world.

Conflict

- Nationalism and imperialism create conflict in the Balkans and eventually lead to World War I.
- Growth of nationalism leads to increased anti-Semitism.

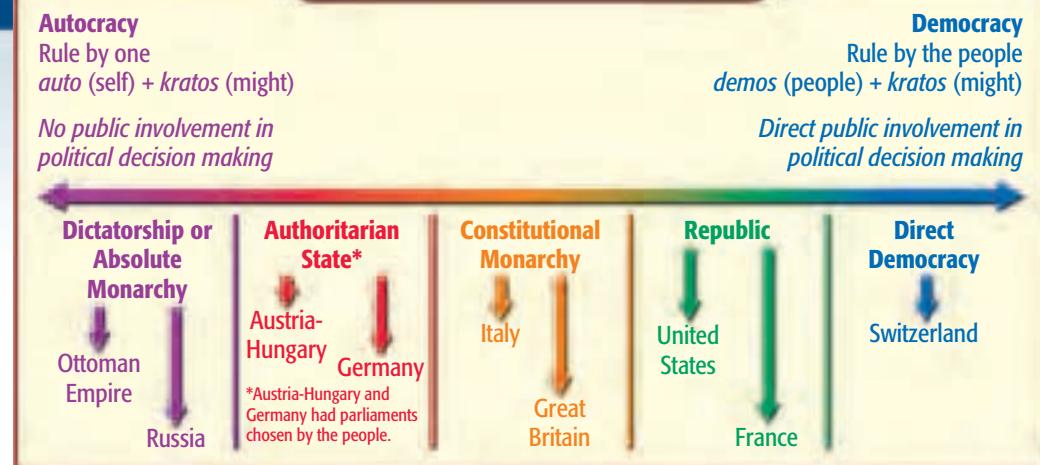
CLICK HERE



Self-Check Quiz

Visit the *Glencoe World History* Web site at [wh.glencoe.com](http://www.glencoe.com) and click on **Chapter 20—Self-Check Quiz** to prepare for the Chapter Test.

Forms of Government, 1900



Writing About History

26. **Expository Writing** Compare and contrast Einstein's and Newton's understandings of the universe. Explain how they differ and how they are related.

Analyzing Sources

Read the following quote from a regular visitor to an upper-class seaside resort.

“They swarm upon the beach, wandering about with apparently no other aim than to get a mouthful of fresh air. You may see them in groups of three or four—the husband, a pale man, dressed in black coat, carries the baby; the wife, equally pale and thin, decked out in her best, labors after with a basket of food. And then there is generally another child . . . wandering behind.”

27. What can you infer about the husband and the wife from the way in which they are described?
28. In what way do the ideas expressed in this quote reflect the class-consciousness of this time period?

Applying Technology Skills

29. **Using the Internet** Use the Internet to find examples of paintings by Monet and Picasso. Carefully examine the paintings, then describe their main differences and similarities. Some features to look for include each artist's subject matter, use of color, and method of painting.

Making Decisions

30. Assume the role of a working-class laborer at a newly unionized factory. What demands would you present to management? Do these demands cover everything that is wrong with the factory? If not, how did you decide what to present?

31. Reread the information in your text and do further research on similarities and differences among the British Conservative, Liberal, and Labour parties of 1914. Decide which of these three parties you would belong to if you lived in England at that time. Explain your choice of parties.

Analyzing Maps and Charts

Use the chart above to answer the following questions.

32. According to the chart, what is the major difference between an autocratic and a democratic form of government?
33. How are a constitutional monarchy and a republic similar? How do they differ?
34. Where was direct democracy practiced in 1900? Which earlier civilizations also practiced direct democracy?



Standardized Test Practice

Directions: Choose the best answer to the following question.

The emergence of different factions in the Balkan Peninsula at the end of the nineteenth century was a result of
F shifting power as the Ottoman Empire waned.
G Serbia's dominance of the region.
H America's victory in the Spanish-American War.
J Nicholas II of Russia's repressive regime.

Test-Taking Tip: This question asks you for a *cause*. Because causes always happen before effects, think about which answer choices happened *before* the disintegration of the Balkan Peninsula.

CHAPTER 21

The Height of Imperialism

1800–1914

Key Events

As you read this chapter, look for the key events in the history of imperialism.

- Competition among European nations led to the partition of Africa.
- Colonial rule created a new social class of Westernized intellectuals.
- British rule brought order and stability to India, but with its own set of costs.
- As a colonial power, the United States practiced many of the same imperialist policies as European nations.

The Impact Today

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

- Rhodesia became the nation of Zimbabwe.
- India adopted a parliamentary form of government like that of Great Britain.
- The United States gave up rights to the Panama Canal Zone on December 31, 1999.
- Europeans migrated to the Americas, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa.



World History Video The Chapter 21 video, "Imperialism," chronicles imperialism on three continents.

Sir Thomas Raffles,
founder of Singapore



1848

Mexico loses almost half of its territory to the United States

1855

David Livingstone is first European to see Victoria Falls

1810

1820

1830

1840

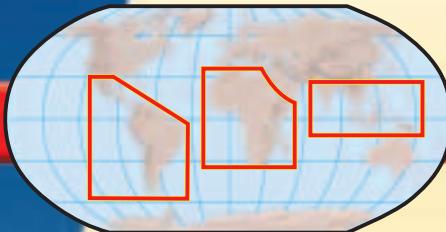
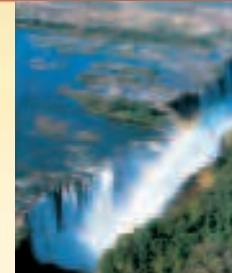
1850

1860

1819

British colony
of Singapore
founded

Victoria Falls,
in Zimbabwe





British family celebrating Christmas in India, c. 1900



Zulus meet the British.

1879 Zulu king meets with British ambassadors	1896 Britain and France agree to maintain Thailand as a buffer state	1900 Virtually all of Southeast Asia is under European rule
1880 "New imperialism" begins	1898 The United States defeats Spain for control over the Philippines	1910 Emiliano Zapata leads peasant movement in Mexico
1884 France makes the Vietnam Empire a protectorate		

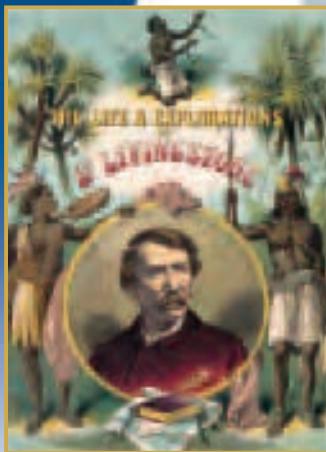
HISTORY Online

Chapter Overview

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CLICK HERE

Emiliano Zapata



David Livingstone



Livingstone expedition in Africa, c. 1855

Livingstone in Africa

In 1841, the Scottish doctor and missionary David Livingstone began a series of journeys that took him through much of central and southern Africa. Livingstone was a gentle man whose goal was to find locations for Christian missions on behalf of the London Missionary Society. He took great delight in working with the African people.

Livingstone's travels were not easy. Much of his journey was done by foot, canoe, or mule. He suffered at times from rheumatic fever, dysentery, and malaria. He survived an attack by armed warriors and a mutiny by his own servants.

Back in Great Britain, his exploits made Livingstone a national hero. His book *Missionary Travels and Researches in South Africa* was a best-seller. People jammed into lecture halls to hear him speak of the beauty of Africa. As the *London Journal* reported, "Europe had always heard that the central regions of southern Africa were bleak and barren, heated by poisonous winds, infested by snakes . . . [but Livingstone spoke of] a high country, full of fruit trees, abounding in shade, watered by a perfect network of rivers."

Livingstone tried to persuade his listeners that Britain needed to send both missionaries and merchants to Africa. Combining Christianity and commerce, he said, would achieve civilization for Africa.

Why It Matters

During the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, Western colonialism spread throughout the non-Western world. Great Britain, Spain, Holland, France, Germany, Russia, and the United States competed for markets and raw materials for their expanding economies. By the end of the nineteenth century, virtually all of the peoples of Asia and Africa were under colonial rule. Although Latin America successfully resisted European control, it remained economically dependent on Europe and the United States.

History and You Territorial and trade dominance are among the primary goals of imperialist nations. Create a map of either Asia or Africa to help you understand how the various imperialists viewed those regions. Code the territories according to exports or European dominance.

SECTION 1

Colonial Rule in Southeast Asia

Guide to Reading

Main Ideas

- Through the “new imperialism,” Westerners sought to control vast territories.
- Colonial export policies exploited native populations and opened up markets for European manufactured goods.

Key Terms

imperialism, protectorate, indirect rule, direct rule

Preview of Events

◆ 1850

◆ 1870

◆ 1890

◆ 1910

◆ 1930

◆ 1950

1887

France completes its control of Indochina

1896

France and Great Britain agree to maintain Thailand as a buffer state

1930

Saya San leads Burma uprising

People to Identify

King Mongkut, King Chulalongkorn, Commodore George Dewey, Emilio Aguinaldo

Places to Locate

Singapore, Burma, Thailand, Philippines

Preview Questions

1. Why were Westerners so determined to colonize Southeast Asia?
2. What was the chief goal of the Western nations?

Reading Strategy

Identifying Information Make a chart showing which countries controlled what parts of Southeast Asia.

Spain (until 1898)	
Holland	
United States (after 1898)	
France	
Great Britain	



Dutch plantation in Java, mid-1800s

Voices from the Past

In 1860, E. Douwes Dekker wrote a book on the Dutch colonial system on the island of Java. He said:

“The [Dutch government] compels [the Javanese farmer] to cultivate certain products on his land; it punishes him if he sells what he has produced to any purchaser but itself; and it fixes the price actually paid. The expenses of transport to Europe through a privileged trading company are high; the money paid to the chiefs for encouragement increases the prime cost; and because the entire trade must produce profit, that profit cannot be got in any other way than by paying the Javanese just enough to keep him from starving, which would lessen the producing power of the nation.”

— *The World of Southeast Asia: Selected Historical Readings*,
Harry J. Benda and John A. Larkin, eds., 1967

Dekker, a Dutch colonial official, was critical of the havoc the Dutch had wreaked on the native peoples of Java.

The New Imperialism

In the nineteenth century, a new phase of Western expansion into Asia and Africa began. European nations began to view Asian and African societies as a source of industrial raw materials and a market for Western manufactured goods. No longer were Western gold and silver traded for cloves, pepper, tea,

and silk. Now the products of European factories were sent to Africa and Asia in return for oil, tin, rubber, and the other resources needed to fuel European industries.

Beginning in the 1880s, European states began an intense scramble for overseas territory. **Imperialism**, the extension of a nation's power over other lands, was not new. Europeans had set up colonies in North and South America and trading posts around Africa and the Indian Ocean by the sixteenth century.

However, the imperialism of the late nineteenth century, called the "new imperialism" by some, was different. Earlier, European states had been content, especially in Africa and Asia, to set up a few trading posts where they could carry on trade and perhaps some missionary activity. Now they sought nothing less than direct control over vast territories.

Why did Westerners begin to increase their search for colonies after 1880? There was a strong economic motive. Capitalist states in the West were looking for both markets and raw materials, such as rubber, oil, and tin, for their industries. Europeans also wanted more direct control of the areas with the raw materials and markets.

The issue was not simply an economic one, however. European nation-states were involved in heated rivalries. As European affairs grew tense, states sought to acquire colonies abroad in order to gain an advantage over their rivals.

Colonies were also a source of national prestige. To some people, in fact, a nation could not be great without colonies. One German historian wrote that

"all great nations in the fullness of their strength have the desire to set their mark upon barbarian lands and those who fail to participate in this great rivalry will play a pitiable role in time to come."

In addition, imperialism was tied to Social Darwinism and racism. Social Darwinists believed that in the struggle between nations, the fit are victorious. Racism is the belief that race determines traits and capabilities. Racists erroneously believe that particular races are superior or inferior. Racist beliefs have led to the use of military force against other nations. One British professor argued in 1900, "The path of progress is strewn with the wrecks of nations; traces are everywhere to be seen of the [slaughtered remains] of inferior races. Yet these dead people are, in very truth, the stepping stones on which mankind has arisen to the higher intellectual and deeper emotional life of today."

Some Europeans took a more religious and humanitarian approach to imperialism. They argued that Europeans had a moral responsibility to civilize primitive people. They called this responsibility the "white man's burden."

These people believed that the nations of the West should help the nations of Asia and Africa. To some, this meant bringing the Christian message to the "heathen masses." To others, it meant bringing the benefits of Western democracy and capitalism to these societies.

 **Reading Check** **Describing** What were four primary motivations for the "new imperialism"?

Major Regions of European Control			Chart Skills
	Southeast Asia	Africa	
Britain			
Belgium			
France			
Germany			
Italy			
Netherlands			
Portugal			
Spain			

In the late 1800s a "new imperialism" flourished, with most of the major European countries attempting to take control of territories in Asia and Africa.

1. Identifying Look at a political map of Europe in Chapter 20. Which European countries did *not* try to colonize parts of Asia or Africa?

2. Analyzing It has been said about one of the countries identified in the chart that "the sun never sets" on this particular empire. To which country does this phrase refer? What do you think the phrase means?

Imperialism in Southeast Asia, 1900



Geography Skills

In search of new markets and raw materials, several European nations worked aggressively to colonize Southeast Asia in the late 1800s.

1. Interpreting Maps

Which two European nations had the most territory in Southeast Asia?

2. Applying Geography Skills

Using the map and information from your text, describe Thailand's unique status in Southeast Asia.



Colonial Takeover in Southeast Asia

The new imperialism of the late nineteenth century was evident in Southeast Asia. In 1800, only two societies in this area were ruled by Europeans: the Spanish Philippines and the Dutch East Indies. By 1900, virtually the entire area was under Western rule.

Great Britain The process began with Great Britain. In 1819, Great Britain, under Sir Thomas Stamford Raffles, founded a new colony on a small island at the tip of the Malay Peninsula called **Singapore** ("city of the lion"). In the new age of steamships, Singapore soon became a major stopping point for traffic going to or from China. Raffles was proud of his new city and wrote to a friend in England, "Here all is life and activity; and it would be difficult to name a place on the face of the globe with brighter prospects."

During the next few decades, the British advance into Southeast Asia continued. Next to fall was the kingdom of **Burma** (modern Myanmar). Britain wanted control of Burma in order to protect its possessions in India. It also sought a land route through Burma into South China. Although the difficult terrain along the frontier between Burma and China

caused this effort to fail, British activities in Burma led to the collapse of the Burmese monarchy. Britain soon established control over the entire country.

France The British advance into Burma was watched nervously by France, which had some missionaries operating in Vietnam. The French missionaries were persecuted by the local authorities, who viewed Christianity as a threat to Confucian doctrine. However, Vietnam failed to stop the Christian missionaries. Vietnamese internal rivalries divided the country into two separate governments, in the north and the south.

France was especially alarmed by British attempts to monopolize trade. To stop any British move into Vietnam, the French government decided in 1857 to force the Vietnamese to accept French protection.

The French eventually succeeded in making the Vietnamese ruler give up territories in the Mekong River delta. The French occupied the city of Saigon and, during the next 30 years, extended their control over the rest of the country. In 1884, France seized the city of Hanoi and later made the Vietnamese Empire a French **protectorate**—a political unit that depends on another government for its protection.

In the 1880s, France extended its control over neighboring Cambodia, Annam, Tonkin, and Laos. By 1887, France included all of its new possessions in a new Union of French Indochina.

Thailand—The Exception After the French conquest of Indochina, **Thailand** (then called Siam) was the only remaining free state in Southeast Asia. During the last quarter of the nineteenth century, British and French rivalry threatened to place Thailand, too, under colonial rule.

Two remarkable rulers were able to prevent that from happening. One was **King Mongkut** (known to theater-goers as the king in *The King and I*), and the other was his son **King Chulalongkorn**. Both promoted Western learning and maintained friendly relations with the major European powers. In 1896, Britain and France agreed to maintain Thailand as an independent buffer state between their possessions in Southeast Asia.

The United States One final conquest in Southeast Asia occurred at the end of the nineteenth century. In 1898, during the Spanish-American War, United States naval forces under **Commodore George Dewey** defeated the Spanish fleet in Manila Bay.

Believing it was his moral obligation to “civilize” other parts of the world, President William McKinley decided to turn the **Philippines**, which had been under Spanish control, into an American colony. This action would also prevent the area from falling into the hands of the Japanese. In fact, the islands gave the United States a convenient jumping-off point for trade with China.

This mixture of moral idealism and desire for profit was reflected in a speech given in the Senate in January 1900 by Senator Albert Beveridge of Indiana:

“Mr. President, the times call for candor. The Philippines are ours forever. And just beyond the Philippines are China’s unlimited markets. We will not retreat from either. We will not abandon an opportunity in [Asia]. We will not renounce our part in the mission of our race, trustee, under God, of the civilization of the world.”

The Filipinos did not agree with the American senator. **Emilio Aguinaldo** (ah•gee•NAHL•doh) was the leader of a movement for independence in the Philippines. He began his revolt against the Spanish. When the United States acquired the Philippines, Aguinaldo continued the revolt and set himself up as the president of the Republic of the Philippines. Led by Aguinaldo, the guerrilla forces fought bitterly against the United States troops to establish their independence. However, the United States defeated the guerrilla forces, and President McKinley had his stepping-stone to the rich markets of China.



Emilio Aguinaldo

✓ **Reading Check** **Identifying** What spurred Britain to control Singapore and Burma?

Colonial Regimes in Southeast Asia

Western powers governed their new colonial empires by either indirect or direct rule. Their chief goals were to exploit the natural resources of these lands and open up markets for their own manufactured goods. To justify their actions, they often spoke of bringing the blessings of Western civilizations to their colonial subjects.



Scene from decisive Manila Bay battle

Indirect and Direct Rule Sometimes, a colonial power could realize its goals most easily through cooperation with local political elites. In these cases, **indirect rule** was used. Local rulers were allowed to maintain their positions of authority and status in a new colonial setting.

In Southeast Asia, colonial powers, wherever possible, tried to work with local elites. This made it easier to gain access to the region's natural resources. Indirect rule also lowered the cost of government, because fewer officials had to be trained. Moreover, indirect rule had less effect on local culture.

One example of indirect rule was in the Dutch East Indies. Officials of the Dutch East India Company allowed local landed aristocrats in the Dutch East Indies to control local government. These local elites maintained law and order and collected taxes in return for a payment from the Dutch East India Company.

Indirect rule, then, was convenient and cost less. Indirect rule was not always possible, however, especially when local elites resisted the foreign conquest. In such cases, the local elites were removed from power and replaced with a new set of officials brought from the mother country. This system is called **direct rule**.

In Burma, for example, the monarchy staunchly opposed colonial rule. As a result, Great Britain abolished the monarchy and administered the country directly through its colonial government in India.

In Indochina, France used both direct and indirect rule. It imposed direct rule on the southern provinces in the Mekong delta, which had been ceded to France as a colony after the first war in 1858 to 1862. The northern parts of Vietnam, seized in the 1880s, were governed as a protectorate. The emperor still ruled from his palace in Hue, but he had little power.

To justify their conquests, Western powers had spoken of bringing the blessings of advanced Western civilization to their colonial subjects. Many colonial powers, for example, spoke of introducing representative institutions and educating the native peoples in the democratic process. However, many Westerners came to fear the idea of native peoples (especially educated ones) being allowed political rights.

Colonial Economies The colonial powers did not want their colonists to develop their own industries. Thus, colonial policy stressed the export of raw materials—teak wood from Burma; rubber and tin from Malaya; spices, tea, coffee, and palm oil from the East



Local peasants, shown here in Ceylon in the late 1800s, worked at poverty-level wages for foreign plantation owners during the colonial period.

Indies; and sugar from the Philippines. In many cases, this policy led to some form of plantation agriculture, in which peasants worked as wage laborers on plantations owned by foreign investors.

Plantation owners kept the wages of their workers at poverty levels in order to increase the owners' profits. Conditions on plantations were often so unhealthy that thousands died. In addition, high taxes levied by colonial governments to pay for their administrative costs were a heavy burden for peasants.

Nevertheless, colonial rule did bring some benefits to Southeast Asia. It led to the beginnings of a modern economic system. Colonial governments built railroads, highways, and other structures that could benefit native peoples as well as colonials. The development of an export market helped to create an entrepreneurial class in rural areas. In the Dutch East Indies, for example, small growers of rubber, palm oil, coffee, tea, and spices began to share in the profits of the colonial enterprise. Most of the profits, however, were taken back to the colonial mother country.

 **Reading Check** **Explaining** Why did colonial powers prefer that colonists not develop their own industries?

Resistance to Colonial Rule

Many subject peoples in Southeast Asia were quite unhappy with being governed by Western powers. At first, resistance came from the existing ruling class. In Burma, for example, the monarch himself fought Western domination. By contrast, in Vietnam, after



In 1907, Vietnamese prisoners await trial for plotting against the French.

the emperor had agreed to French control of his country, a number of government officials set up an organization called Can Vuong ("Save the King"). They fought against the French without the emperor's help.

Sometimes, resistance to Western control took the form of peasant revolts. Under colonial rule, peasants were often driven off the land to make way for plantation agriculture. Angry peasants then vented their anger at the foreign invaders. For example, in Burma, in 1930, the Buddhist monk Saya San led a peasant uprising against the British colonial regime many years after the regime had completed its takeover.

Early resistance movements failed, overcome by Western powers. At the beginning of the twentieth century, a new kind of resistance began to emerge that was based on the force of nationalism. The leaders were often a new class that had been created by colonial rule: westernized intellectuals in the cities.

In many cases, this new urban middle class—composed of merchants, clerks, students, and professionals—had been educated in Western-style schools. They were the first generation of Asians to understand the institutions and values of the West. Many spoke Western languages and worked in jobs connected with the colonial regimes.

At first, many of the leaders of these movements did not focus clearly on the idea of nationhood but simply tried to defend the economic interests or religious beliefs of the natives. In Burma, for example, the first expression of modern nationalism came from students at the University of Rangoon. They formed an organization to protest against official persecution of the Buddhist religion and British lack of respect for local religious traditions. They protested against British arrogance and failure to observe local customs in Buddhist temples. Not until the 1930s, however, did these resistance movements begin to demand national independence.

Reading Check Summarizing Explain three forms of resistance to Western domination.

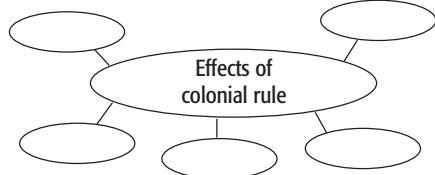
SECTION | ASSESSMENT

Checking for Understanding

1. Define imperialism, protectorate, indirect rule, direct rule.
2. Identify King Mongkut, King Chulalongkorn, Commodore George Dewey, Emilio Aguinaldo.
3. Locate Singapore, Burma, Thailand, Philippines.
4. Explain how the "new imperialism" differed from old imperialism. Also explain how imperialism came to be associated with social Darwinism.
5. List some of the benefits colonial rule brought to Southeast Asia. Do you think these benefits outweighed the disadvantages? Why or why not?

Critical Thinking

6. Making Inferences Why were resistance movements often led by natives who had lived and been educated in the West? Initially, what were the goals of these resistance leaders? How did their goals change over time?
7. Cause and Effect In a diagram like the one below, identify the effects of colonial rule on the colonies.



Analyzing Visuals

8. Describe the situation being endured by the Vietnamese prisoners in the photo above. Be specific in your description of their confinement. Based on your reading of the living conditions in Southeast Asian colonies at this time, do you think you would have risked this type of punishment if you had been in their position? Explain.

Writing About History

9. Expository Writing Use varied media to determine what the United States's relationship is today with the Philippines and how Filipino political groups view this relationship. Write an essay based on your findings.

A Call to Arms

IN 1862, THE VIETNAMESE emperor granted three provinces in southern Vietnam to the French. In outrage, many patriotic Vietnamese military officers and government officials appealed to their fellow Vietnamese to rise up and resist the foreigners. The following lines were written in 1864.

“This is a general proclamation addressed to the scholars and the people. . . . Our people are now suffering through a period of anarchy and disorder. . . . Let us now consider our situation with the French today.

We are separated from them by thousands of mountains and seas. By hundreds of differences in our daily customs. Although they were very confident in their copper battleships surmounted by chimneys, Although they had a large quantity of steel rifles and lead bullets, These things did not prevent the loss of some of their best generals in these last years, when they attacked our frontier in hundreds of battles. . . . You, officials of the country, Do not let your resistance to the enemy be blunted by the peaceful stand of the court, Do not take the lead from the three subjected provinces and leave hatred unavenged. So many years of labor, of energy, of suffering—shall we now abandon all? Rather, we should go to the far ends of jungles or to the high peaks of mountains in search of heroes.



French troops battle Vietnamese resistance fighters.

Rather, we should go to the shores of the sea in search of talented men. Do not envy the scholars who now become provincial or district magistrates [in the French administration]. They are decay, garbage, filth, swine. Do not imitate some who hire themselves out to the enemy. They are idiots, fools, lackeys, scoundrels.”

—*An Appeal to Vietnamese Citizens to Resist the French*

Analyzing Primary Sources

1. What do the writers of the quoted lines want their fellow Vietnamese to do?
2. What are the writer's feelings toward those who worked with the French administration? How can you tell?



SECTION 2

Empire Building in Africa

Guide to Reading

Main Ideas

- Great Britain, France, Germany, Belgium, and Portugal placed virtually all of Africa under European rule.
- Native peoples sought an end to colonial rule.

Key Terms

annex, indigenous

Preview of Events

◆ 1860

◆ 1870

1869
Suez Canal completed

◆ 1880

◆ 1890

1884-1885
Berlin Conference divides Africa among Europeans

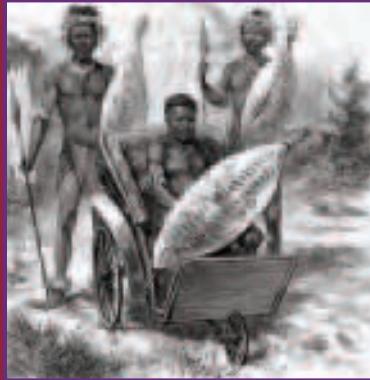
◆ 1900

1896
Ethiopia defeats Italian forces

◆ 1910

1914
Egypt becomes British protectorate

◆ 1920



King Lobengula, seated, c. 1880

Voices from the Past

King Lobengula to Queen Victoria

“Some time ago a party of men came to my country, the principal one appearing to be a man called Rudd. They asked me for a place to dig for gold, and said they would give me certain things for the right to do so. I told them to bring what they could give and I would show them what I would give. A document was written and presented to me for signature. I asked what it contained, and was told that in it were my words and the words of those men. I put my hand to it. About three months afterwards I heard from other sources that I had given by the document the right to all the minerals of my country.”

—The Imperialism Reader, Louis L. Snyder, ed., 1962

Europeans did not hesitate to deceive native Africans in order to get African lands.

West Africa

Before 1880, Europeans controlled little of the African continent directly. They were content to let African rulers and merchants represent European interests. Between 1880 and 1900, however, fed by intense rivalries among themselves, Great Britain, France, Germany, Belgium, Italy, Spain, and Portugal placed virtually all of Africa under European rule.

Imperialism in Africa, 1914



West Africa had been particularly affected by the slave trade, but that had begun to decline by 1800. By 1808, both Great Britain and the United States had declared the slave trade illegal. Other European countries eventually followed suit. Slavery was abolished in the United States in 1865 and in Cuba and Brazil within the next 25 years. By the 1890s, slavery had been abolished in all major countries of the world.

As slavery declined, Europe's interest in other forms of trade increased. Europeans sold textiles and other manufactured goods in exchange for such West African natural resources as peanuts, timber, hides, and palm oil. Encouraged by this growing trade, European governments began to push for a more permanent presence along the coast. Early in the nineteenth century, the British set up settlements along the Gold Coast and in Sierra Leone.

More so in Africa than in Asia, European countries competed against each other in their attempts to colonize new territories.

1. Interpreting Maps Identify the two independent countries in Africa in 1914.

2. Applying Geography Skills Describe the changes that occurred in Africa from 1880 to 1914 for the Ottoman Empire, France, Britain, and the Boers.

The growing European presence in West Africa led to increasing tensions with African governments in the area. For a long time, most African states were able to maintain their independence. However, in 1874, Great Britain stepped in and **annexed** (incorporated a country within a state) the west coastal states as the first British colony of Gold Coast. At about the same time, Britain established a protectorate over

warring groups in Nigeria. By 1900, France had added the huge area of French West Africa to its colonial empire. This left France in control of the largest part of West Africa. In addition, Germany controlled Togo, Cameroon, German Southwest Africa, and German East Africa.

 **Reading Check** **Explaining** Why did the slave trade decline in the 1800s?

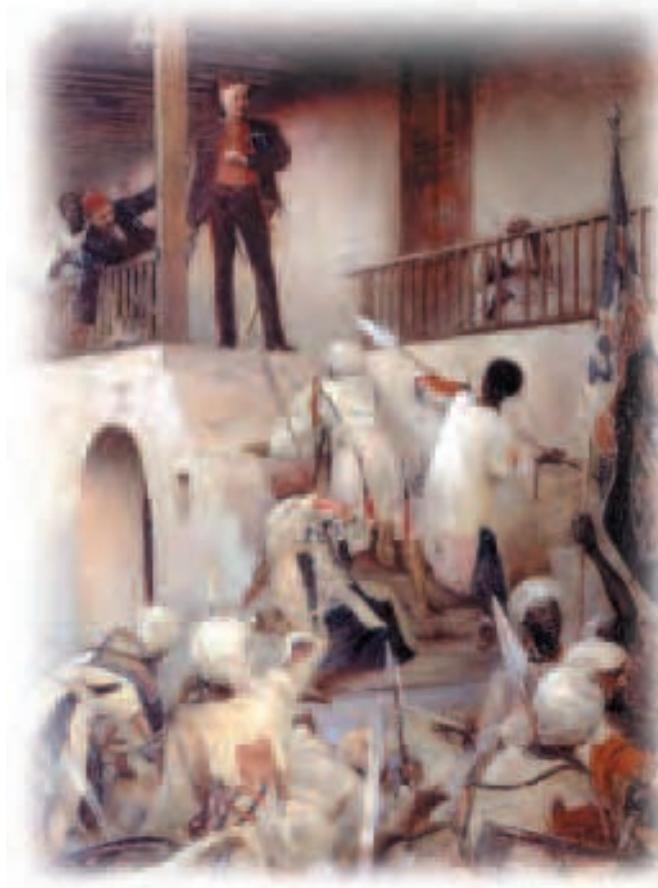
North Africa

Egypt had been part of the Ottoman Empire, but as Ottoman rule declined, the Egyptians sought their independence. In 1805, an officer of the Ottoman army named **Muhammad Ali** seized power and established a separate Egyptian state.

During the next 30 years, Muhammad Ali introduced a series of reforms to bring Egypt into the modern world. He modernized the army, set up a public school system, and helped create small industries in refined sugar, textiles, munitions, and ships.

The growing economic importance of the Nile Valley in Egypt, along with the development of steam-

General Gordon's Last Stand by George William Joy



ships, gave Europeans the desire to build a canal east of Cairo to connect the Mediterranean and Red Seas. In 1854, a French entrepreneur, Ferdinand de Lesseps, signed a contract to begin building the **Suez Canal**. The canal was completed in 1869.



Ferdinand de Lesseps

The British took an active interest in Egypt after the Suez Canal was opened. Believing that the canal was its "lifeline to India," Great Britain sought as much control as possible over the canal area. In 1875, Britain bought Egypt's share in the Suez Canal. When an Egyptian army revolt against foreign influence broke out in 1881, Britain suppressed the revolt. Egypt became a British protectorate in 1914.

The British believed that they should also control the Sudan, south of Egypt, to protect their interests in Egypt and the Suez Canal. In 1881, Muslim cleric Muhammad Ahmad, known as the Mahdi ("the rightly guided one," in Arabic), launched a revolt that brought much of the Sudan under his control.

Britain sent a military force under General Charles Gordon to restore Egyptian authority over the Sudan. However, Gordon's army was wiped out at Khartoum in 1885 by Muhammad Ahmad's troops. Gordon himself died in the battle. Not until 1898 were British troops able to seize the Sudan.

The French also had colonies in North Africa. In 1879, after about 150,000 French people had settled in the region of Algeria, the French government established control there. Two years later, France imposed a protectorate on neighboring Tunisia. In 1912, France established a protectorate over much of Morocco.

Italy joined in the competition for colonies in North Africa by attempting to take over Ethiopia, but Italian forces were defeated by Ethiopia in 1896. Italy now was the only European state defeated by an African state. This humiliating loss led Italy to try again in 1911. Italy invaded and seized Turkish Tripoli, which it renamed Libya.

 **Reading Check** **Explaining** Great Britain was determined to have complete control of the Suez Canal. Why?

Central Africa

Territories in Central Africa were also added to the list of European colonies. Explorers aroused

popular interest in the dense tropical jungles of Central Africa. **David Livingstone**, as we have seen, was one such explorer. He arrived in Africa in 1841. For 30 years he trekked through uncharted regions. He spent much of his time exploring the interior of the continent.

When Livingstone disappeared for a while, the *New York Herald* hired a young journalist, **Henry Stanley**, to find him. Stanley did, on the eastern shore of Lake Tanganyika, and greeted the explorer with the now famous words, "Dr. Livingstone, I presume."

After Livingstone's death in 1873, Stanley remained in Africa to carry on the great explorer's work. Unlike Livingstone, however, Stanley had a strong dislike of Africa. He once said, "I detest the land most heartily."

In the 1870s, Stanley explored the Congo River in Central Africa and sailed down it to the Atlantic Ocean. Soon, he was encouraging the British to send settlers to the Congo River basin. When Britain refused, he turned to King Leopold II of Belgium.

King Leopold II was the real driving force behind the colonization of Central Africa. He rushed enthusiastically into the pursuit of an empire in Africa. "To open to civilization," he said, "the only part of our globe where it has not yet penetrated, to pierce the

darkness which envelops whole populations, is a crusade, if I may say so, a crusade worthy of this century of progress." Profit, however, was equally important to Leopold. In 1876, he hired Henry Stanley to set up Belgian settlements in the Congo.

Leopold's claim to the vast territories of the Congo aroused widespread concern among other European states. France, in particular, rushed to plant its flag in the heart of Africa. Leopold ended up with the territories around the Congo River. France occupied the areas farther north.

 **Reading Check** **Examining** What effect did King Leopold II of Belgium have on European colonization of the Congo River basin?

East Africa

By 1885, Britain and Germany had become the chief rivals in East Africa. Germany came late to the ranks of the imperialist powers. At first, the German chancellor Otto von Bismarck had downplayed the importance of colonies. As more and more Germans called for a German empire, however, Bismarck became a convert to colonialism. As he expressed it, "All this colonial business is a sham, but we need it for the elections."



CONNECTIONS Around The World

The Role of Quinine

Before 1850, the fear of disease was a major factor in keeping Europeans from moving into Africa. Especially frightening was malaria, an often fatal disease spread by parasites. Malaria is especially devastating in tropical and subtropical regions, which offer good conditions for breeding the mosquitoes that carry and spread the malaria parasites.

By 1850, European doctors had learned how to treat malaria with quinine, a drug that greatly reduced the death rate from the disease. Quinine is a bitter drug obtained from the bark of the cinchona tree, which is native to the slopes of the Andes in South America. The Indians of Peru were the first people to use the bark of the cinchona tree to treat malaria.

The Dutch took the cinchona tree and began to grow it in the East Indies. The East Indies eventually became the chief source of quinine. With the use of quinine and other medicines, Europeans felt more secure about moving into Africa.

By the beginning of the twentieth century, more than 90 percent of African lands were under the control of the European powers. A drug found in the bark of Latin American trees, which were then grown in Asia, had been used by Europeans to make possible their conquest of Africa.

The bark from cinchona trees dries in the sun.



Comparing Cultures

Fear of disease kept Europeans from moving into Africa. Once quinine was discovered, Europeans felt safer about Africa.

1. What fears do we have today that prevent or inhibit exploration or research?
2. What technological advances would be required to overcome those fears?

In addition to its West African holdings, Germany tried to develop colonies in East Africa. Most of East Africa had not yet been claimed by any other power. However, the British were also interested in the area because control of East Africa would connect the British Empire in Africa from South Africa to Egypt. Portugal and Belgium also claimed parts of East Africa.

To settle conflicting claims, the Berlin Conference met in 1884 and 1885. The conference officially recognized both British and German claims for territory in East Africa. Portugal received a clear claim on Mozambique. No African delegates were present at this conference.

 **Reading Check** **Evaluating** What was significant about the Berlin Conference?

South Africa

Nowhere in Africa did the European presence grow more rapidly than in the south. By 1865, the

total white population of the area had risen to nearly two hundred thousand people.

The Boers, or Afrikaners—as the descendants of the original Dutch settlers were called—had occupied Cape Town and surrounding areas in South Africa since the seventeenth century. During the Napoleonic Wars, however, the British seized these lands from the Dutch. Afterward, the British encouraged settlers to come to what they called Cape Colony.

In the 1830s, disgusted with British rule, the Boers fled northward on the Great Trek to the region between the Orange and Vaal (VAHL) Rivers and to the region north of the Vaal River. In these areas, the Boers formed two independent republics—the Orange Free State and the Transvaal (later called the South African Republic). The Boers, who believed white superiority was ordained by God, put many of the **indigenous** (native to a region) peoples in these areas on reservations.

The Boers had frequently battled the indigenous **Zulu** people. In the early nineteenth century, the

Opposing Viewpoints

Who Benefited from the New Imperialism?

Europeans justified colonization of Africa and Asia in many ways. Native peoples viewed the takeover of their lands differently. Rudyard Kipling and Edward Morel were British journalists who held opposing viewpoints about imperialism.

“Take up the White Man’s burden—
Send forth the best ye breed—
Go bind your sons to exile
To serve your captives’ needs;
To wait in heavy harness,
On fluttered folk and wild—
Your new-caught sullen peoples,
Half-devil and half-child. . . .
Take up the White Man’s burden—
And reap his old reward:
The blame of those ye better,
The hate of those ye guard—
The cry of hosts ye humour
(Ah, slowly;) toward the light: —
‘Why brought he us from bondage,
Our loved Egyptian night?’”

—Rudyard Kipling, 1899
The White Man’s Burden

“It is [the Africans] who carry the ‘Black man’s burden. . . .’ In hewing out for himself a fixed abode in Africa, the white man has massacred the African in heaps. . . .

Zulu, under a talented ruler named Shaka, had carved out their own empire. After Shaka's death, the Zulu remained powerful. Finally, in the late 1800s, the British became involved in conflicts with the Zulu, and the Zulu were defeated.

In the 1880s, British policy in South Africa was influenced by Cecil Rhodes. Rhodes had founded diamond and gold companies that had made him a fortune. He gained control of a territory north of the Transvaal, which he named **Rhodesia** after himself.

Rhodes was a great champion of British expansion. He said once, "I think what [God] would like me to do is to paint as much of Africa British red as possible." One of Rhodes's goals was to create a series of British colonies "from the Cape to Cairo"—all linked by a railroad.

Rhodes's ambitions eventually led to his downfall in 1896. The British government forced him to resign as prime minister of Cape Colony after discovering that he planned to overthrow the Boer government of the South African Republic without his government's

What the partial occupation of his soil by the white man has failed do; . . . what the [machine gun] and the rifle, the slave gang, labour in the bowels of the earth and the lash, have failed to do; what imported measles, smallpox and syphilis have failed to do; whatever the overseas slave trade failed to do; the power of modern capitalistic exploitation, assisted by modern engines of destruction, may yet succeed in accomplishing. . . .

Thus the African is really helpless against the material gods of the white man, as embodied in the trinity of imperialism, capitalistic exploitation, and militarism. **”**

—Edward Morel, 1903
The Black Man's Burden

You Decide

1. What was the impact of imperialism on the colonized territories in Africa, according to Morel?
2. Quote lines in Rudyard Kipling's poem that reflect his view of colonized peoples. What values did Kipling assume his readers shared with him?

approval. The British action was too late to avoid a war between the British and the Boers, however.

This war, called the Boer War, dragged on from 1899 to 1902. Fierce guerrilla resistance by the Boers angered the British. They responded by burning crops and herding about 120,000 Boer women and children into detention camps, where lack of food caused some 20,000 deaths. Eventually, the vastly larger British army won.

In 1910, the British created an independent **Union of South Africa**, which combined the old Cape Colony and the Boer republics. The new state would be a self-governing nation within the British Empire. To appease the Boers, the British agreed that only whites, with a few propertied Africans, would vote.

 **Reading Check Describing** What happened to the Boers at the end of the Boer War?

Colonial Rule in Africa

By 1914, Great Britain, France, Germany, Belgium, Italy, Spain, and Portugal had divided up Africa. Only Liberia, which had been created as a homeland for freed United States slaves, and Ethiopia remained free states. Native peoples who dared to resist were simply devastated by the superior military force of the Europeans.

As was true in Southeast Asia, most European governments ruled their new territories in Africa with the least effort and expense possible. Indirect rule meant relying on existing political elites and institutions. The British especially followed this approach. At first, in some areas, the British simply asked a local ruler to accept British authority and to fly the British flag over official buildings.

The concept of indirect rule was introduced in the Islamic state of Sokoto, in northern Nigeria, beginning in 1903. This system of indirect rule in Sokoto had one good feature: it did not disrupt local customs and institutions. However, it did have some unfortunate consequences.

The system was basically a fraud because British administrators made all major decisions. The native authorities served chiefly to enforce those decisions. Another problem was that indirect rule kept the old African elite in power. Such a policy provided few opportunities for ambitious and talented young Africans from outside the old elite. In this way British indirect rule sowed the seeds for class and tribal tensions, which erupted after independence came in the twentieth century.

Most other European nations governed their African possessions through a form of direct rule. This was true in the French colonies. At the top was a French official, usually known as a governor-general. He was appointed from Paris and governed with the aid of a bureaucracy in the capital city of the colony.

The French ideal was to assimilate African subjects into French culture rather than preserve native traditions. Africans were eligible to run for office and even serve in the French National Assembly in Paris. A few were appointed to high positions in the colonial administration.

 **Reading Check Comparing** How did the French system of colonial rule differ from that of Great Britain?

Rise of African Nationalism

As in Southeast Asia, a new class of leaders emerged in Africa by the beginning of the twentieth century. Educated in colonial schools or in Western nations, they were the first generation of Africans to know a great deal about the West.

On the one hand, the members of this new class admired Western culture and sometimes disliked the ways of their own countries. They were eager to introduce Western ideas and institutions into their own societies.

On the other hand, many came to resent the foreigners and their arrogant contempt for African peoples. These intellectuals recognized the gap between theory and practice in colonial policy. Westerners had exalted democracy, equality, and political freedom but did not apply these values in the colonies.

There were few democratic institutions. Native peoples could have only low-paying jobs in the colonial bureaucracy. To many Africans, colonialism had meant the loss of their farmlands or employment on plantations or in factories run by foreigners.

Middle-class Africans did not suffer as much as poor African peasant plantation workers. However, members of the middle class also had complaints. They usually qualified only for menial jobs in the government or business. Even then, their salaries were lower than those of Europeans in similar jobs.

Europeans expressed their superiority over Africans in other ways. Segregated clubs, schools, and churches were set up as more European officials brought their wives and began to raise families. Europeans also had a habit of addressing Africans by their first names or calling an adult male "boy."

Such conditions led many members of the new urban educated class to feel great confusion toward their colonial masters and the civilization the colonists represented. The educated Africans were willing to admit the superiority of many aspects of Western culture. However, these intellectuals fiercely hated colonial rule and were determined to assert their own nationality and cultural destiny. Out of this mixture of hopes and resentments emerged the first stirrings of modern nationalism in Africa.

During the first quarter of the twentieth century, resentment turned to action. Across Africa, native peoples began to organize political parties and movements seeking the end of foreign rule.

 **Reading Check Evaluating** Why were many African intellectuals frustrated by colonial policy?

SECTION 2 ASSESSMENT

Checking for Understanding

1. Define annex, indigenous.
2. Identify Muhammad Ali, David Livingstone, Henry Stanley, Zulu.
3. Locate Suez Canal, Rhodesia, Union of South Africa.
4. Explain why the British were interested in East Africa. What other countries claimed parts of East Africa?
5. List the ways in which the French system of direct rule included Africans.

Critical Thinking

6. **Drawing Conclusions** What can you conclude from the fact that African delegates were not included in the Berlin Conference of 1884?
7. **Organizing Information** Using a chart like the one below, identify key figures of African resistance to colonial rule.

Leader	Country opposed	Dates of resistance

Analyzing Visuals

8. Examine the painting on page 656. What was the painter trying to say about the hostilities between the British and the people of the Sudan? If forced to choose, whom would you support in this confrontation?

Writing About History

9. **Expository Writing** Research the importance of the Suez Canal today. Write a paper comparing the present-day significance of the canal to its historical significance.

TECHNOLOGY SKILLBUILDER

Evaluating a Web Site

Why Learn This Skill?

Your little sister has developed a strange rash on her back, so you decide to check the Internet to see whether or not it might be chicken pox and how the rash should be treated. When you look for a Web site, however, you find dozens, and they are all giving different advice. How do you determine which site is giving the most accurate and up-to-date information?

The Internet has become a valuable research tool. It is convenient to use and contains plentiful information. Unfortunately, some Web site information is not necessarily correct or reliable. When using the Internet as a research tool, the user must distinguish between quality information and inaccurate or incomplete information.

Learning the Skill

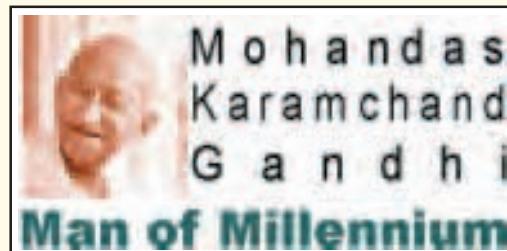
To evaluate a Web site, ask yourself the following questions:

- Where does the site originate? If it is a university, a well-known organization or agency, or a respected publication, then the information is likely to be trustworthy.
- Are the facts on the site documented? Where did this information originally come from? Is the author clearly identified?
- Are the links to other parts of the site appropriate? Do they take you to information that helps you learn more about the subject?
- Is more than one source used for background information within the site? If so, does the site contain a bibliography?
- When was the last time the site was updated?
- Does the site explore the topic in-depth?
- Does the site contain links to other useful and up-to-date resources? Although many legitimate sites have products to sell, some sites are more interested in sales than in providing accurate information.

- Is the information easy to access? Is it properly labeled?
- Is the design appealing?

Practicing the Skill

Visit the Web site about Mohandas Gandhi at <http://www.mkgandhi.org> featured on this page. Then, answer the following questions.



- 1 Who is the author or sponsor of the Web site?
- 2 What information does the home page link you to? Are the links appropriate to the topic?
- 3 What sources were used for the information contained on the site? When was it last updated?
- 4 Does the site explore the topic in-depth? Why or why not?
- 5 Are there links to other useful sources and are they up-to-date?
- 6 Is the design of the site appealing? Why or why not? When was Gandhi born? How easy or difficult was it to locate this information?

Applying the Skill

Comparing Web Sites Locate two other Web sites that provide information about Mohandas Gandhi. Evaluate each one for accuracy and usefulness, and then compare them to the site featured above (<http://www.mkgandhi.org>).

STANLEY AND LIVINGSTONE IN AFRICA



More than three years had passed with no word from Dr. David Livingstone. The renowned Scottish missionary and explorer had left Britain in August 1865, bound for East Africa, where the Royal Geographical Society had asked him, among other things, to try to determine the source of the Nile River. The explorer Richard Burton favored Lake Tanganyika while the late John Hanning Speke had been certain the Nile arose in Lake Victoria. The 52-year-old Livingstone had arrived at the island of Zanzibar in January 1866. He and his party of about 60 men were taken to the mainland some six weeks later and were known to have headed into the interior. Months later, the first rumors of his death reached the coast.

In October 1869, James Gordon Bennett, son of the publisher of the *New York Herald*, met with reporter Henry M. Stanley in the Grand Hotel in Paris. "Go and find him wherever you may hear that he is and get what news you can of him," Bennett told Stanley. "And perhaps the old man may be in want; take enough with you to help him should he require it. Of course, you will act according to your own plans, and do what you think best—but find Livingstone!"

The man Stanley was supposed to find was known and admired both for his achievements as an explorer and for his dedicated efforts to end the slave trade. Since going out to Africa in 1841 as a 27-year-old medical

missionary, David Livingstone had covered thousands of miles of territory previously unexplored by Europeans. Sometimes he traveled by canoe or on the back of an ox, but mostly he went on foot. In the early years he traveled with his wife, Mary, and their young children.

Though he suffered from malaria and had lost the use of his left arm after being attacked by a wounded lion, Livingstone remained determined. He made detailed notes and reports, which he sent to London whenever he could. The information he sent was used to revise the maps of Africa.

All the exploration that Livingstone did in the mid-1850s had one

goal: to find a navigable river that would open the center of Africa to legitimate European commerce and to Christianity. In so doing, Livingstone hoped to drive out the slave trade, an evil that he called "this open sore of the world."

In the spring of 1852, Livingstone sent his family back to England. Then, starting from Cape Town, South Africa, he trekked north to the Upper Zambezi and then west to Luanda on the Atlantic coast (in present-day Angola). After a brief rest, he headed to Quelimane on the east coast (now in Mozambique). The trip of some 4,300 miles (6,919 km) finally ended in May 1856. Livingstone traveled with a small party of 25 or so

SPECIAL REPORT



3

Africans. In contrast to other European expedition leaders, the missionary regarded the men not as his servants but as his friends. His loyalty to them was returned manyfold.

The expedition traveled light, although Livingstone always carried his navigational instruments, a Bible, a nautical almanac, and his journal. He also carried a magic lantern (an early slide projector) and slides, so he could tell Bible stories to any who would listen. On the second half of the journey, from the interior to the mouth of the Zambezi River, Livingstone became the first European to see the spectacular waterfall the Africans called "Mosi-oa-tunya" (the smoke that thunders).



Livingstone named it Victoria Falls, after the British queen.

When the missionary got back to Britain in late 1856, he found that word of his explorations and discoveries had preceded him. He was now

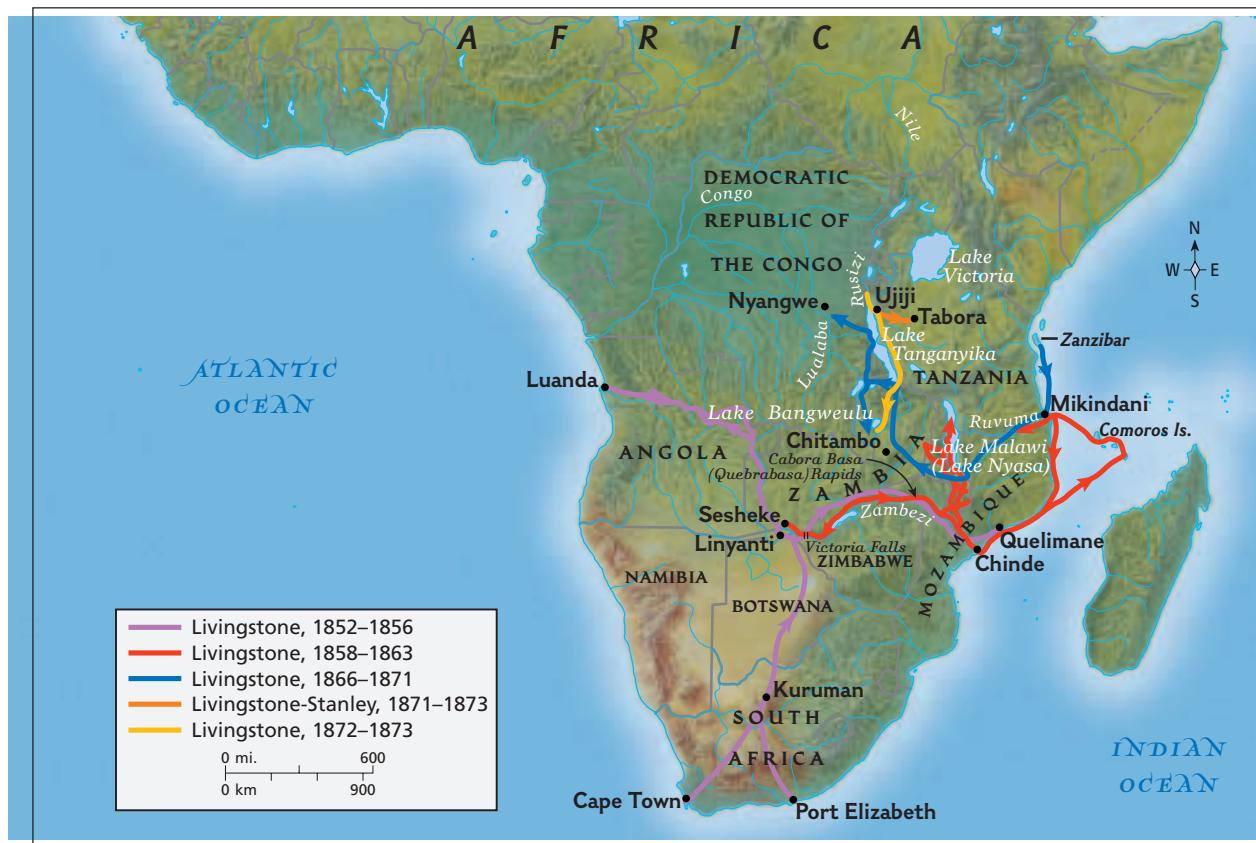
famous. The following year Livingstone turned his journals into a book—*Missionary Travels and Researches in South Africa*—which quickly became a best-seller. In his book and at every public opportunity he could find, he raised the issue of the slave trade. He condemned those who tolerated it and profited by it.

When he sailed back to Africa in the spring of 1858, Dr. Livingstone was the newly appointed British Con-

1 Tipping his pith helmet, Henry Morton Stanley greets the explorer with his restrained inquiry: "Dr. Livingstone, I presume?"

2 The scarcity of paper did not prevent Livingstone from recording his observations in meticulous detail, as seen in this fragment from his journals. He would also record topographical measurements taken with the sextant.

3 "It had never been seen before by European eyes," Livingstone wrote of his first view of Victoria Falls, "but scenes so lovely must have been gazed upon by angels in their flight." His drawing of the falls and the meandering Zambezi River below it (inset) hardly does the scene justice.



sul for the East Coast of Africa. With substantial government backing and far more equipment and personnel than he had previously enjoyed, he continued to explore the Zambezi and its tributaries. His wife sailed with him but then fell ill and went to rest in Cape Town.

Despite its advantages, this expedition was plagued with problems. There was quarreling among Livingstone's six European assistants, and the fuel-eating boat he had been given was more trouble than it was worth.

Worst of all was the discovery that on his previous trip down the Zambezi he had bypassed a bend in the river that held big problems. When the party headed upriver from the east coast of Africa, they came around that bend only to be stopped by the Quebrabasa Rapids. Try as he might—and Livingstone insisted on trying, until

everyone in his expedition was exhausted—this was an obstacle no boat could get past.

Even though his efforts were adding daily to European knowledge of the African interior and would be of benefit to all who came after him, Livingstone was frustrated at not finding the navigable river that would surely bring an end to the slave trade.

Then, tragedy struck. In early 1862, Mary Livingstone was well enough to join her husband, but a few months later she fell ill again. In April, she died. Grief stricken, Livingstone threw himself into his work, but his increased efforts did not pay off. In July 1863, the expedition was ordered to return home.

Livingstone stayed in Britain only long enough to write a second book, *The Zambezi and Its Tributaries*, and to drum up support for his next expedi-

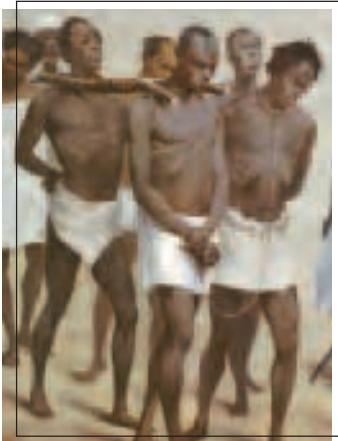
tion. On his third and final trip to Africa, the great explorer disappeared.

Henry Stanley left to carry out his employer's orders soon after the Paris meeting. He took a roundabout route to Africa to cover other stories for the *Herald*, including the opening of the Suez Canal in Egypt. James Bennett hoped that by delaying Stanley's arrival in Africa, the reporter would come back with definite news of Livingstone—that he was dead or alive and not just missing. ("If he is dead," Bennett had said, "bring back every possible proof of his death.")

By the time Stanley finally reached Africa in late January 1871, Livingstone had been struggling with near-starvation, chronic dysentery, sore-covered feet, and hostile groups. Of the 60 men he had started with, only a small handful remained, including Chuma, a freed slave, and

SPECIAL REPORT

Susi, a Yao servant. Both of them had been with him for years. Desperately sick and without medicine, Livingstone had been repeatedly nursed back to relatively good health by Arab slave traders. The passionate antislavery activist owed his life to the very people he wished to banish from Africa.



5

In July 1871, ill and discouraged, Livingstone headed to Ujiji, on the east bank of Lake Tanganyika. He expected to find several months' worth of supplies, medicine, and mail waiting for him there. In late October, "reduced to a skeleton," as he put it, he hobbled into the village—only to learn that all his supplies and precious medicines had been plundered by the headman of the place. Extremely depressed, he felt he couldn't do anything but wait for a miracle.

Several weeks later, the miracle arrived under a waving Stars and Stripes. Henry Stanley could hardly contain his emotion as he approached the pale white man. "I would have run to him, only I was a coward in the presence of such a mob," Stanley later wrote, "[I] would have embraced him, only he being an Englishman, I did not know how he would receive me; so I did what cowardice and false pride suggested was the best thing—walked deliberately to him, took off my hat, and said: 'Dr. Livingstone, I

presume?' 'Yes,' said he, with a kind smile, lifting his cap slightly."

Stanley remained with Livingstone for five months and explored Lake Tanganyika with him. That trip proved that Burton was wrong about the Ruzizi, the river he thought led from the lake to become the Nile. Livingstone was now determined to prove his own theory, which was that the Nile originated with the headwaters of a river called the Lualaba. (As it turns out, the Lualaba is actually part of the Congo River system. Speke was right all along: The Nile's source is Lake Victoria.)

Unable to persuade the older man to return to Britain, Stanley left in March 1872. Reaching the coast in May, his news of finding Livingstone reached Europe and America in August. At about that time, Livingstone received the fresh supplies and men that Stanley had promised to send back to him. He promptly set off toward Lakes Tanganyika and Bangweulu.

The old explorer's will was great, but his long-suffering body was no longer up to the demands of the trip. By April 22, 1873, he was being carried in a litter. On the night of April

6



30, in the village of Chitambo, Susi helped him to bed, last speaking with him at midnight. The next morning, his companions found Livingstone kneeling by the bed, his head in his hands in prayer—dead.

Resolving that Livingstone should be returned to Britain, they buried his heart under a large tree near the hut where he died. Then they filled the body with salt, smeared it with brandy, and left it to dry for two weeks before beginning the long journey to the coast. Eight months and a thousand miles (1,609 km) later, they delivered Livingstone's body to the British Consul in Zanzibar. April 18, 1874, was declared a national day of mourning and all of London came to a halt as Dr. Livingstone was buried in Westminster Abbey.

4 Livingstone made two significant crossings of the African continent—from the interior west to Luanda in 1853–1854, and then east to Quelimane in 1855–1856. On his expedition in 1866 to find the source of the Nile, illness and other difficulties hampered his progress. Henry Stanley found him at Ujiji on November 10, 1871.

5 The all-too familiar sight of captives in chains drove Livingstone to denounce the collaboration of European authorities in the widespread traffic in slaves.

6 Henry Morton Stanley developed a great interest in exploring Africa after he found Livingstone.

INTERPRETING THE PAST

1. What were two of Dr. Livingstone's reasons for exploring Africa?

2. What waterfall did Livingstone encounter on his trip from the interior to the mouth of the Zambezi River?

3. What were the main obstacles that Livingstone faced?

Guide to Reading

Main Ideas

- British rule brought stability to India but destroyed native industries and degraded Indians.
- Mohandas Gandhi advocated non-violent resistance to gain Indian independence from Great Britain.

Key Terms

sepoy, viceroy

People to Identify

Queen Victoria, Indian National Congress, Mohandas Gandhi

Places to Locate

Kanpur, Mumbai

Preview Questions

- What was the goal of the Indian National Congress?
- Why was India called the "Jewel in the Crown" of the Empress of India?

Reading Strategy

Cause and Effect Using a chart like the one below, identify some causes and effects of British influence on India.

Cause	Effect
1. British textiles	
2. cotton crops	
3. school system	
4. railroad, telegraph, telephone services	

Preview of Events

◆ 1840

◆ 1850

◆ 1860

◆ 1870

◆ 1880

◆ 1890

◆ 1900

1857

Sepoy Mutiny fails

1876

Queen Victoria is named "Empress of India"

1885

Indian National Congress forms



Thomas Macaulay

Voices from the Past

Thomas Macaulay, who was charged with the task of introducing an educational system into India, decided that it would use the English language:

“What, then shall the language of education be? [Some] maintain that it should be the English. The other half strongly recommend the Arabic and Sanskrit. The whole question seems to me to be, which language is the best worth knowing? . . . It is, I believe, no exaggeration to say that all the historical information which has been collected from all the books written in the Sanskrit language is less valuable than what may be found in short textbooks used at preparatory schools in England.”

—A New History of India, Stanley Wolpert, 1977

Macaulay's attitude reflects the sense of superiority that the British brought with them to India.

The Sepoy Mutiny

Over the course of the eighteenth century, British power in India had increased while the power of the Mogul rulers had declined (see Chapter 15). A trading company, the British East India Company, was given power by the British government to become actively involved in India's political and military affairs.

To rule India, the British East India Company had its own soldiers and forts. It also hired Indian soldiers, known as *sepoy*s, to protect the company's interests in the region.

In 1857, a growing Indian distrust of the British led to a revolt. The revolt was known to the British as the Great Rebellion or the Sepoy Mutiny. Indians call it the First War of Independence.



British viceroy



Indian sepoy



The major immediate cause of the revolt was the spread of a rumor that the British were issuing their Indian troops new bullets that were greased with cow and pig fat. The cow was sacred to Hindus; the pig was taboo to Muslims. A group of sepoyys at an army post near Delhi refused to load their rifles with the new bullets. When the British arrested them, the sepoyys went on a rampage and killed 50 European men, women, and children.

From this beginning, the revolt quickly spread. Within a year, however, Indian troops loyal to the British, along with fresh British troops, had crushed the rebellion. Although Indian troops fought bravely and outnumbered the British by about 230,000 to 40,000, they were not well organized. Rivalries between Hindus and Muslims kept Indians from working together.

Atrocities were terrible on both sides. At **Kanpur** (Cawnpore), Indians armed with swords and knives massacred two hundred defenseless women and children in a building known as the House of the Ladies. When the British recaptured Kanpur, they took their revenge before executing the Indians.

Picturing History

After the 1857 revolt, officials of the British government ruled India. The sepoyys were unsuccessful and paid dearly, as is shown by the British execution of Indian soldiers above. [Why did the Indian revolt fail?](#)

As a result of the uprising, the British Parliament transferred the powers of the East India Company directly to the British government. In 1876, the title of Empress of India was bestowed on **Queen Victoria**. The people of India were now her colonial subjects, and India became her “Jewel in the Crown.”

 **Reading Check** **Describing** What were two effects of the Great Rebellion?

Colonial Rule

The British government ruled India directly through a British official known as a **viceroy** (a governor who ruled as a representative of a monarch), who was assisted by a British civil service staff. This staff of about 3,500 officials ruled almost 300 million people, the largest colonial population in the world. British rule involved both benefits and costs for Indians.

Benefits of British Rule British rule in India had several benefits for subjects. It brought order and stability to a society that had been badly divided by civil war. It also led to a fairly honest and efficient government.

Through the efforts of the British administrator and historian Lord Thomas Macaulay, a new school system was set up. Its goal was to train Indian children to serve in the government and army. The new system served only elite, upper-class Indians, however. Ninety percent of the population remained illiterate.

Railroads, the telegraph, and a postal service were introduced to India shortly after they appeared in Great Britain. In 1853 the first trial run of a passenger train traveled the short distance from Bombay to Thane. By 1900, 25,000 miles (40,225 km) of railroads crisscrossed India. (See page 997 to read excerpts from Dadabhai Naoroji's *The Impact of British Rule in India* in the Primary Sources Library.)

Costs of British Rule The Indian people, however, paid a high price for the peace and stability brought

by British rule. Perhaps the greatest cost was economic. British entrepreneurs and a small number of Indians reaped financial benefits from British rule, but it brought hardship to millions of others in both the cities and the countryside. British manufactured goods destroyed local industries. The introduction of British textiles put thousands of women out of work and severely damaged the Indian textile industry.

In rural areas, the British sent the zamindars to collect taxes. The British believed that using these local officials would make it easier to collect taxes from the peasants. However, the zamindars in India took advantage of their new authority. They increased taxes and forced the less fortunate peasants to become tenants or lose their land entirely. Peasant unrest grew.

The British also encouraged many farmers to switch from growing food to growing cotton. As a result, food supplies could not keep up with the growing population. Between 1800 and 1900, thirty million Indians died of starvation.

Finally, British rule was degrading, even for the newly educated upper classes, who benefited the

THE WAY IT WAS

FOCUS ON EVERYDAY LIFE

British Official's Home in India

During the time that India was a British colony, many British government officials spent a considerable amount of time there fulfilling their administrative duties. Their families usually came with them during their tours of duty, bringing their Victorian lifestyle and many of the furnishings that went with it.

British officials in India built comfortable bungalows, as they were called. Bungalows (The name comes from the Indian word *bungla*, which means *Bengali*.) were elegant and spacious country houses. Many had large porches that were open to breezes while protecting the inhabitants from the sun. Surrounding the bungalows

were cottages where dozens of Indian servants lived with their families.

The official was the sahib—the master. The official's wife was the memsahib, or madam-sahib. The memsahib was expected to oversee the running of the household on a daily basis, especially since the sahib was often away on official business. At the beginning of each day, she assigned duties to all the servants. For example, she fixed the menu for the day with the cook and directed the gardeners about how to plant the gardens with seeds from home. In the evening, she was expected to entertain. Supper parties with other British families were the usual form of entertainment.

most from it. The best jobs and the best housing were reserved for Britons. Although many British colonial officials sincerely tried to improve the lot of the people in India, British arrogance cut deeply into the pride of many Indians.

Despite their education, the Indians were never considered equals of the British. Lord Kitchener, one of Britain's military commanders in India, said, "It is this consciousness of the inherent superiority of the European which has won for us India. However well educated and clever a native may be, and however brave he may prove himself, I believe that no rank we can bestow on him would cause him to be considered an equal of the British officer."

The British also showed disrespect for India's cultural heritage. The Taj Mahal, for example, a tomb for the beloved wife of an Indian ruler, became a favorite site for English weddings and parties. Many party-goers even brought hammers to chip off pieces as souvenirs. British racial attitudes led to the rise of an Indian nationalist movement.

 **Reading Check** **Examining** How was British rule degrading to Indians?

A British officer receives a pedicure from an Indian servant.



Many British officials had a high standard of living and were expected to have a large number of servants. One woman wrote in 1882: "It is one of the social duties of Indian life that you must keep three servants to do the work of one." A well-to-do family had at least 25 servants. Even bachelors had at least a dozen. Indians served as cooks, maids, butlers, gardeners, tailors, and nursemaids for the children. All household servants wore uniforms—usually white with bands on their turbans—and went barefoot in the house.



The wife of a British officer is attended by Indian servants. A British merchant waits to speak to her.

CONNECTING TO THE PAST

- 1. Identifying** What were the responsibilities of the wife of a British officer in India?
- 2. Writing about History** What do you learn about British-Indian social relations from this reading?

independence. **Mohandas Gandhi** was born in 1869 in Gujarat, in western India. He studied in London and became a lawyer. In 1893, he went to South Africa to work in a law firm serving Indian workers there. He soon became aware of the racial exploitation of Indians living in South Africa.

On his return home to India, Gandhi became active in the independence movement. Using his experience in South Africa, he set up a movement based on nonviolent resistance. Its aim was to force the British to improve the lot of the poor and grant independence to India. Ultimately, Gandhi's movement would lead to Indian independence.

 **Reading Check Summarizing** What were the two goals of Mohandas Gandhi?

Colonial Indian Culture

The love-hate tension in India that arose from British domination led to a cultural, as well as a political, awakening. The cultural revival began in the early nineteenth century with the creation of a British college in Calcutta. A local publishing house was opened. It issued textbooks on a variety of subjects, including the sciences, Sanskrit, and Western literature. The publisher also printed grammars and dictionaries in the various Indian languages.

This revival soon spread to other regions of India, leading to a search for modern literary expression and a new national identity. Indian novelists and poets

began writing historical romances and epics. Some wrote in English, but most were uncomfortable with a borrowed colonial language. They preferred to use their own regional tongues.

The most illustrious Indian author was Rabindranath Tagore. A great writer and poet, Tagore was also a social reformer, spiritual leader, educator, philosopher, singer, painter, and international spokesperson for the moral concerns of his age. He liked to invite the great thinkers of the time to his country estate. There he set up a school that became an international university.

Tagore's life mission was to promote pride in a national Indian consciousness in the face of British domination. He wrote a widely read novel in which he portrayed the love-hate relationship of India toward its colonial mentor. The novel depicted a country that admired and imitated the British model while also agonizing over how it could establish a modern identity separate from that of Great Britain.

Tagore, however, was more than an Indian nationalist. His life's work was one long prayer for human dignity, world peace, and the mutual understanding and union of East and West. As he once said, "It is my conviction that my countrymen will truly gain their India by fighting against the education that teaches them that a country is greater than the ideals of humanity."

 **Reading Check Comparing** How did the nationalist movement parallel cultural developments in India?

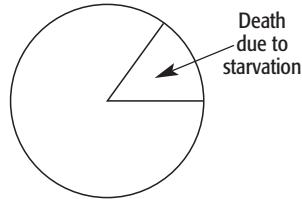
SECTION 3 ASSESSMENT

Checking for Understanding

1. Define **sepoy**, **viceroy**.
2. Identify Queen Victoria, Indian National Congress, Mohandas Gandhi.
3. Locate Kanpur, Mumbai.
4. Explain why the Muslim League was created. What were the advantages of its formation? What were the disadvantages?
5. List the economic costs to the Indian people that resulted from India being ruled by the British. What benefits to the Indian population, if any, resulted from British rule?

Critical Thinking

6. **Predict Consequences** Many British lived in India for decades. Do you think living in India would have changed British attitudes toward Indians? Explain.
7. **Organizing Information** Draw a graph like the example below to show the percentage of India's population that died of starvation in the 1800s.



Analyzing Visuals

8. **Interpret** the messages conveyed by the two images on page 669. Describe your reactions to the paintings. Why might your reactions be the same as or different from reactions of English teenagers viewing these paintings in the late 1800s?

Writing About History

9. **Descriptive Writing** Imagine you are a member of India's upper-class. You have just attended a reception at the home of a British official. Describe in writing your impressions of the home, making a comparison to your own residence.

SECTION 4

Nation Building in Latin America

Guide to Reading

Main Ideas

- Latin American countries served as a source of raw materials for Europe and the United States.
- Because land remained the basis of wealth and power, landed elites dominated Latin American countries.

Key Terms

creole, *peninsulare*, mestizo, Monroe Doctrine, caudillo

Preview of Events

◆ 1800	◆ 1805	◆ 1810	◆ 1815	◆ 1820	◆ 1825	◆ 1830
		1810 Mexico experiences its first revolt		1821 Mexico declares independence		1825 Most of Latin America becomes independent

People to Identify

José de San Martín, Simón Bolívar, Antonio López de Santa Anna, Benito Juárez

Places to Locate

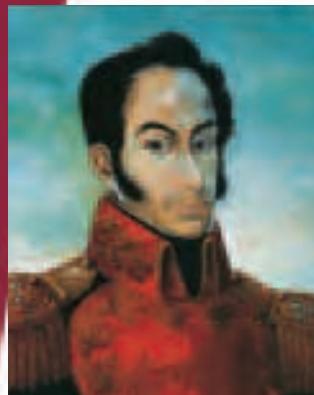
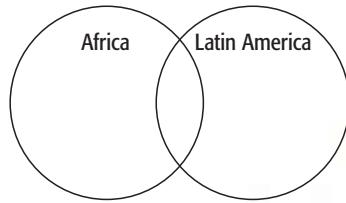
Puerto Rico, Panama Canal, Haiti, Nicaragua

Preview Question

- How did the American Revolution inspire political changes in Latin America?

Reading Strategy

Compare and Contrast Create a Venn diagram comparing and contrasting colonial rule in Africa and in Latin America.



Portrait of Simón Bolívar

Voices from the Past

On August 10, 1819, Simón Bolívar issued a proclamation to the people of New Granada (present-day Colombia):

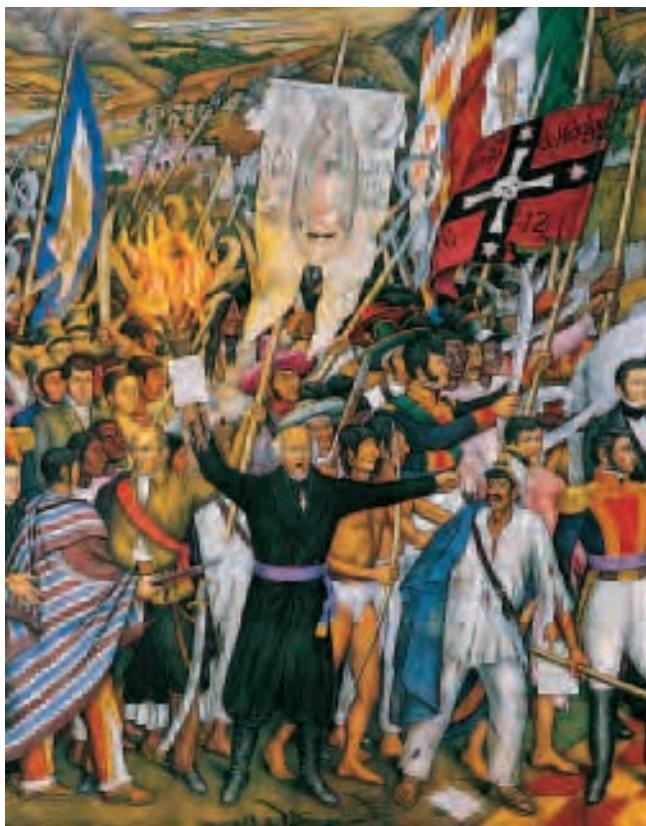
“Granadans! America’s day is come; no human power can stay the course of nature guided by the hand of Providence. Join your efforts to those of your brothers: Venezuela marches with me to free you, as in past years you marched with me to free Venezuela. Already our advance guard fills whole provinces of your territory with the luster of its arms; and the same advance guard, powerfully aided, will hurl the destroyed of New Granada into the seas. The sun will not have completed the course of its present round through the heavens without beholding in all your territory the proud altars of liberty.”

—World Civilizations, Philip J. Adler, 1996

Bolívar was one of the leaders in liberating South America from Spanish and Portuguese control.

Nationalist Revolts

By the end of the eighteenth century, the new political ideals stemming from the successful revolution in North America were beginning to influence Latin America. European control would soon be in peril.



Father Hidalgo leads Mexicans in revolt against the Spaniards.

Social classes based on privilege divided colonial Latin America. *Peninsulares*, at the top, held all important positions. Creoles controlled land and business but were regarded as second-class citizens by *peninsulares*. Mestizos were the largest group but worked as servants or laborers.

Prelude to Revolution The creole elites were especially influenced by revolutionary ideals. **Creoles** were descendants of Europeans born in Latin America who lived there permanently. They found the principles of the equality of all people in the eyes of the law, free trade, and a free press very attractive. In addition, they, along with a growing class of merchants, disliked the domination of their trade by Spain and Portugal.

Creoles deeply resented the *peninsulares*, Spanish and Portuguese officials who resided temporarily in Latin America for political and economic gain and then returned to their mother countries. These Europeans dominated Latin America and drained the Americas of their wealth.

The creole elites soon began to denounce the rule of the Spanish and Portuguese. At the beginning of the nineteenth century, Napoleon's wars provided them with an opportunity for change. When Napoleon overthrew the monarchies of Spain and Portugal, the

authority of the Spaniards and Portuguese in their colonial empires was severely weakened. Between 1807 and 1825, a series of revolts enabled most of Latin America to become independent.

Before the main independence movements began, an unusual revolution took place in the French colony of Saint Domingue, on the island of Hispaniola. Led by François-Dominique Toussaint-Louverture (TOO•SAN LOO•vuhr•TYUR), more than a hundred thousand slaves rose in revolt and seized control of all of Hispaniola. On January 1, 1804, the western part of Hispaniola, now called Haiti, announced its freedom and became the first independent state in Latin America.

Reading Check **Describing** How did Napoleon's wars affect Latin America?

Revolt in Mexico Beginning in 1810, Mexico, too, experienced a revolt. The first real hero of Mexican independence was Miguel Hidalgo, a parish priest in a small village about a hundred miles (160 km) from Mexico City.

Hidalgo, who had studied the French Revolution, roused the local Indians and **mestizos** (people of European and Indian descent) to free themselves from the Spanish: "My children, this day comes to us as a new dispensation. Are you ready to receive it? Will you be free? Will you make the effort to recover from the hated Spaniards the lands stolen from your forefathers 300 years ago?"

On September 16, 1810, a crowd of Indians and mestizos, armed with clubs, machetes, and a few guns, formed a mob army to attack the Spaniards. Hidalgo was an inexperienced military leader, however, and his forces were soon crushed. A military court sentenced Hidalgo to death, but his memory lived on. In fact, September 16, the first day of the uprising, is Mexico's Independence Day.

The participation of Indians and mestizos in Mexico's revolt against Spanish control frightened both creoles and *peninsulares* there. Afraid of the masses, they cooperated in defeating the popular revolutionary forces. Conservative elites—both creoles and *peninsulares*—then decided to overthrow Spanish rule as a way of



Web Activity Visit the Glencoe World History Web site at wh.glencoe.com and click on **Chapter 21—Student Web Activity** to learn more about independence movements in Latin America.

preserving their own power. They selected a creole military leader, Agustín de Iturbide (EE•TUR•BEE•thay), as their leader.

In 1821, Mexico declared its independence from Spain. Iturbide named himself emperor in 1822 but was deposed in 1823. Mexico then became a republic.

Revols in South America José de San Martín of Argentina and Simón Bolívar of Venezuela, both members of the creole elite, were hailed as the “Liberators of South America.” These men led revolutions throughout the continent. San Martín believed that the Spaniards must be removed from all of South America if any South American nation was to be free.

By 1810, the forces of San Martín had liberated Argentina from Spanish authority. Bolívar began the struggle for independence in Venezuela in 1810 and then went on to lead revolts in New Granada (Colombia) and Ecuador.

In January 1817, San Martín led his forces over the Andes to attack the Spanish in Chile. The journey was an amazing feat. Two-thirds of the pack mules and horses died during the trip. Soldiers suffered from lack of oxygen and severe cold while crossing mountain passes that were more than two miles (3,218 km) above sea level.

The arrival of San Martín’s forces in Chile completely surprised the Spaniards. Spanish forces were badly defeated at the Battle of Chacabuco on February 12, 1817. In 1821, San Martín moved on to Lima, Peru, the center of Spanish authority.

Convinced that he could not complete the liberation of Peru alone, San Martín welcomed the arrival of Bolívar and his forces. The “Liberator of Venezuela” took on the task of crushing the last significant Spanish army at Ayacucho on December 9, 1824.

By the end of 1824, Peru, Uruguay, Paraguay, Colombia, Venezuela, Argentina, Bolivia, and Chile had all become free of Spain. Earlier, in 1822, the prince regent of Brazil had declared Brazil’s independence from Portugal. The Central American states had become independent in 1823. In 1838 and 1839, they divided into five republics: Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, Costa Rica, and Nicaragua.

In the early 1820s, only one major threat remained to the newly won independence of the Latin American states. Members of the Concert of Europe favored the use of troops to restore Spanish control in Latin



Painting of early twentieth-century coffee plantation by Cândido Portinari

America. The British, who wished to trade with Latin America, disagreed. They proposed joint action with the United States against any European moves in Latin America.

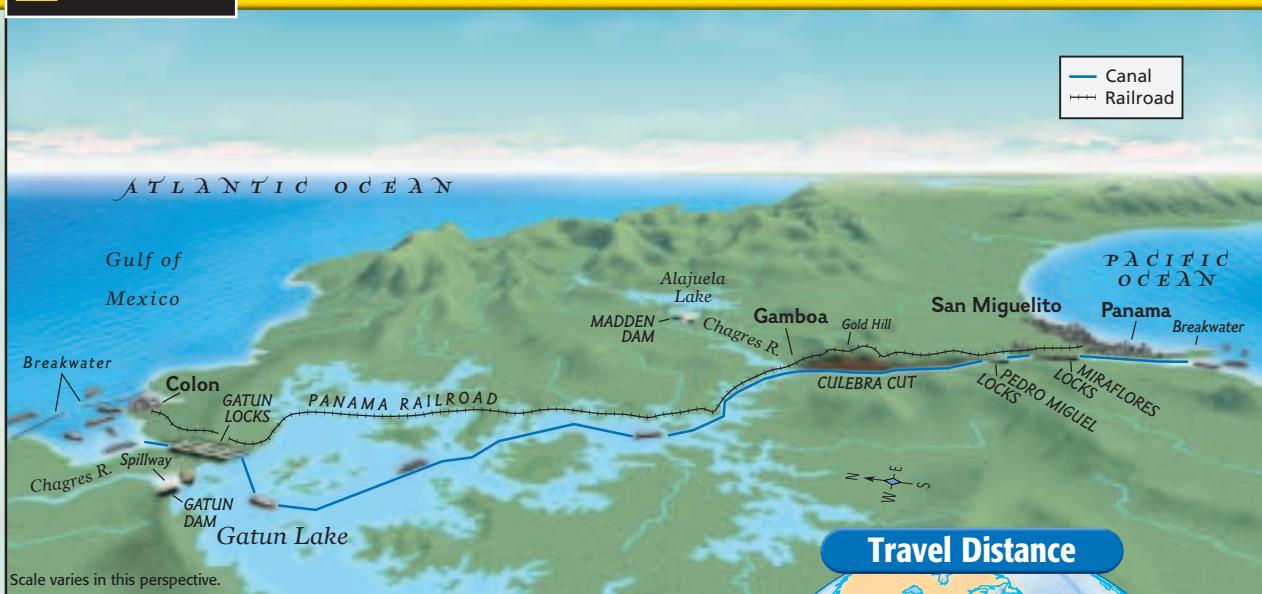
Distrustful of British motives, United States president James Monroe acted alone in 1823. In the **Monroe Doctrine**, he guaranteed the independence of the new Latin American nations and warned against any European intervention in the Americas.

More important to Latin American independence than American words, however, was Britain’s navy. Other European powers feared British naval power, which stood between Latin America and any European invasion force.

 **Reading Check** **Evaluating** How did the French Revolution affect Mexico?

Difficulties of Nation Building

The new Latin American nations faced a number of serious problems between 1830 and 1870. The wars for independence had resulted in a staggering loss of people, property, and livestock. Unsure of their precise boundaries, the new nations went to war with one another to settle border disputes. Poor roads, a lack of railroads, thick jungles, and mountains made communication, transportation, and national unity difficult. During the course of the nineteenth century, the new Latin American nations would become economically dependent on Western nations once again.



Scale varies in this perspective.

Geography Skills

The United States's intervention in Latin America in the early 1900s led to the building of the Panama Canal (opened in 1914). The United States controlled the canal throughout most of the twentieth century.

- Interpreting Maps** The Panama Canal provides a shorter route between which two oceans?
- Interpreting Maps** What is the difference in miles between the two routes from New York City to San Francisco?
- Applying Geography Skills** Nicaragua was an alternate site for the canal. Determine why Panama was selected.



Rule of the Caudillos Most of the new nations of Latin America began with republican governments, but they had had no experience in ruling themselves. Soon after independence, strong leaders known as **caudillos** came into power.

Caudillos ruled chiefly by military force and were usually supported by the landed elites. Many kept the new national states together. Some were also modernizers who built roads and canals, ports, and schools. Others were destructive.

Antonio López de Santa Anna, for example, ruled Mexico from 1833 to 1855. He misused state funds, halted reforms, and created chaos. In 1835, American settlers in the Mexican state of Texas revolted against Santa Anna's rule.

Texas gained its independence in 1836 and United States statehood in 1845. War between Mexico and

the United States soon followed (1846–1848). Mexico was defeated and lost almost one-half of its territory to the United States in the Mexican War.

Fortunately for Mexico, Santa Anna's disastrous rule was followed by a period of reform from 1855 to 1876. This era was dominated by **Benito Juárez**, a Mexican national hero. The son of Native American peasants, President Juárez brought liberal reforms to Mexico, including separation of church and state, land distribution to the poor, and an educational system for all of Mexico.

Other caudillos, such as Juan Manuel de Rosas in Argentina, were supported by the masses, became extremely popular, and brought about radical change. Unfortunately, the caudillo's authority depended on his personal power. When he died or lost power, civil wars for control of the country often erupted.

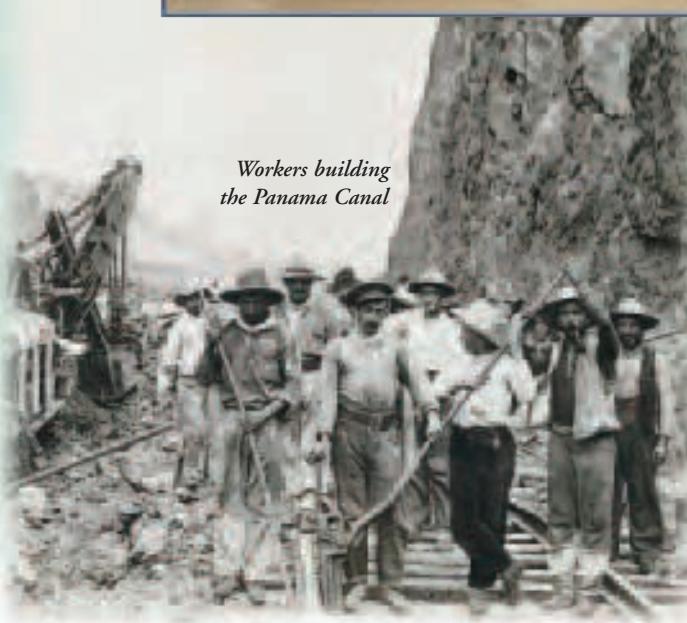
Panama Canal Locks



- 1 A ship arrives from the Atlantic Ocean or the Pacific Ocean.
- 2 The ship enters the first lock and steel gates close behind it. Water flows into the lock from an artificial lake. When the water reaches the level of the next higher lock, gates open and the ship moves forward.
- 3 Electric towing locomotives called mules pull the ship by cables through the locks.
- 4 In a descending lock, water is drained to the level of the next lower lock and the ship advances.

Panama Canal Facts

- In 1534, Holy Roman Emperor Charles V ordered the first survey of a proposed canal route across the Isthmus of Panama. The survey came back "impossible."
- The canal was constructed in two stages: between 1881 and 1888 by a French company and between 1904 and 1914 by the United States.
- The canal is 51 miles (82 km) long. The average time a ship spends in transit is 8 to 10 hours.
- There are 6 pairs of locks, or a total of 12 locks. Each lock is 1,000 feet (305 m) long and 110 feet (34 m) wide. The lock system lifts ships 85 feet (26 m) above sea level.
- About 140 million tons (127 million t) of commercial cargo pass through the canal each year.



A New Imperialism Political independence brought economic independence, but old patterns were quickly reestablished. Instead of Spain and Portugal, Great Britain now dominated the Latin American economy. British merchants moved into Latin America in large numbers, and British investors poured in funds. Old trade patterns soon reemerged.

Latin America continued to serve as a source of raw materials and foodstuffs for the industrial nations of Europe and the United States. Exports included wheat, tobacco, wool, sugar, coffee, and hides. At the same time, finished consumer goods, especially textiles, were imported.

The emphasis on exporting raw materials and importing finished products ensured the ongoing domination of the Latin American economy by foreigners. Latin American countries remained

economic colonies of Western nations, even though they were no longer political colonies.

Persistent Inequality A fundamental, underlying problem for all of the new Latin American nations was the domination of society by the landed elites. Large estates remained a way of life in Latin America. By 1848, for example, the Sánchez Navarro family in Mexico possessed 17 estates made up of 16 million acres (6,480,000 ha). Estates were often so large that they could not be farmed efficiently.

Land remained the basis of wealth, social prestige, and political power throughout the nineteenth century. Landed elites ran governments, controlled courts, and kept a system of inexpensive labor. These landowners made enormous profits by growing single, specialized crops, such as coffee, for export. The

masses, with no land to grow basic food crops, experienced dire poverty.

 **Reading Check** **Describing** What were some of the difficulties faced by the new Latin American republics?

Political Change in Latin America

 **TURNING POINT** One hundred years of direct United States involvement in the Panama Canal ended on December 31, 1999, when the canal reverted to Panamanian control.

After 1870, Latin American governments, led by large landowners, wrote constitutions similar to those of the United States and European democracies. The ruling elites were careful to keep their power by limiting voting rights, however.

The United States in Latin America By 1900, the United States, which had emerged as a world power, had begun to intervene in the affairs of its southern neighbors. As a result of the Spanish-American War (1898), Cuba became a United States protectorate, and Puerto Rico was annexed to the United States.

In 1903, the United States supported a rebellion that enabled Panama to separate itself from Colombia and establish a new nation. In return, the United States was granted control of a strip of land 10 miles



Picturing History

United States marines hoist the American flag following a United States victory in the Spanish-American War. **What territory in addition to Cuba came under American control as a result of the Spanish-American War?**

(16.09 km) wide running from coast to coast in Panama. There, the United States built the **Panama Canal**, which was opened in 1914.

American investments in Latin America soon followed, as did American resolve to protect those investments. Beginning in 1898, American military forces were sent to Cuba, Mexico, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama, Colombia, Haiti, and the Dominican Republic to protect American interests.

Some expeditions remained for many years. United States Marines were in **Haiti** from 1915 to 1934, and **Nicaragua** was occupied from 1909 to 1933. Increasing numbers of Latin Americans began to resent this interference from the “big bully” to the north.

Revolution in Mexico In some countries, large landowners supported dictators who looked out for the interests of the ruling elite. Porfirio Díaz, who ruled Mexico between 1877 and 1911, created a conservative, centralized government with the support of the army, foreign capitalists, large landowners, and the Catholic Church. All these groups benefited from their alliance. However, forces for change in Mexico led to a revolution.

During Díaz’s dictatorial reign, the wages of workers had declined. Ninety-five percent of the rural population owned no land, whereas about a thousand families owned almost all of Mexico. When

a liberal landowner, Francisco Madero, forced Díaz from power in 1911, he opened the door to a wider revolution.

Madero’s ineffectiveness created a demand for agrarian reform. This new call for reform was led by Emiliano Zapata. Zapata aroused the masses of landless peasants and began to seize the estates of wealthy landholders.

Between 1910 and 1920, the Mexican Revolution caused great damage to the Mexican economy. Finally, a new constitution enacted in 1917 set up a government led by a president, created land-reform policies, established limits on foreign investors, and set an agenda to help the workers. The revolution also led to an outpouring of patriotism. Intellectuals and artists sought to capture what was unique about Mexico, with special emphasis on its past.

 **Reading Check** **Describing** What was the United States’s role as a colonial power?

Economic Change in Latin America

After 1870, Latin America began an age of prosperity based to a large extent on the export of a few basic items. These included wheat and beef from Argentina, coffee from Brazil, coffee and bananas from Central America, and sugar and silver from Peru. These foodstuffs and raw materials were largely exchanged for finished goods—textiles, machines, and luxury items—from Europe and the United States. After 1900, Latin Americans also increased their own industrialization, especially by building textile, food-processing, and construction material factories.

One result of the prosperity that came from increased exports was growth in the middle sectors (divisions) of Latin American society—lawyers, merchants, shopkeepers, businesspeople, school-teachers, professors, bureaucrats, and military officers. These middle sectors accounted for only 5 to 10 percent of the population, hardly enough in numbers to make up a true middle class. Nevertheless, after 1900, the middle sectors of society continued to expand.

Regardless of the country in which they lived, middle-class Latin Americans shared some common characteristics. They lived in the cities; sought educa-



Picturing History

This photo shows Montevideo, Uruguay, in the early twentieth century. **What signs of increasing prosperity do you see in this photo?**

tion and decent incomes; and saw the United States as a model, especially in regard to industrialization.

The middle sectors in Latin America sought liberal reform, not revolution. Once they had the right to vote, they generally sided with the landholding elites.

Reading Check **Evaluating** What caused the growth of a middle class in Latin America?

SECTION 4 ASSESSMENT

Checking for Understanding

1. **Define** creole, *peninsulare*, mestizo, Monroe Doctrine, caudillo.
2. **Identify** José de San Martín, Simón Bolívar, Antonio López de Santa Anna, Benito Juárez.
3. **Locate** Puerto Rico, Panama Canal, Haiti, Nicaragua.
4. **Describe** British motives for protecting Latin American states.
5. **List** the powers and privileges of the landed elites.

Critical Thinking

6. **Examine** Why did eliminating European domination from Latin America not bring about significant economic and social change?
7. **Organizing Information** Fill in the chart below to identify which country exported each product listed.

Product	Country
coffee	
bananas and coffee	
beef and wheat	
sugar and silver	

Analyzing Visuals

8. **Describe** the painting on page 672. What action is taking place? How would you describe the emotions of the people in the scene? How has the painter tried to convey the importance of the event?

Writing About History

9. **Expository Writing** Why did Latin American countries remain economic colonies of Western nations when they were no longer political colonies? Write a brief essay explaining why this happened.

CHAPTER 21 ASSESSMENT and ACTIVITIES

Chapter Summary

The Age Of Imperialism

The imperialist powers of the nineteenth century conquered weaker countries and carved up the lands they seized. Their actions had a lasting effect on the world, especially the conquered peoples of Asia and Africa. The chart below organizes selected events that occurred during the age of imperialism according to four themes.

Movement

- Imperialistic nations set up colonies and protectorates.
- Christian missionaries preach in Africa and Asia.
- Cecil Rhodes makes a fortune in South Africa.

Change

- Ferdinand de Lesseps completes the Suez Canal in 1869.
- King Leopold II of Belgium colonizes the Congo Basin.
- The United States gains new territory after the Spanish-American War.
- The Panama Canal opens in 1914.

Reaction

- The British East India Company controls India.
- Afrikaners set up independent republics.

Nationalism

- The United States creates the Monroe Doctrine in 1823.
- In May 1857, the sepoy rebels against British commanders.
- Afrikaners fight the British in the Boer War from 1899 to 1902.

Using Key Terms

1. The establishment of overseas colonies is called _____.
2. A ____ is a political unit that depends on another state for its protection, such as Cambodia in its relationship with France in the 1880s.
3. The method of colonial government in which local rulers maintain their authority is called _____.
4. When foreigners govern the colony instead of locals it is called _____.
5. Puerto Rico was ____ by the United States.
6. The people who are native to a country are also known as _____.
7. Indian soldiers in the service of the British East India Company were called _____.
8. The ____ of India was assisted by a large British civil service staff.
9. To prevent foreign interference in Latin America, the president of the United States issued the _____.
10. The ____ elite led the fight for independence in South America.

Reviewing Key Facts

11. **Economics** Why did European states wish to establish colonies?
12. **Geography** What African state was founded as a refuge for former slaves?
13. **History** By 1914, what European countries had divided up Africa?
14. **Culture** What were the effects of British rule in India?
15. **Government** Describe the zamindar system, which was used by the British in India.
16. **History** What were the goals of Mohandas Gandhi?
17. **History** Why was the Haitian revolution unique?
18. **History** What arrangement did the United States make with Panama?
19. **Geography** What country in Southeast Asia remained independent? Why?

Critical Thinking

20. **Analyzing** Explain the circumstances surrounding the building of the Panama Canal. How did the United States benefit?
21. **Making Comparisons** Discuss the various concerns of people under colonial rule. Did social class affect how they viewed colonial power? How were the concerns of different social classes similar? How were they different?

CLICK HERE



Self-Check Quiz

Visit the *Glencoe World History* Web site at wh.glencoe.com and click on **Chapter 21—Self-Check Quiz** to prepare for the Chapter Test.

Writing About History

22. **Persuasive Writing** Pretend you are a British colonist who has been living abroad for a year. Decide whether you are for or against colonialism and write a letter to your family convincing them of your views. Use examples from the text or your own research.

Analyzing Sources

Read the following quote by Miguel Hidalgo:

“My children, this day comes to us as a new dispensation. Are you ready to receive it? Will you be free? Will you make the effort to recover from the hated Spanish the lands stolen from your forefathers 300 years ago?”

23. Describe the tone of this quote. What emotions is Hidalgo trying to arouse? Is Hidalgo correct when he claims that the Spanish stole the land?
24. Do you think Native Americans in North America are justified in feeling that their lands were stolen? Why or why not?

Applying Technology Skills

25. **Using the Internet** Use the Internet to research Emilio Aguinaldo and the Philippine quest for independence. Create a map showing the various battle sites.

Making Decisions

26. You are a local ruler in your country. You deeply resent the colonial power that has asked you to rule in its interest. Do you continue to rule or do you resign? What are the consequences of your decision?
27. Originally the Panama Canal was a French project. When the French ran into difficulties, they attempted to sell their project to the United States. As a United States senator, decide whether or not the United States should take over the project. Give reasons for your decision.
28. Simón Bolívar is considered to be the George Washington of South America. Do further research on Bolívar in your school library. If necessary, review information you have previously learned about George Washington. Decide whether or not you think the comparison between Bolívar and Washington is fair. Explain your decision.



Suez Canal



Analyzing Maps and Charts

Use your text and the map above to answer the following questions.

29. Approximately how long is the Suez Canal?
30. Why is control of the Suez Canal so important?
31. What two seas are connected by the Suez Canal?
32. What route was used for trade and transportation in this area prior to the building of the Suez Canal?

Standardized Test Practice

Directions: Choose the best answer to the following question.

Which of the following was a consequence of British colonial rule in India?

A the defeat of the Mogul dynasty
B the popularity of the joint-stock company
C the exploitation of resources
D the Berlin Conference of 1884

Test-Taking Tip: If you do not immediately know the right answer to a question, look at each answer choice carefully. Try to recall the context in which these events were discussed in class. Remembering this context may help you eliminate incorrect answer choices.

CHAPTER 22

East Asia Under Challenge

1800–1914

Key Events

As you read this chapter, look for the key events in the development of East Asia.

- *Western nations used political persuasion and military strength to gain trading privileges with China and Japan.*
- *China's internal problems made it easier for Western nations to penetrate the country and strengthen their influence.*
- *Japan's ability to adopt Western ways and to maintain its own traditions enabled it to develop into a modern, powerful nation.*

The Impact Today

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

- *The issues raised by the Opium War continue to be addressed, since drug addiction is still a major international problem.*
- *Japan has one of the world's largest industrialized, free-market economies.*
- *China's large market continues to attract Western business and trade.*



World History Video The Chapter 22 video, "The Russo-Japanese War," chronicles the conflict between Russia and Japan.

Chinese workers pack tea for export.



1854

Treaty of Kanagawa initiates United States–Japanese relations

1860
Europeans seize Chinese capital of Beijing

1830

1840

1850

1860

1870

1841
British forces seize island of Hong Kong

1842
Treaty of Nanjing establishes trade between China and Great Britain

1868
Meiji Restoration begins





A British steamship attacks Chinese naval forces off the coast of China during the Opium War.

Sun Yat-sen



1905

Sun Yat-sen forms
Revolutionary
Alliance in China

1911

Chinese revolution
starts

1880

1890

1900

1910

1920

c. 1900

Japan's
industrial
sector begins
to grow

1910

Japan annexes
Korea

Meiji-era train depot



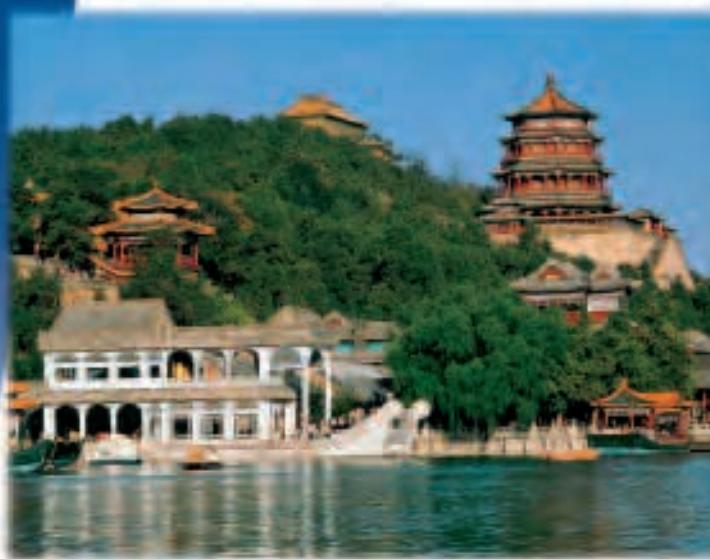
HISTORY

Online

Chapter Overview

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CLICK HERE



The Summer Palace in Beijing today



Palace interior

Looting of the Summer Palace

Like the countries of South Asia, Southeast Asia, and Africa, the nations of East Asia faced a growing challenge from the power of the West in the nineteenth century. In China, Westerners used their military superiority to pursue their goals.

In 1860, for example, Great Britain and France decided to retaliate against the Chinese, who had tried to restrict British and French activities. In July, combined British and French forces arrived on the outskirts of Beijing. There, they came upon the Old Summer Palace of the Chinese emperors. The soldiers were astounded by the riches they beheld and could not resist the desire to steal them.

Beginning on October 6, British and French troops moved through the palace. They took anything that looked valuable and smashed what they could not cart away. One British observer wrote, "You would see several officers and men of all ranks with their heads and hands brushing and knocking together in the same box." In another room, he said, "a scramble was going on over a collection of handsome state robes . . . others would be amusing themselves by taking shots at chandeliers."

Lord Elgin, leader of the British forces in China, soon restored order. After the Chinese took hostage and then murdered some 20 British and French soldiers, however, Lord Elgin ordered the Old Summer Palace to be burned. Intimidated, the Chinese government agreed to Western demands.

Why It Matters

The events of 1860 were part of a regular pattern in East Asia in the nineteenth century. Backed by European guns, European merchants and missionaries pressed for the right to carry out their activities in China and Japan. The Chinese and Japanese resisted but were eventually forced to open their doors to the foreigners. Unlike other Asian societies, however, both Japan and China were able to maintain their national independence.

History and You International contact continues to shrink differences among nations. Using the information in this chapter and outside research, create a chart comparing the development of the United States and Japan during the twentieth century. Include data on material goods as well as economic, political, or social trends.

SECTION 1

The Decline of the Qing Dynasty

Guide to Reading

Main Ideas

- The Qing dynasty declined because of internal and external pressures.
- Western nations increased their economic involvement with China.

Key Terms

extraterritoriality, self-strengthening, spheres of influence, indemnity

People to Identify

Hong Xiuquan, Guang Xu, Empress Dowager Ci Xi, John Hay

Places to Locate

Guangzhou, Chang Jiang, Hong Kong

Preview Questions

- What internal problems led to the decline of the Qing dynasty?
- What role did Western nations play in the Qing dynasty's decline?

Reading Strategy

Compare and Contrast Create a chart comparing and contrasting the Tai Ping and Boxer Rebellions.

	Tai Ping	Boxer
Reforms Demanded		
Methods Used to Obtain Reforms		
Outcomes		

Preview of Events

◆ 1840

1839
Opium War begins

◆ 1850

1850
Tai Ping Rebellion begins

◆ 1860

1860

◆ 1870

1870

◆ 1880

1880

◆ 1890

1898

Ci Xi opposes reforms

◆ 1900

1900
Boxer Rebellion defeated



Nobleman, Qing dynasty

Voices from the Past

In the second half of the nineteenth century, calls for political reform were heard in China. However, a leading court official, Zhang Zhidong, argued:

“The doctrine of people’s rights will bring us not a single benefit but a hundred evils. Are we going to establish a parliament? Among the Chinese scholars and people there are still many today who are content to be vulgar and rustic. They are ignorant of the general situation in the world, they do not understand the basic system of the state. They have not the most elementary idea about foreign countries. . . . Even supposing the confused and clamorous people are assembled in one house, for every one of them who is clear-sighted, there will be a hundred others whose vision is clouded; they will converse at random and talk as if in a dream—what use will it be?”

—*China’s Response to the West: A Documentary Survey, 1839–1923*,
Ssu-yu Teng and John K. Fairbank, eds., 1970

Zhang’s view prevailed, and no reforms were enacted.

Causes of Decline

In 1800, after a long period of peace and prosperity, the Qing dynasty of the Manchus was at the height of its power. A little over a century later, however, humiliated and harassed by the Western powers, the Qing dynasty collapsed.

One important reason for the abrupt decline and fall of the Qing dynasty was the intense external pressure applied to Chinese society by the modern West. However, internal changes also played a role in the dynasty's collapse.

After an extended period of growth, the Qing dynasty began to suffer from corruption, peasant unrest, and incompetence. These weaknesses were made worse by rapid growth in the country's population. By 1900, there were 400 million people in China. Population growth created a serious food shortage. In the 1850s, one observer wrote, "Not a year passes in which a terrific number of persons do not perish of famine in some part or other of China."

The ships, guns, and ideas of foreigners highlighted the growing weakness of the Qing dynasty and probably hastened its end.

 **Reading Check** **Examining** What factors led to the decline of the Qing dynasty?

The Opium War

By 1800, Europeans had been in contact with China for more than two hundred years. European merchants, however, were restricted to a small trading outlet at **Guangzhou** (GWONG•JO), or Canton. The British did not like this arrangement.

The British also had an unfavorable trade balance in China. That is, they imported more goods from China than they exported to China. For years, Britain had imported tea, silk, and porcelain from the Chinese and sent Indian cotton to China to pay for these imports. The cotton, however, did not cover the entire debt, and the British were forced to pay for their imports with silver. The British sent increasing quantities of silver to China, especially in exchange for tea, which was in great demand by the British.

At first, the British tried to negotiate with the Chinese to improve the trade imbalance. When negotiations failed, the British turned to trading opium.

Opium was grown in northern India under the sponsorship of the British East India Company and then shipped directly to Chinese markets. Demand for opium—a highly addictive drug—in South China jumped dramatically. Soon, silver was flowing out of China and into the pockets of the officials of the British East India Company.

The Chinese reacted strongly. The British were not the first to import opium into China. The Chinese government had already seen opium's dangerous qualities, and had made its trade illegal. They appealed to the British government on moral grounds to stop the traffic in opium. A government official wrote to Queen Victoria: "Suppose there were



CLICK HERE

people from another country who carried opium for sale to England and seduced your people into buying and smoking it; certainly your honorable ruler would deeply hate it and be bitterly aroused."

The British refused to halt their activity, however. As a result, the Chinese government blockaded the foreign area in Guangzhou in order to force traders to surrender their chests of opium. The British responded with force, starting the Opium War (1839–1842).

The Chinese were no match for the British. British warships destroyed Chinese coastal and river forts. When a British fleet sailed almost unopposed up the **Chang Jiang** (Yangtze River) to Nanjing, the Qing dynasty made peace.

In the Treaty of Nanjing in 1842, the Chinese agreed to open five coastal ports to British trade, limit taxes on imported British goods, and pay for the costs of the war. China also agreed to give the British the island of **Hong Kong**. Nothing was said in the treaty about the opium trade. Moreover, in the five ports, Europeans lived in their own sections and were subject not to Chinese laws but to their own laws—a practice known as **extraterritoriality**.

The Opium War marked the beginning of the establishment of Western influence in China. For the time being, the Chinese tried to deal with the problem by pitting foreign countries against one another. Concessions granted to the British were offered to other Western nations, including the United States. Soon, thriving foreign areas were operating in the five treaty ports along the southern Chinese coast.

HISTORY
Online

Web Activity Visit the Glencoe *World History* Web site at wh.glencoe.com and click on **Chapter 22—Student Web Activity** to learn more about Western influence in China.

Reading Check **Summarizing** What did the British do to adjust their trade imbalance with China?

The Tai Ping Rebellion

In the meantime, the failure of the Chinese government to deal with pressing internal economic problems led to a peasant revolt, known as the Tai Ping (TIE PING) Rebellion (1850–1864). It was led by



CONNECTIONS Past To Present

The Return of Hong Kong to China

In 1984, Great Britain and China signed a joint declaration in which Britain agreed to return its colony of Hong Kong to China on July 1, 1997. China promised that Hong Kong would keep its free market, its capitalist economy, and its way of life. The formula was "one country, two systems."

In 1841, Hong Kong was a small island with a few fishing villages on the southeastern coast of China. A British naval force seized the island and used it as a port for shipping opium into China. A year later, after a humili-

ating defeat in the Opium War, China agreed to give the island of Hong Kong to Britain.

Later, the British took advantage of the declining power of China's Qing dynasty to gain additional lands next to Hong Kong. In 1860, the Chinese government granted the Kowloon Peninsula to Britain. In 1898, the Chinese granted the British a 99-year lease on the nearby New Territories, an area that provided much of the food for the colony of Hong Kong.

In the 1950s and 1960s, Hong Kong was filled with refugees from the new Communist regime in mainland China. The population of Hong Kong swelled to six million. The economy of Hong Kong boomed. Today, Hong Kong is the eighth largest trading nation in the world.



◀ Troops take down the British flag in Hong Kong in 1997.

Comparing Past and Present

Using outside sources, research the current political and cultural situation in Hong Kong. Explain what the formula "one country, two systems" means. Evaluate whether or not the formula has been successful since Hong Kong was returned to China.

Hong Xiuquan, a Christian convert who viewed himself as a younger brother of Jesus Christ.

Hong was convinced that God had given him the mission of destroying the Qing dynasty. Joined by great crowds of peasants, Hong captured the town of Yongan and proclaimed a new dynasty, the Heavenly Kingdom of Great Peace (*Tai Ping Tianguo* in Chinese—hence the name *Tai Ping Rebellion*).

The *Tai Ping* Rebellion appealed to many people because it called for social reforms. These reforms included giving land to all peasants and treating women as equals of men. Women even served in their own units in the *Tai Ping* army.

Hong's rebellion also called for people to give up private possessions. Peasants were to hold lands and farms in common, and money, food, and clothing were to be shared equally by all. Hong outlawed alcohol and tobacco and eliminated the practice of binding women's feet. The Chinese Communist Revolution of the twentieth century (see Chapter 31) would have similar social goals.

In March 1853, the rebels seized Nanjing, the second largest city of the empire, and massacred 25,000 men, women, and children. The revolt continued for 10 more years but gradually began to fall apart. Europeans came to the aid of the Qing dynasty when they realized the destructive nature of the *Tai Ping* forces. As one British observer noted, there was no hope "of

Then and Now

Victoria served as the capital of Britain's Hong Kong colony. **How did the presence of the British impact the island of Hong Kong?**

► *Victoria Harbor, c. 1840*



▼ *Modern Hong Kong*



*European troops battle *Tai Ping* soldiers in Guangzhou during the *Tai Ping* Rebellion.*

any good ever coming of the rebel movement. They do nothing but burn, murder, and destroy."

In 1864, Chinese forces, with European aid, recaptured Nanjing and destroyed the remaining rebel force. The *Tai Ping* Rebellion proved to be one of the most devastating civil wars in history. As many as twenty million people died in the course of the 14-year struggle.

One reason for the Qing dynasty's failure to deal effectively with the internal unrest was its ongoing struggle with the Western powers. Beginning in 1856, the British and the French applied force to gain greater trade privileges. As a result of the Treaty of Tianjin in 1858, the Chinese agreed to legalize the opium trade and open new ports to foreign trade. They also surrendered the Kowloon Peninsula to Great Britain. When the Chinese resisted parts of the treaty, the British seized Beijing in 1860.

✓ **Reading Check Summarizing** What social reforms did the *Tai Ping* Rebellion demand?

Efforts at Reform

By the late 1870s, the Qing dynasty was in decline. Unable to restore order themselves, government troops had relied on forces recruited by regional warlords to help fight the *Tai Ping* Rebellion. To finance their private armies, warlords had collected taxes from local people. After crushing the revolt, many of these warlords refused to dismiss their units. With the support of the local gentry, they continued to collect local taxes for their own use.

In its weakened state, the Qing court finally began to listen to the appeals of reform-minded officials. The reformers called for a new policy they called "**self-strengthening**." By this, they meant that China

should adopt Western technology while keeping its Confucian values and institutions. Under this policy, factories were built to produce modern weapons and ships, increasing China's military strength. However, the traditional Chinese imperial bureaucracy was also retained, and civil service examinations based on Confucian writers were still used to select government staff members. This new policy guided Chinese foreign and domestic policy for the next 25 years.

Some reformers wanted to change China's traditional political institutions by introducing democracy. However, such ideas were too radical for most reformers. During the last quarter of the nineteenth century, the Chinese government tried to modernize China's military forces and build up industry without touching the basic elements of Chinese civilization. Railroads, weapons factories, and shipyards were built, but the Chinese value system remained unchanged.

 **Reading Check** **Explaining** What was China's policy of "self-strengthening"?

The Advance of Imperialism

In the end, however, the changes did not help the Qing stay in power. The European advance into China continued during the last two decades of the nineteenth century, while internal conditions continued to deteriorate.

Mounting Pressures In the north and northeast, Russia took advantage of the Qing dynasty's weakness to force China to give up territories north of the Amur River in Siberia. In Tibet, a struggle between Russia and Great Britain kept both powers from seizing the territory outright. This allowed Tibet to become free from Chinese influence.

Even more ominous changes were taking place in the Chinese heartland. European states began to create **spheres of influence**, areas where the imperial powers had exclusive trading rights. After the Tai Ping Rebellion, warlords in the provinces began to negotiate directly with foreign nations. In return for money,



the warlords granted these nations exclusive trading rights or railroad-building and mining privileges. In this way, Britain, France, Germany, Russia, and Japan all established spheres of influence in China.

In 1894, another blow further disintegrated the Qing dynasty. The Chinese went to war with Japan over Japanese inroads into Korea, a land that the Chinese had controlled for a long time. The Chinese were soundly defeated. As a reward, Japan demanded and received the island of Taiwan (known to Europeans at the time as Formosa), and the Liaodong (LYOW•DOONG) Peninsula. Fearing Japan's growing power, however, the European powers forced Japan to give the Liaodong Peninsula back to China.

New pressures for Chinese territory soon arose. In 1897, two German missionaries were murdered by Chinese rioters. Germany used this pretext to demand territories in the Shandong (SHON•DOONG) Peninsula. When the Chinese government approved the demand, other European nations made new claims on Chinese territory.

Internal Crisis This latest scramble for territory took place at a time of internal crisis in China. In June 1898, the young emperor **Guang Xu** (GWANG SHYOO) launched a massive reform program based on changes in Japan (see the discussion later in this

chapter). During the following weeks, known as the One Hundred Days of Reform, the emperor issued edicts calling for major political, administrative, and educational reforms. With these reforms, the emperor intended to modernize government bureaucracy by following Western models; to adopt a new educational system that would replace the traditional civil service examinations; to adopt Western-style schools, banks and a free press; and to train the military to use modern weapons and Western fighting techniques.

Many conservatives at court, however, opposed these reforms. They saw little advantage in copying the West. As one said, "An examination of the causes of success and failure in government reveals that . . . the adoption of foreignism leads to disorder." According to this conservative, traditional Chinese rules needed to be reformed and not rejected in favor of Western changes.

Most important, the new reform program was opposed by the emperor's aunt, **Empress Dowager Ci Xi** (TSUH•SEE). She became a dominant force at court and opposed the emperor's reforms. With the aid of the imperial army, she eventually imprisoned the emperor and ended his reform efforts.

 **Reading Check** **Identifying** What countries claimed Chinese lands between 1880 and 1900?

People In History

Ci Xi

1835–1908—Chinese empress



Empress Dowager Ci Xi, through her unwillingness to make significant reforms, helped bring about the overthrow of the Qing dynasty. Ci Xi was at first a low-ranking concubine to Emperor Xian Feng. Her position became influential in 1856, when she gave birth to the emperor's first and only son.

When the emperor died, Ci Xi ruled China on behalf of her son. Later, she ruled on behalf of her nephew Guang Xu. With the aid of conservatives at court and the imperial army, she had Guang Xu jailed in the palace.

Empress Dowager Ci Xi ruled China for almost 50 years, during a crucial period in the nation's history. She was well aware of her own power. "I have often thought that I am the cleverest woman who ever lived . . . I have 400 million people all dependent on my judgement."

Opening the Door to China

As foreign pressure on the Qing dynasty grew stronger, both Great Britain and the United States feared that other nations would overrun the country should the Chinese government collapse. In 1899, U.S. secretary of state **John Hay** presented a proposal that ensured equal access to the Chinese market for all nations and preserved the unity of the Chinese Empire. When none of the other imperialist governments opposed the idea, Hay proclaimed that all major states with economic interests in China had agreed that the country should have an **Open Door policy**.

In part, the Open Door policy reflected American concern for the survival of China. However, it also reflected the interests of some trading companies in the United States. These companies wanted to operate in open markets and disliked the existing division of China into separate spheres of influence dominated by individual states.

The Open Door policy did not end the system of spheres of influence. However, it did reduce restrictions on foreign imports imposed by the dominating power within each sphere.

The Open Door policy also helped to reduce imperialist hysteria over access to the China market. The policy lessened fears in Britain, France, Germany, and Russia that other powers would take advantage of China's weakness and attempt to dominate the China market for themselves.

 **Reading Check** **Analyzing** Why did the United States want an Open Door policy in China?

The Boxer Rebellion

The Open Door policy came too late to stop the Boxer Rebellion. *Boxer* was the popular name given to members of a secret organization called the Society of Harmonious Fists. Members practiced a system of exercise—a form of shadowboxing, or boxing with an imaginary opponent—that they thought would protect them from bullets.

The Boxers were upset by the foreign takeover of Chinese lands. Their slogan was “destroy the foreigner.” They especially disliked Christian missionaries and Chinese converts to Christianity who seemed to threaten Chinese traditions. At the beginning of 1900, Boxer bands roamed the countryside and slaughtered foreign missionaries and Chinese Christians. Their victims also included foreign businessmen and even the German envoy to Beijing.

Response to the killings was immediate and overwhelming. An allied army consisting of twenty thousand British, French, German, Russian, American,



Boxers are rounded up after the failed rebellion.

and Japanese troops attacked Beijing in August 1900. The army restored order and demanded more concessions from the Chinese government. The Chinese government was forced to pay a heavy **indemnity**—a payment for damages—to the powers that had crushed the uprising. The imperial government was now weaker than ever.

 **Reading Check** **Explaining** How did the Boxers get their name?

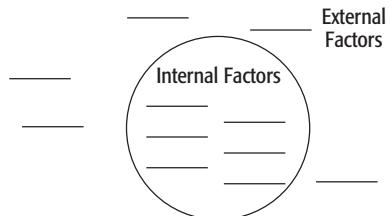
SECTION 1 ASSESSMENT

Checking for Understanding

1. **Define** extraterritoriality, self-strengthening, spheres of influence, indemnity.
2. **Identify** Hong Xiuquan, Guang Xu, Empress Dowager Ci Xi, John Hay, Open Door policy.
3. **Locate** Guangzhou, Chang Jiang, Hong Kong.
4. **Analyze** how the Tai Ping Rebellion helped to weaken the Qing dynasty.
5. **List** the countries that supplied troops for the allied army, which was formed to fight the Boxers in 1900.

Critical Thinking

6. **Drawing Inferences** Why did European nations agree to follow the Open Door policy proposed by the United States?
7. **Organizing Information** Create a diagram listing the factors that led to the decline of the Qing dynasty.



Analyzing Visuals

8. **Examine** the illustration of the Tai Ping Rebellion shown on page 686 of your text. What visual evidence in this picture shows that both the British and the Chinese were determined to win the battle?

Writing About History

9. **Expository Writing** Using outside sources, research, write, and present a report explaining the effects of population on modern China. Remember to include government laws enacted to curtail population growth and explain the consequences of disobeying these laws.

STUDY & WRITING SKILLBUILDER

Writing a Report

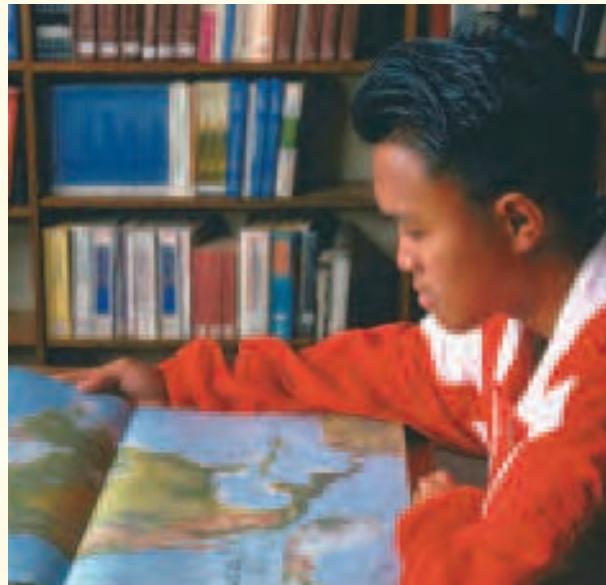
Why Learn This Skill?

You have learned about taking notes, making outlines, and finding sources for researching a paper. Now how do you put all those skills together to actually write a report?

Learning the Skill

Use the following guidelines to help you in writing a report:

- **Select an interesting topic.** As you identify possible topics, focus on resources that are available. Do preliminary research to determine whether your topic is too broad or too narrow. For example, writing about Japan in the nineteenth century is very broad. There is too much information to research and write about. Narrowing it down to one event in the nineteenth century, such as the Treaty of Kanagawa, is much more practical. If, however, you cannot find enough information about your topic, it is probably too narrow.
- **Write a thesis statement.** The thesis defines what you want to prove, discover, or illustrate in your report.



- **Prepare and do research on your topic.** Make a list of main idea questions, and then do research to answer those questions. Prepare note cards on each main idea question, listing the source information.
- **Organize your information.** Use an outline or another kind of organizer. Then follow your outline or organizer in writing a rough draft of your report.
- **Include an introduction, main body, and conclusion.** The introduction briefly presents the topic and gives your topic statement. The main body should follow your outline to develop the important ideas in your argument. The conclusion summarizes and restates your findings.
- **Revise the first draft.** Before writing the final draft of your report, wait one day and then reread and revise your first draft.

Practicing the Skill

Suppose you are writing a report on the decline of the Qing dynasty. Answer the following questions about the writing process.

- 1 What is a possible thesis statement?
- 2 What are three main idea questions?
- 3 What are three possible sources of information?
- 4 What are the next two steps in the process of writing a report?

Applying the Skill

Review the thesis, questions, and resources you came up with for the report on the Qing dynasty. Using this information, continue your research on this topic, organize your information, and write a short report.

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

SECTION 2

Revolution in China

Guide to Reading

Main Ideas

- Sun Yat-sen introduced reforms that led to a revolution in China.
- The arrival of Westerners brought changes to the Chinese economy and culture.

Key Terms

provincial, commodity

Preview of Events

◆ 1902

◆ 1905

1905

Sun Yat-sen issues reform program

◆ 1908

◆ 1911

1908

Emperor Guang Xu and Empress Dowager Ci Xi die

◆ 1914

1911
Qing dynasty collapses

◆ 1917

1916
General Yuan Shigai dies

◆ 1920



Sun Yat-sen presides over the parliament.

People to Identify

Sun Yat-sen, Henry Pu Yi, General Yuan Shigai

Places to Locate

Shanghai, Wuhan

Preview Questions

1. What was Sun Yat-sen's role in the collapse of the Qing dynasty?
2. How did Western influence affect the Chinese economy and culture?

Reading Strategy

Compare and Contrast Create a chart like the one below listing the reforms requested by Sun Yat-sen and those implemented by Empress Dowager Ci Xi.

Sun Yat-sen's Proposals	Empress Dowager Ci Xi's Reforms

Voices from the Past

In 1905, a reformer named Sun Yat-sen presented a program that called for the following changes:

◆ Establish the Republic: Now our revolution is based on equality, in order to establish a republican government. All our people are equal and all enjoy political rights. The president will be publicly chosen by the people of the country. The parliament will be made up of members publicly chosen by the people of the country. Equalize land ownership: The good fortune of civilization is to be shared equally by all the people of the nation. We should assess the value of all the land in the country. Its present price shall be received by the owner, but all increases in value resulting from reform and social improvements after the revolution shall belong to the state, to be shared by all the people.◆

— *Sources of Chinese Tradition*, William Theodore de Bary et al., eds., 1960

These ideas helped start a revolution in China in 1911.

The Fall of the Qing

After the Boxer Rebellion, the Qing dynasty in China tried desperately to reform itself. Empress Dowager Ci Xi, who had long resisted her advisers' suggestions for change, now embraced a number of reforms in education, administration, and the legal system.

The civil service examination system was replaced by a new educational system based on the Western model. In 1909, legislative assemblies were formed at the **provincial**, or local, level. Elections for a national assembly were even held in 1910.

The emerging new elite, composed of merchants, professionals, and reform-minded gentry, soon became impatient with the slow pace of political change. They were angry when they discovered that the new assemblies were not allowed to pass laws but could only give advice to the ruler.

Moreover, the recent reforms had done nothing for the peasants, artisans, and miners, whose living conditions were getting worse as taxes increased. Unrest grew in the countryside as the dynasty continued to ignore deep-seated resentments.

The Rise of Sun Yat-sen The first signs of revolution appeared during the last decade of the nineteenth century, when the young radical Sun Yat-sen formed the Revive China Society. Sun Yat-sen believed that the Qing dynasty was in a state of decay and could no longer govern the country. Unless the Chinese were united under a strong government, they would remain at the mercy of other countries.

Although Sun believed that China should follow the pattern of Western countries, he also knew that the Chinese people were hardly ready for democracy. He instead developed a three-stage reform process that included: (1) a military takeover, (2) a transitional phase in which Sun's own revolutionary party would prepare the people for democratic rule, and (3) the final stage of a constitutional democracy.

In 1905, at a convention in Tokyo, Sun united radical groups from across China and formed the Revolutionary Alliance, which eventually became

Sun Yat-sen

1866–1925

Chinese revolutionary



Sun Yat-sen was the leader of the revolutionary movement that overthrew the Qing dynasty. Sun was born to a peasant family in a village south of Guangzhou and was educated in Hawaii in a British school. He returned to China to practice medicine but soon began to use his earnings to finance revolutionary activities.

A failed rebellion forced Sun to flee to Japan and later to the United States and London. There, he raised money and recruited Chinese exiles to help carry out his revolutionary plans. After the Qing government collapsed in 1911, he returned to China.

Sun was never able to fully realize his dream of leading a new Chinese republic. Nevertheless, the governments of both the Republic of China on Taiwan and the Communist People's Republic of China honor him as the founder of modern China.

the Nationalist Party. The new organization advocated Sun's Three People's Principles, which promoted nationalism, democracy, and the right for people to pursue their own livelihoods. Although the new organization was small, it benefited from the rising discontent generated by the Qing dynasty's failure to improve conditions in China.



Picturing History

Sun Yat-sen's Nationalist soldiers arrive at a village in search of bandits. Sun Yat-sen's revolutionary forces rose against the Qing dynasty in 1911. **What stage(s) in his reform process was Sun attempting to undertake with his army?**

The Revolution of 1911 The Qing dynasty was near its end. In 1908, Empress Dowager Ci Xi died. Her nephew Guang Xu, a prisoner in the palace, died one day before his aunt. The throne was now occupied by China's "last emperor," the infant **Henry Pu Yi**.

In October 1911, followers of Sun Yat-sen launched an uprising in central China. At the time, Sun was traveling in the United States. Thus, the revolt had no leader, but the government was too weak to react. The Qing dynasty collapsed, opening the way for new political forces.

Sun's party had neither the military nor the political strength to form a new government. The party was forced to turn to a member of the old order, **General Yuan Shigai** (YOO•AHN SHUR•GIE), who controlled the army.

Yuan was a prominent figure in military circles, and he had been placed in charge of the imperial army sent to suppress the rebellion. Instead, he abandoned the government and negotiated with members of Sun Yat-sen's party. General Yuan agreed to serve as president of a new Chinese republic and to allow the election of a legislature. Sun himself arrived in China in January 1912, after reading about the revolution in a Denver, Colorado, newspaper.

In the eyes of Sun Yat-sen's party, the events of 1911 were a glorious revolution that ended two thousand years of imperial rule. However, the 1911

uprising was hardly a revolution. It produced no new political or social order. Sun Yat-sen and his followers still had much to accomplish.

The Revolutionary Alliance was supported mainly by an emerging urban middle class, and its program was based largely on Western liberal democratic principles. However, the urban middle class in China was too small to support a new political order. Most of the Chinese people still lived on the land, and few peasants supported Sun Yat-sen's party. In effect, then, the events of 1911 were less a revolution than a collapse of the old order.

 **Reading Check** **Evaluating** What changes did the Revolution of 1911 actually produce in China?

An Era of Civil War

After the collapse of the Qing dynasty, the military took over. Sun Yat-sen and his colleagues had accepted General Yuan Shigai as president of the new Chinese republic in 1911 because they lacked the military force to compete with his control over the army. Many feared that if the revolt lapsed into chaos, the Western powers would intervene. If that happened, the last shreds of Chinese independence would be lost. However, even the general's new allies distrusted his motives.

As Heaven has unified [the earth] under one sky, it will harmonize the various teachings of the world and bring them back to the same source.

— Wang Tao on the need for reform in China, 1800s



Picturing History

Sun Yat-sen and his wife, third and second from the left, stand with other members of the Revolutionary Alliance in Hangzhou, China. **How does the clothing of the people in the photograph reflect Sun Yat-sen's beliefs about the future of China and Wang Tao's thoughts on the process of reform in the country?**

Yuan understood little of the new ideas sweeping into China from the West. He ruled in a traditional manner and even tried to set up a new imperial dynasty. Yuan was hated by reformers for using murder and terror to destroy the new democratic institutions. He was hated by traditionalists (those who supported the Qing) for being disloyal to the dynasty he had served.

Yuan's dictatorial efforts rapidly led to clashes with Sun's party, now renamed the *Guomindang*, or Nationalist Party. When Yuan dissolved the new parliament, the Nationalists launched a rebellion. The rebellion failed, and Sun Yat-sen fled to Japan.

Yuan was strong enough to brush off the challenge from the revolutionary forces, but he could not turn back history. He died in 1916 and was succeeded by one of his officers. For the next several years, China slipped into civil war as the power of the central government disintegrated and military warlords seized power in the provinces. Their soldiers caused massive destruction throughout China.

 **Reading Check** **Explaining** Why were there rebellions in China after General Yuan Shigai became president?

Chinese Society in Transition

When European traders began to move into China in greater numbers in the mid-1800s, Chinese society was already in a state of transition. The growth of industry and trade was especially noticeable in the cities, where a national market for such **commodities**—marketable products—as oil, copper, salt, tea, and porcelain had appeared. Faster and more reliable transportation and a better system of money and banking had begun to create the foundation for a money economy. New crops brought in from abroad increased food production and encouraged population growth. The Chinese economy had never been more productive.

The coming of Westerners to China affected the Chinese economy in three ways. Westerners: (1) introduced modern means of transportation and communications; (2) created an export market; and (3) integrated the Chinese market into the nineteenth-century world economy.

To some, these changes were beneficial. Shaking China out of its old ways quickened a process of change that had already begun in Chinese society. Western influences forced the Chinese to adopt new ways of thinking and acting.

THE WAY IT WAS

YOUNG PEOPLE IN . . .

China

In traditional China, children were thought of not as individuals but as members of a family. Indeed, children were valued because they—especially the sons—would help with the work in the fields, carry on the family name, and care for their parents in old age. By the beginning of the twentieth century, however, these attitudes had changed in some parts of Chinese society.

Some of the changes resulted from the new educational system. After the government abolished the civil service examinations in 1905, a Confucian education was no longer the key to a



successful career. New schools based on the Western model were set up. Especially in the cities, both public and private schools educated a new generation of Chinese, who began to have less respect for the past.

By 1915, educated youth had launched an intense attack on the old system and old values. The main focus of the attack was the Confucian concept of the family. Young people rejected the old family ideas of respect for elders, supremacy of men over women, and sacrifice of individual needs to the demands of the family.

Chinese youth in Western-style clothing

At the same time, however, China paid a heavy price for the new ways. Its local industry was largely destroyed. Also, many of the profits in the new economy went to foreign countries rather than back into the Chinese economy.

During the first quarter of the twentieth century, the pace of change in China quickened even more. After World War I, which temporarily drew foreign investment out of the country, Chinese businesspeople began to develop new ventures. **Shanghai**, **Wuhan**, Tianjin, and Guangzhou became major industrial and commercial centers with a growing middle class and an industrial working class.

 **Reading Check** **Evaluating** How did the arrival of Westerners affect China?

China's Changing Culture

In 1800, daily life for most Chinese was the same as it had been for centuries. Most were farmers, living in millions of villages in rice fields and on hillsides throughout the countryside. A farmer's life was governed by the harvest cycle, village custom, and family ritual. A few men were educated in the Confucian classics. Women remained in the home or in the

fields. All children were expected to obey their parents, and wives were expected to submit to their husbands.

A visitor to China 125 years later would have seen a different society, although it would still have been recognizably Chinese. The changes were most striking in the cities. Here the educated and wealthy had been visibly affected by the growing Western cultural presence. Confucian social ideals were declining rapidly in influence and those of Europe and North America were on the rise.

Nowhere in China was the struggle between old and new more visible than in the field of culture. Radical reformers wanted to eliminate traditional culture, condemning it as an instrument of oppression. They were interested in creating a new China that would be respected by the modern world.

The first changes in traditional culture came in the late nineteenth century. Intellectuals began to introduce Western books, paintings, music, and ideas to China. By the first quarter of the twentieth century, China was flooded by Western culture as intellectuals called for a new culture based on that of the modern West.

Western literature and art became popular in China, especially among the urban middle class.

A spirit of individualism emerged out of the revolt of the youth. Many urban youth now saw themselves as important in and for themselves. They no longer believed they had to sacrifice their wishes for the concerns of the larger family. They demanded the right to choose their own mates and their own careers.

Young Chinese also demanded that women have rights and opportunities equal to those enjoyed by men. They felt that women no longer should be subject to men.

The effect of the young people's revolt could be seen mainly in the cities. There, the tyranny of the old family system began to decline. Women sought education and jobs alongside men. Free choice in marriage became commonplace among affluent families in the cities. The teenage children of Westernized elites copied the

clothing and even the music of young people in Europe and America.

These changes generally did not reach the villages, where traditional attitudes and customs persisted. Marriages arranged by parents continued to be the rule rather than the exception. According to a survey taken in the 1930s, well over two-thirds of marriages were still arranged, even among urban couples. In one rural area, only 3 villagers out of 170 had even heard of the idea of "modern marriage," or a marriage in which people freely choose their marriage partners.

CONNECTING TO THE PAST

- 1. Contrasting** Contrast the traditional way of life with life after 1915 for young people in China.
- 2. Writing about History** How do the teenagers in China during the early twentieth century compare to the young people in the United States today? What common problems might both experience? Write a one-page essay explaining your ideas. Give specific examples to support your point of view.



Picturing History

Ba Jin (far right) is pictured with his four brothers and his stepmother. In his novel *Family*, Ba Jin shows readers how traditional patterns of family life prevailed in China's villages. **From the photo, what inferences can be made about Ba Jin's family?**

Traditional culture, however, remained popular with the more conservative elements of the population, especially in rural areas. Most creative artists followed foreign trends, while traditionalists held on to Chinese culture.

Literature in particular was influenced by foreign ideas. Western novels and short stories began to attract a larger audience. Although most Chinese novels written after World War I dealt with Chinese subjects, they reflected the Western tendency toward a realistic portrayal of society. Often, they dealt with the new Westernized middle class. Mao Dun's *Midnight*, for example, described the changing customs

of Shanghai's urban elites. Most of China's modern authors showed a clear contempt for the past.

Ba Jin, the author of numerous novels and short stories, was one of China's foremost writers at the turn of the century. Born in 1904, Ba Jin was well attuned to the rigors and expected obedience of Chinese family life. In his trilogy, *Family*, *Spring*, and *Autumn*, he describes the disintegration of traditional Confucian ways as the younger members of a large family attempt to break away from their elders.

Reading Check **Describing** What effects did Western culture have on China?

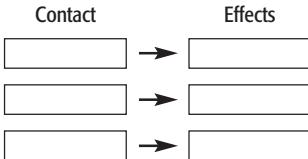
SECTION 2 ASSESSMENT

Checking for Understanding

1. **Define** provincial, commodity.
2. **Identify** Sun Yat-sen, Henry Pu Yi, General Yuan Shigai.
3. **Locate** Shanghai, Wuhan.
4. **Describe** the attitudes toward Western culture held by Chinese in rural and urban areas. Which of these two groups do you think benefited more from Western involvement in the Chinese economy and society?
5. **List** the stages in Sun Yat-sen's three-stage process for reform. What principles did he hope to promote in China?

Critical Thinking

6. **Analyze** Why did the reforms introduced by Empress Dowager Ci Xi and General Yuan Shigai fail to improve the way China was governed?
7. **Cause and Effect** Create a diagram like the one below showing the changes resulting from European traders' contact with China in the mid-nineteenth century.



Analyzing Visuals

8. **Examine** the photograph of Sun Yat-sen's soldiers shown on page 692. What inferences can you draw about his army from looking at the photo? How important was this army in overthrowing the Qing dynasty?

Writing About History

9. **Expository Writing** Research and compare the reasons why both the United States and China experienced civil war. Write an essay offering alternatives to war that might have solved the internal problems of one of the two nations.

SECTION 3

Rise of Modern Japan

Guide to Reading

Main Ideas

- Western intervention opened Japan, an island that had been isolated for 200 years, to trade.
- The interaction between Japan and Western nations gave birth to a modern industrial society.

Key Terms

concession, prefecture

People to Identify

Matthew Perry, Millard Fillmore, Mutsuhito, Ito Hirobumi

Places to Locate

Edo Bay, Kyoto, Edo, Port Arthur

Preview Questions

1. What effect did the Meiji Restoration have on Japan?
2. What steps did Japan take to become an imperialist nation?

Reading Strategy

Categorizing Information Create a table like the one below listing the promises contained in the Charter Oath of 1868 and the provisions of the Meiji constitution of 1890.

Charter Oath	Constitution

Preview of Events

1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900	1910
1853	1871					
Commodore Perry arrives in Japan	Government seizes daimyo's lands to strengthen executive power		Japan pursues imperialist policy		Adoption of Meiji constitution	Japan defeats Russia
		1874		1889		



Hand-colored photograph of Japanese children, c. 1890

Voices from the Past

In 1890, Japanese leaders issued a decree to be read to every schoolchild:

“You, our subjects, be filial to your parents, affectionate to your brothers and sisters, as husbands and wives be harmonious, as friends true; bear yourselves in modesty and moderation; extend your goodness to all; pursue learning and cultivate arts, and thereby develop intellectual faculties and perfect moral powers; furthermore, advance public good and promote common interests; always respect the Constitution and observe the laws; should emergency arise, offer yourselves to the State; and thus guard and maintain the prosperity of our imperial throne.”

—*Sources of Japanese Tradition*, Ryusaku Tsunoda et al., eds., 1958

Obedience and the community were valued in Japan.

An End to Isolation

TURNING POINT In this section, you will learn how the Treaty of Kanagawa brought Japan out of isolation and started its development into an imperialist nation.

By 1800, the Tokugawa shogunate had ruled the Japanese islands for two hundred years. It had driven out foreign traders and missionaries and isolated the country from virtually all contact with the outside world. The Tokugawa maintained formal relations only with Korea. Informal trading links with Dutch and Chinese merchants continued at Nagasaki. Foreign ships, which were beginning to prowl along the Japanese coast in increasing numbers, were driven away.

To the Western powers, the continued isolation of Japanese society was a challenge. Western nations were convinced that the expansion of trade on a global

basis would benefit all nations. They now began to approach Japan in the hope of opening it up to foreign economic interests.

The first foreign power to succeed with Japan was the United States. In the summer of 1853, an American fleet of four warships under Commodore **Matthew Perry** arrived in **Edo Bay** (now Tokyo Bay). They sought, as Perry said, "to bring a singular and isolated people into the family of civilized nations."

Perry brought with him a letter from President **Millard Fillmore**. The U.S. president asked for better treatment of sailors shipwrecked on the Japanese islands. (Foreign sailors shipwrecked in Japan were treated as criminals and exhibited in public cages.) He also requested the opening of foreign relations between the United States and Japan.

About six months later, Perry, accompanied by an even larger fleet, returned to Japan for an answer. Shogunate officials had been discussing the issue. Some argued that contacts with the West would hurt Japan. Others pointed to the military superiority of the United States and recommended **concessions**, or political compromises. The question was ultimately decided by the guns of Commodore Perry's ships.

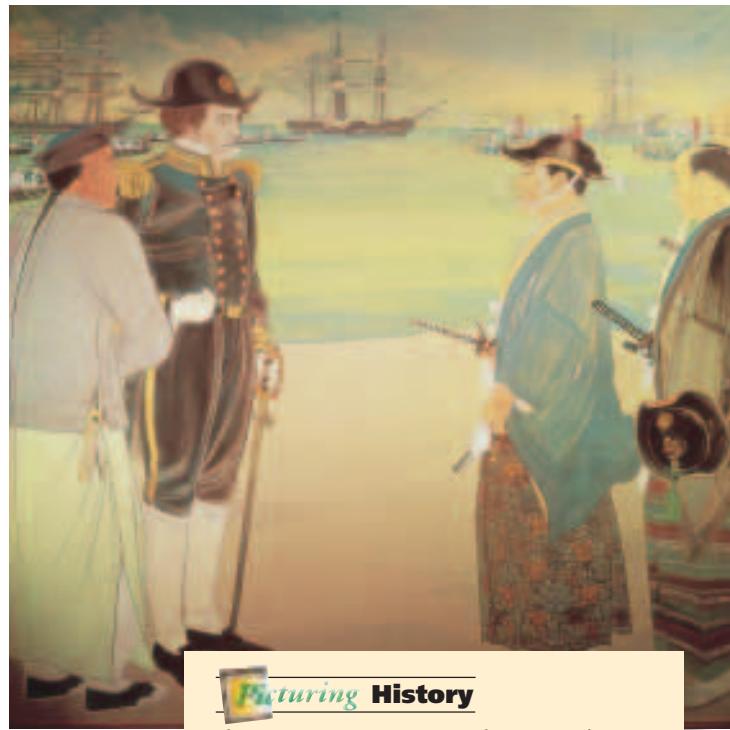
Under military pressure, Japan agreed to the Treaty of Kanagawa. This treaty between Japan and the United States provided for the return of shipwrecked American sailors, the opening of two ports to Western traders, and the establishment of a U.S. consulate in Japan.

In 1858, U.S. consul Townsend Harris signed a more detailed treaty. It called for the opening of several new ports to U.S. trade and residence, as well as an exchange of ministers. Similar treaties were soon signed by Japan and several European nations.

 **Reading Check** **Identifying** What benefits did the Treaty of Kanagawa grant the United States?

Resistance to the New Order

The decision to open relations with the Western powers was highly unpopular in parts of Japan. Resistance was especially strong among the samurai warriors in two territories in the south, Satsuma and Choshu. Both had strong military traditions, and neither had been exposed to heavy Western military pressure. In 1863, the Sat-Cho alliance (from Satsuma-Choshu) forced the shogun to promise to end relations with the West.



Picturing History

This Japanese painting records Commodore Perry's arrival in Edo Bay in July 1853. **What was the economic and political impact of Perry's visits on Japan?**

The rebellious groups soon showed their own weakness, however. When Choshu troops fired on Western ships in the Strait of Shimonoseki, which leads into the Sea of Japan, the Westerners fired back and destroyed the Choshu fortifications.

The incident convinced the rebellious forces of the need to strengthen their military. They also became more determined not to give in to the West. As a result, Sat-Cho leaders urged the shogun to take a stronger position against the foreigners.

The Sat-Cho leaders demanded that the shogun resign and restore the power of the emperor. In January 1868, their armies attacked the shogun's palace in **Kyoto** and proclaimed that the authority of the emperor had been restored. After a few weeks, the shogun's forces collapsed, ending the shogunate system.

 **Reading Check** **Identifying** What events led to the collapse of the shogunate system in Japan?

The Meiji Restoration

The Sat-Cho leaders had genuinely mistrusted the West, but they soon realized that Japan must change to survive. The new leaders embarked on a policy of reform that transformed Japan into a modern industrial nation.

The symbol of the new era was the young emperor **Mutsuhito**. He called his reign the Meiji (MAY•jee), or “Enlightened Rule.” This period has thus become known as the Meiji Restoration.

Of course, the Meiji ruler was controlled by the Sat-Cho leaders, just as earlier emperors had been controlled by the shogunate. In recognition of the real source of political power, the capital was moved from Kyoto to **Edo** (now named Tokyo), the location of the new leaders. The imperial court was moved to the shogun’s palace in the center of the city.



Emperor Mutsuhito

Transformation of Japanese Politics Once in power, the new leaders moved first to abolish the old order and to strengthen power in their hands. To undercut the power of the daimyo—the local nobles—the new leaders stripped these great lords of the titles to their lands in 1871. As compensation, the lords were given government bonds and were named governors of the territories formerly under their control. The territories were now called **prefectures**.

The Meiji reformers set out to create a modern political system based on the Western model. In 1868, the new leaders signed a Charter Oath, in which they promised to create a new legislative assembly within the framework of continued imperial rule. Although senior positions in the new government were given to the daimyo, the key posts were held by modernizing leaders from the Sat-Cho group. The country was divided into 75 prefectures. (The number was reduced to 45 in 1889 and remains at that number today.)

During the next 20 years, the Meiji government undertook a careful study of Western political systems. A commission under **Ito Hirobumi** traveled to Great Britain, France, Germany, and the United States to study their governments.

As the process evolved, two main factions appeared, the Liberals and the Progressives. The Liberals wanted political reform based on the Western liberal democratic model, with supreme authority vested in the parliament as the representative of the people. The Progressives wanted power to be shared between the legislative and executive branches, with the executive branch having more control.

During the 1870s and 1880s, these factions fought for control. In the end, the Progressives won. The

Meiji constitution, adopted in 1889, was modeled after that of Imperial Germany. Most authority was given to the executive branch.

In theory, the emperor exercised all executive authority, but in practice he was a figurehead. Real executive authority rested in the hands of a prime minister and his cabinet of ministers. These ministers were handpicked by the Meiji leaders.

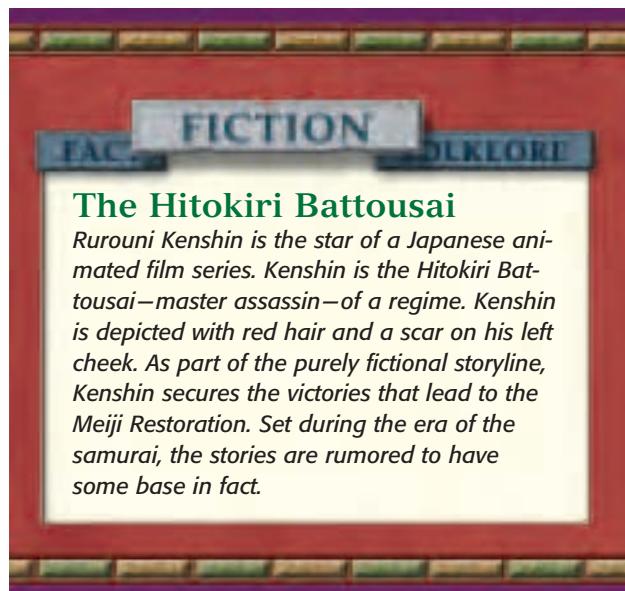
Under the new constitution, the upper house included royal appointments and elected nobles, while the lower house was elected. The two houses were to have equal legislative powers.

The final result was a political system that was democratic in form but authoritarian in practice. Although modern in external appearance, it was still traditional, because power remained in the hands of a ruling oligarchy (the Sat-Cho leaders). Although a new set of institutions and values had emerged, the system allowed the traditional ruling class to keep its influence and economic power.

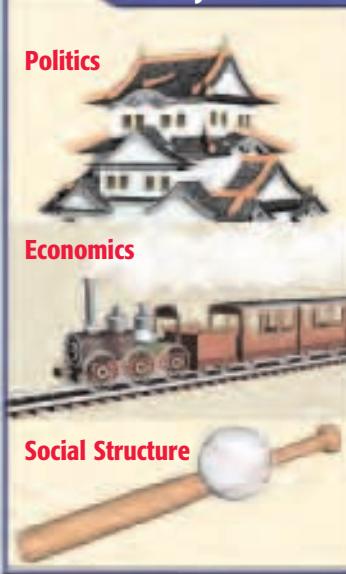
Meiji Economics The Meiji leaders also set up a new system of land ownership. A land reform program made the traditional lands of the daimyo into the private property of the peasants. The daimyo, as mentioned, were compensated with government bonds.

The Meiji leaders levied a new land tax, which was set at an annual rate of 3 percent of the estimated value of the land. The new tax was an excellent source of revenue for the government. However, it was quite burdensome for the farmers.

Under the old system, farmers had paid a fixed percentage of their harvest to the landowners. In bad



Meiji Restoration: Birth of Modern Japan



Changes and Events

- Imperial rule reestablished
- Capital moved to Edo
- Most power in executive branch (emperor, prime minister, cabinet)
- Daimyo's lands given to peasants
- Many farmers, unable to pay new land tax, forced into tenancy
- Industrialization encouraged
- New imperial army created
- Universal system of education developed
- Western practices adopted



Chart Skills

The Meiji government began reforms that transformed Japan's political, economic, and social structures.

1. Cause and Effect What changes noted on the chart most reflect the influence of Western ideas upon Japan?

2. Making Generalizations How are the changes in the three areas of politics, economics, and social structure interrelated?

harvest years, they had owed little or nothing. Under the new system, the farmers had to pay the land tax every year, regardless of the quality of the harvest.

As a result, in bad years, many peasants were unable to pay their taxes. This forced them to sell their lands to wealthy neighbors and become tenant farmers who paid rent to the new owners. By the end of the nineteenth century, about 40 percent of all farmers were tenants.

With its budget needs met by the land tax, the government turned to the promotion of industry. The chief goal of the reformers was to create a "rich country and a strong state" to guarantee Japan's survival against the challenge of Western nations.

The Meiji government gave subsidies to needy industries, provided training and foreign advisers, improved transportation and communications, and started a new educational system that stressed applied science. In contrast to China, Japan was able to achieve results with little reliance on foreign money. By 1900, Japan's industrial sector was beginning to grow. Besides tea and silk, other key industries were weapons, shipbuilding, and sake (SAH•kee), or Japanese rice wine.

From the start, a unique feature of the Meiji model of industrial development was the close relationship between government and private business. The government encouraged the development of new industries by providing businesspeople with money and

privileges. Once an individual enterprise or industry was on its feet, it was turned over entirely to private ownership. Even then, however, the government continued to play some role in the industry's activities.

Building a Modern Social Structure The Meiji reformers also transformed other institutions. A key focus of their attention was the military. The reformers were well aware that Japan would need a modern military force to compete with the Western powers. Their motto was "Strengthen the Army."

A new imperial army based on compulsory military service was formed in 1871. All Japanese men now served for three years. The new army was well equipped with modern weapons.

Education also changed. The Meiji leaders realized the need for universal education, including instruction in modern technology. A new ministry of education, established in 1871, guided the changes.

After a few years of experimentation, the education ministry adopted the American model of elementary schools, secondary schools, and universities. It brought foreign specialists to Japan to teach in the new schools. In the meantime, it sent bright students to study abroad.

Much of the content of the new educational system was Western in inspiration. However, a great deal of emphasis was still placed on the virtues of loyalty to the family and community. Loyalty to the emperor was especially valued. Both teachers and students were required to bow before a portrait of the emperor each day.

Daily Life and Women's Rights Japanese society in the late Tokugawa Era, before the Meiji reforms, could be described by two words: *community* and *hierarchy*. The lives of all Japanese people were determined by their membership in a family, village, and social class. At the same time, Japanese society was highly hierarchical. Belonging to a particular social class determined a person's occupation and social relationships with others. Women were especially limited by the "three obediences": child to father, wife to husband, and widow to son. Whereas husbands could easily obtain a divorce, wives could not. Marriages were arranged, and the average marital age of females was sixteen years. Females did not share inheritance rights with males. Few received any education outside the family.

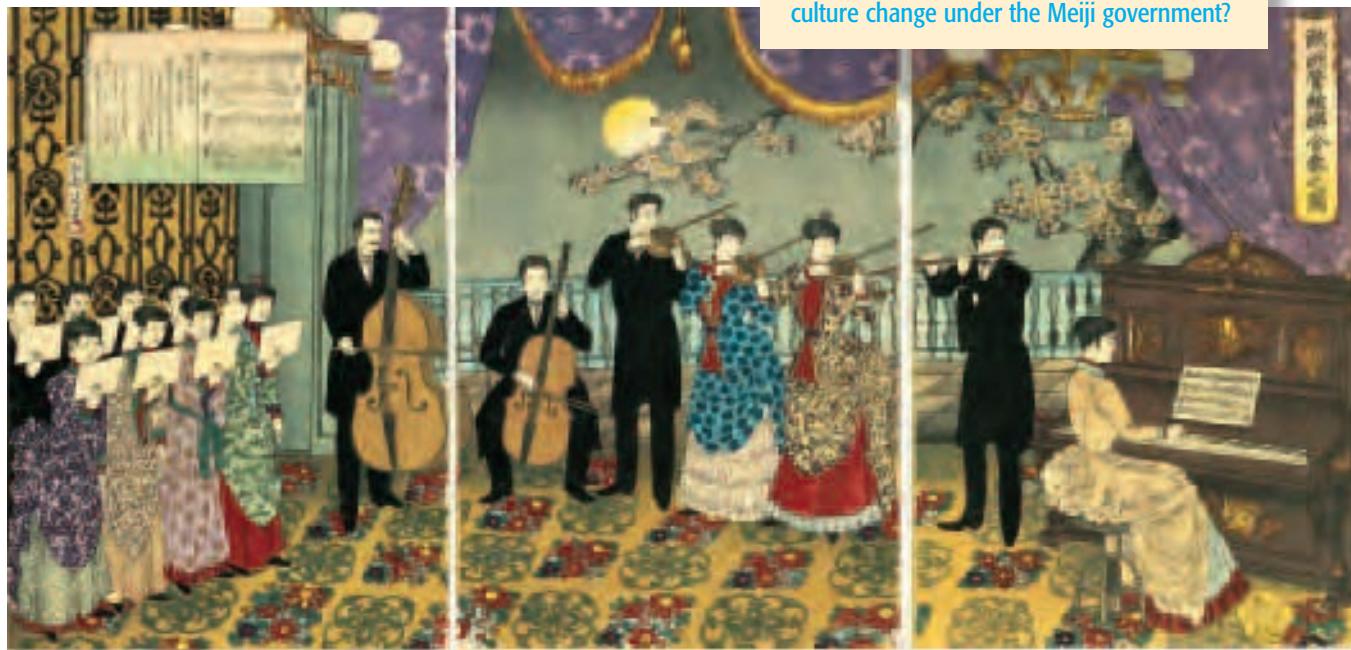
The Meiji Restoration had a marked effect on the traditional social system in Japan. Special privileges for the aristocracy were abolished. For the first time, women were allowed to seek an education. As the economy shifted from an agricultural to an industrial base, thousands of Japanese began to get new jobs and establish new social relationships.

Western fashions became the rage in elite circles. The ministers of the first Meiji government were known as the "dancing cabinet" because of their love for Western-style ballroom dancing. The game of baseball was imported from the United States.

Young people were increasingly influenced by Western culture and values. A new generation of modern boys and girls began to imitate the clothing styles, eating habits, hairstyles, and social practices of European and American young people.

The social changes brought about by the Meiji Restoration also had a less attractive side. Many commoners were ruthlessly exploited in the coal mines and textile mills. Workers labored up to 20 hours a day, often under conditions of incredible hardship. Coal miners employed on a small island in the harbor of Nagasaki worked in temperatures up to 130 degrees Fahrenheit (54 degrees C). When they tried to escape, they were shot.

Resistance to such conditions was not unknown. In many areas, villagers sought new political rights. In some cases, they demanded increased attention to human rights. A popular rights movement of the 1870s laid the groundwork for one of Japan's first political parties. It campaigned for a government that would reflect the will of the people.



Picturing History

For a recital at a music school in 1889, Japanese musicians played Western music and wore Western clothing. **In what other ways did Japanese culture change under the Meiji government?**

The transformation of Japan into a “modern society” did not detach the country entirely from its old values, however. Traditional values based on loyalty to the family and community were still taught in the new schools. Traditional values were also given a firm legal basis in the 1889 constitution, which limited the right to vote to men. The Civil Code of 1898 played down individual rights and placed women within the context of their family role.

 **Reading Check** **Explaining** How was Japan’s government structured under the Meiji constitution?

Joining the Imperialist Nations

We have seen that the Japanese modeled some of their domestic policies on Western practices. They also copied the imperialist Western approach to foreign affairs. Japan, after all, is small, lacking in resources, and densely populated. There is no natural room for expansion. To some Japanese, the lessons of history were clear. Western nations had amassed wealth and power not only because of their democratic, economic, and educational systems, but also because of their colonies. Colonies had provided the Western powers with sources of raw materials, inexpensive labor, and markets for their manufactured products. To compete, Japan would also have to expand.

Beginnings of Expansion The Japanese began their program of territorial expansion close to home. In 1874, Japan claimed control of the Ryukyu (ree•YOO•KYOO) Islands, which had long been subject to the Chinese Empire. Two years later, Japan’s navy forced the Koreans to open their ports to Japanese trade.

The Chinese had long controlled Korea and were concerned by Japan’s growing influence there. During the 1880s, Chinese-Japanese rivalry over Korea intensified. In 1894, the two nations went to war. Japanese ships destroyed the Chinese fleet and seized the Manchurian city of **Port Arthur**.

In the treaty that ended the war, the Manchu rulers of China recognized the independence of Korea. They also ceded (transferred) Taiwan and the Liaodong Peninsula, with its strategic naval base at Port Arthur, to Japan.

Shortly thereafter, the Japanese gave the Liaodong Peninsula back to China. In the early twentieth century, however, the Japanese returned to the offensive.

Rivalry with Russia over influence in Korea had led to increasingly strained relations between Japan and Russia. The Russians thought little of the Japanese and even welcomed the possibility of war. One

adviser to Nicholas II said, “We will only have to throw our caps at them and they will run away.”

War with Russia In 1904, Japan launched a surprise attack on the Russian naval base at Port Arthur, which Russia had taken from China in 1898. When Japanese forces moved into Manchuria and the Liaodong Peninsula, Russian troops proved to be no match for them. The Russian commander in chief said, “It is impossible not to admire the bravery and

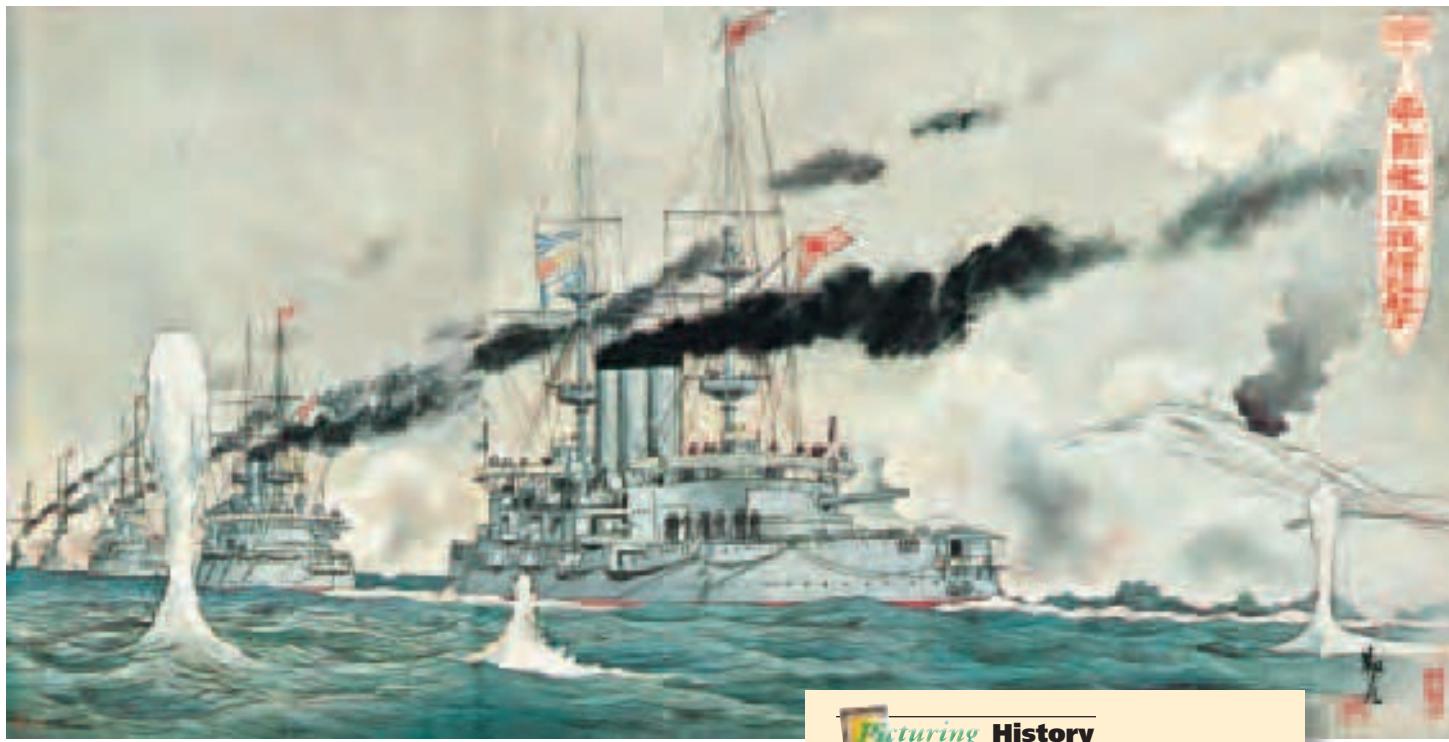


Geography Skills

In the late nineteenth century, Japan transformed itself into an imperialist nation.

1. Interpreting Maps Between 1870 and 1910, approximately how much land did Japan acquire through expansion?

2. Applying Geography Skills What geographic factors might have influenced Japan’s expansion?



activity of the Japanese. The attack of the Japanese is a continuous succession of waves, and they never relax their efforts by day or by night."

In the meantime, Russia had sent its Baltic fleet halfway around the world to East Asia, only to be defeated by the new Japanese navy off the coast of Japan. After their defeat, the Russians agreed to a humiliating peace in 1905. They gave the Liaodong Peninsula back to Japan, as well as the southern part of Sakhalin (SA•kuh•LEEN), an island north of Japan. The Japanese victory stunned the world. Japan had become one of the great powers.

U.S. Relations During the next few years, Japan consolidated its position in northeastern Asia. It established a sphere of influence in Korea. In 1905, the United States recognized Japan's role in Korea in return for Japanese recognition of American authority in the Philippines. In 1910, Japan annexed Korea outright.

Mutual suspicion between the two countries was growing, however. The Japanese resented U.S. efforts to restrict immigration. Moreover, some Americans began to fear the rise of Japanese power in East Asia. In 1907, President Theodore Roosevelt made a "gentlemen's agreement" with Japan that essentially stopped Japanese immigration to the United States.

 **Reading Check Explaining** Why did Japan turn itself into an imperialist power?

Picturing History

The Japanese surprise attack on Port Arthur in 1904 reflected the growing power of Japan and its navy. [What impact did the Japanese victory have on Russia? How did it affect relations between Japan and the United States?](#)

Culture in an Era of Transition

The wave of Western technology and ideas that entered Japan in the last half of the nineteenth century greatly altered the shape of traditional Japanese culture. Literature was especially affected. Dazzled by European literature, Japanese authors began translating and imitating the imported models.

The novel showed the greatest degree of change. People began to write novels that were patterned after the French tradition of realism. Naturalist Japanese authors tried to present existing social conditions and the realities of war as objectively as possible.

Other aspects of Japanese culture were also changed. The Japanese invited technicians, engineers, architects, and artists from Europe and the United States to teach their "modern" skills to eager Japanese students. The Japanese copied Western artistic techniques and styles. Huge buildings of steel and reinforced concrete, adorned with Greek columns, appeared in many Japanese cities.

A national reaction had begun by the end of the nineteenth century, however. Many Japanese artists



History *through Art*

The Lady Fujitsubo Watching Prince Genji Departing in the Moonlight by A. Hiroshige and U. Toyokuni, 1853

How does this print reflect the artist's interest in Japan's cultural past?

began to return to older techniques. In 1889, the Tokyo School of Fine Arts was established to promote traditional Japanese art. Japanese artists searched for a new but truly Japanese means of expression. Some artists tried to bring together native and foreign techniques. Others returned to past artistic traditions for inspiration.

Cultural exchange also went the other way. Japanese arts and crafts, porcelains, textiles, fans, folding screens, and woodblock prints became fashionable in Europe and North America. Japanese art influenced

Western painters. Japanese gardens, with their close attention to the positioning of rocks and falling water, became especially popular in the United States.

Reading Check **Describing** What effect did Japanese culture have on other nations?

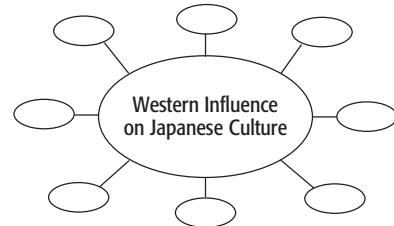
SECTION 3 ASSESSMENT

Checking for Understanding

1. **Define** concession, prefecture.
2. **Identify** Matthew Perry, Millard Fillmore, Mutsuhito, Ito Hirobumi.
3. **Locate** Edo Bay, Kyoto, Edo, Port Arthur.
4. **Explain** how the Japanese educational system promoted traditional values even as it adopted Western educational models.
5. **List** the professionals that the Japanese invited from abroad to teach "modern" skills.

Critical Thinking

6. **Explain** How did the Japanese land reform program create internal problems?
7. **Cause and Effect** Create a diagram listing the results of Western influence on Japanese culture.



Analyzing Visuals

8. **Examine** the photograph on page 700. What characteristics of modern Japan does it illustrate?

Writing About History

9. **Persuasive Writing** Pretend that you wish to study abroad in China or Japan. Write a letter of application stating which country you would like to visit and why. State what you hope to learn while abroad, and how you would overcome or minimize the drawbacks of being a foreign student.

A Letter to the Emperor

WHEN U.S. COMMODORE MATTHEW C. Perry arrived in Tokyo Bay on his first visit to Japan in July 1853, he carried a letter from Millard Fillmore, the president of the United States. This excerpt is from Fillmore's letter.

Millard Fillmore, President of the United States of America, To His Imperial Majesty, The Emperor of Japan. Great and Good Friend! . . .

I have directed Commodore Perry to assure your Imperial Majesty that I entertain the kindest feelings towards your Majesty's person and government; and that I have no other object in sending him to Japan, but to propose to your Imperial Majesty that the United States and Japan should live in friendship, and have [trade] with each other. . . . I have particularly charged Commodore Perry to abstain from any act, which could possibly disturb the peace of your Imperial Majesty's lands.

The United States of America reaches from ocean to ocean, and our territory of Oregon and state of California lie directly opposite to the dominions of your Imperial Majesty. Our steam-ships can go from California to Japan in eighteen days. Our great state of California produces about sixty millions of dollars in gold, every year, besides silver, quicksilver, precious stones, and many other valuable articles.

Japan is also a rich and fertile country, and produces many very valuable articles. . . . I am desirous that our two countries should trade with each other, for the benefit both of Japan and the United States.

We know that the ancient laws of your Imperial Majesty's government do not allow of foreign trade except with the Dutch. But as the state of the world changes, and new governments are formed, it seems to be wise from time to time to make new laws. . . . If your Imperial Majesty were so far to change the ancient laws, as to allow a free trade between the two countries, it would be extremely beneficial to both.

Millard Fillmore



Japanese officials greet Commodore Perry.

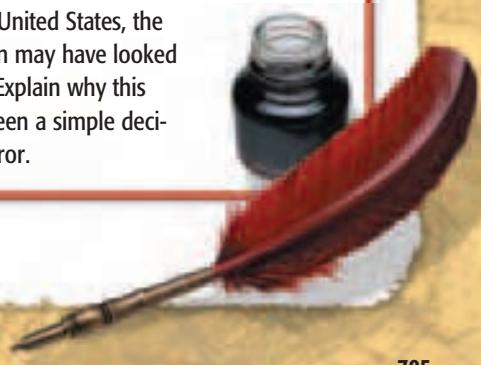
Many of our ships pass every year from California to China; and great numbers of our people pursue the whale fishery near the shores of Japan. It sometimes happens in stormy weather that one of our ships is wrecked on your Imperial Majesty's shores. In all such cases we ask and expect that our unfortunate people should be treated with kindness, and that their property should be protected, till we can send a vessel and bring them away.

Your Good Friend,
Millard Fillmore

—Letter from President Fillmore
to the Emperor of Japan

Analyzing Primary Sources

1. What did President Fillmore want from the Japanese?
2. Why can his letter be seen as a masterful combination of salesmanship, diplomacy, and firmness?
3. From the perspective of President Fillmore and others in the United States, the emperor's decision may have looked like an easy one. Explain why this would not have been a simple decision for the emperor.



CHAPTER 22 ASSESSMENT and ACTIVITIES

Using Key Terms

1. The daimyo governed _____ after the Meiji Restoration seized their lands.
2. Europeans who lived by their own laws while on Chinese soil practiced _____.
3. European traders established _____ in which they negotiated directly with Chinese warlords.
4. The presence of Commodore Perry's fleet pressured the Japanese to make _____.
5. The policy of _____ called for the Chinese people to adopt Western technology while retaining their Confucian values and institutions.
6. The Chinese government was forced to pay heavy _____ to the powers that crushed the Boxer Rebellion.
7. After 1905, Chinese legislative assemblies were formed at the _____ level.
8. When Westerners visited China in the mid-1800s, a market for _____ such as oil, copper, salt, tea, and porcelain already existed.

Reviewing Key Facts

9. **Economics** What items did the British import from China, and how did they pay for them?
10. **Government** List the terms of the Treaty of Nanjing.
11. **Culture** Explain the One Hundred Days of Reform and their outcome.

12. **Citizenship** Summarize the terms of Sun Yat-sen's reform program and tell whether or not they were implemented.
13. **Government** What was the role of the Revolutionary Alliance?
14. **Government** What opposing forces formed in China after the civil war?
15. **History** Who was the first foreign power to penetrate Japan?
16. **Economics** What were the terms of the Treaty of Kanagawa?
17. **Citizenship** Which Japanese groups opposed Japanese relations with Western powers?
18. **Government** What was the Meiji Restoration?
19. **Economics** In what three ways did Westerners affect the Chinese economy during the mid-1800s?
20. **Economics** Identify the sequence of events that led to the Opium War of 1839 to 1842.
21. **History** In chronological order, list the territories and countries Japan took control of in its program of expansion.

Critical Thinking

22. **Summarizing** Summarize the effects of imperialism on nineteenth-century China.
23. **Analyzing** How effective was Japan's territorial expansion program?
24. **Identifying Options** Instead of importing opium to China, what else might the British have done to restore the balance of trade?

Chapter Summary

Imperialist powers advanced into China and Japan in the nineteenth century. China's government fell, but Japan's modernized and endured.

Movement

- British secure trade outlets at five coastal ports in China.
- Commodore Perry sails into Edo Bay.
- Japan invades Port Arthur, Manchuria.

Change

- Japan's Tokugawa shogunate and China's Qing dynasty collapse.
- Meiji reformers institute compulsory military service in Japan.
- United States initiates Open Door policy in China.

Reaction

- Tai Ping Rebellion breaks out in China.
- Sat-Cho leaders demand the resignation of Japan's shogun.
- Boxer Rebellion occurs in China.

Nationalism

- Meiji government reforms Japan.
- Japan adopts the Meiji constitution.
- Sun Yat-sen establishes the Republic of China.



Self-Check Quiz

Visit the *Glencoe World History* Web site at wh.glencoe.com and click on **Chapter 22—Self-Check Quiz** to prepare for the Chapter Test.

Writing About History

25. Persuasive Writing Imagine you are a court official living in China during the reign of Emperor Guang Xu. The emperor is planning his reform program and needs advice concerning how to help strengthen China. Write a letter to the emperor telling him how you think China should either change or stay the same. Choose two or three specific issues such as the educational system, the development of the military, or the structure of the government to discuss in your letter.

Analyzing Sources

Zhang Zhidong, a leading Chinese court official, argued:

“The doctrine of people’s rights will bring us not a single benefit but a hundred evils. Are we going to establish a parliament? Among the Chinese scholars and people there are still many today who are content to be vulgar and rustic. They are ignorant of the general situation in the world, they do not understand the basic system of the state.”

26. Does Zhang Zhidong think that the Chinese people are well informed?
27. How does Zhang Zhidong’s quote apply to China today?

Applying Technology Skills

28. Using the Internet Use the Internet to research the causes of revolution in the world. Research specific examples, such as the American, French, and Russian Revolutions, to determine why they occurred. Compare the causes of these revolutions to those of the 1911 revolution in China.

Making Decisions

29. To build a “rich country and a strong state,” the Japanese government subsidized (provided funds for) its industries. Evaluate the reasons for Japan’s decision. The potential need for subsidy is not unique to Japan. Imagine that you are the president of a newly colonized island. Write a brief essay explaining how you would promote the growth of industry on your island.

Analyzing Maps and Charts

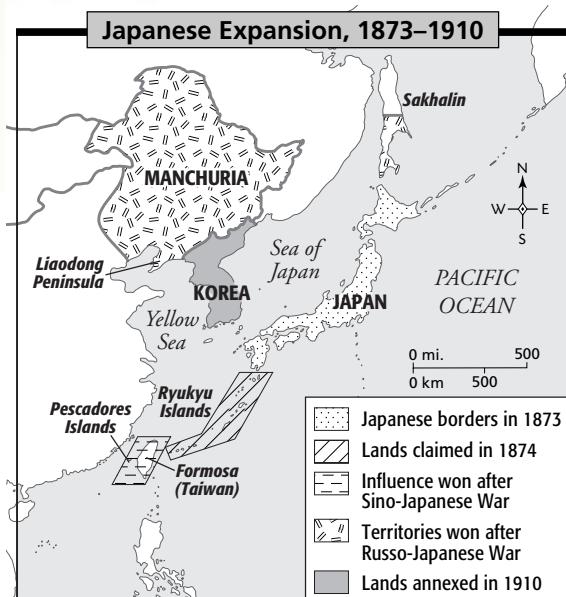
Examine the chart of the Meiji Restoration shown on page 700 of your text. Then answer the following questions.

- What impact did the Meiji Restoration have on the social structure of Japan?
- How do you think the daimyo felt about the Meiji Restoration?
- What effect did the Meiji Restoration have on industry?



Standardized Test Practice

Directions: Use the map *and* your knowledge of world history to answer the following question.



Which of the following resulted from Japanese expansion?

F Japan was humiliated by its losses.
G Japan became an important military force.
H Russia and Japan competed for control of China.
J China’s government was strengthened and reformed.

Test-Taking Tip: Any time you get a map, pay careful attention to the title and to the map legend. The legend gives information crucial to understanding the map. The information in the legend may also help you eliminate answer choices that are incorrect.

WORLD LITERATURE

from Shooting an Elephant

George Orwell



George Orwell was the pen name of English author Eric Arthur Blair, who was born in Motihari, India, on June 25, 1903. He lived for 46 years, and during that time, he wrote many influential essays, novels, and newspaper articles. His two most famous works are *1984* and *Animal Farm*, both of which are commentaries against totalitarianism. He served for several years as an assistant superintendent in the Indian Imperial Police but resigned due to his distaste of imperialism. In *Shooting an Elephant*, Orwell describes an incident that happened to him, and he satirizes the problems of colonial rule.

Read to Discover

Examine the ways in which George Orwell describes the relationship between the British colonial officer and the “natives.” Can you think of a modern parallel to this situation?

Reader’s Dictionary

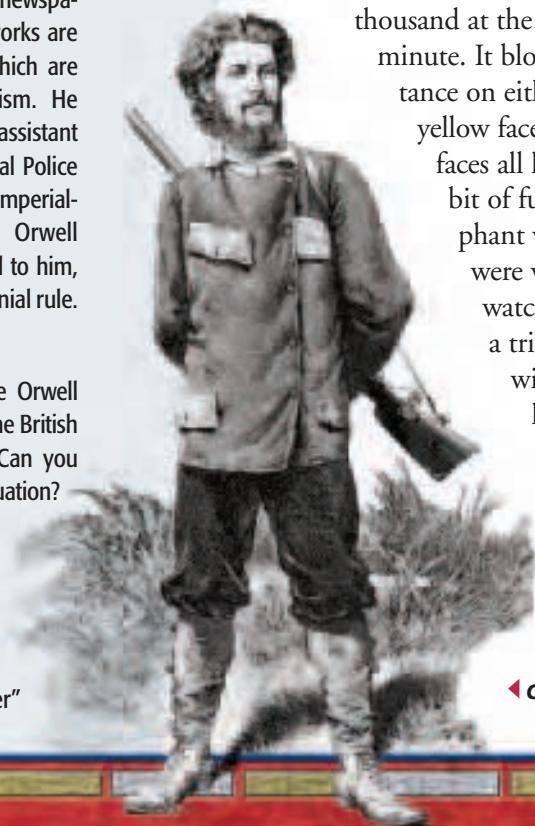
mahout: a keeper and driver of an elephant

dominion: rule, control

sahib: title meaning “sir” or “master”

I had halted on the road. As soon as I saw the elephant I knew with perfect certainty that I ought not to shoot him. It is a serious matter to shoot a working elephant—it is comparable to destroying a huge and costly piece of machinery—and obviously one ought not to do it if it can possibly be avoided. And at that distance, peacefully eating, the elephant looked no more dangerous than a cow. I thought then and I think now that his attack of “must” was already passing off; in which case he would merely wander harmlessly about until the mahout came back and caught him. Moreover, I did not in the least want to shoot him. I decided that I would watch him for a little while to make sure that he did not turn savage again, and then go home.

But at that moment I glanced round at the crowd that had followed me. It was an immense crowd, two thousand at the least and growing every minute. It blocked the road for a long distance on either side. I looked at the sea of yellow faces above the garish clothes—faces all happy and excited over this bit of fun, all certain that the elephant was going to be shot. They were watching me as they would watch a conjurer about to perform a trick. They did not like me, but with the magical rifle in my hands I was momentarily worth watching. And suddenly I realized that I should have to shoot the elephant after all. The people expected it



◀ Colonial hunter



▲ *Working elephants, 1890s*

of me and I had got to do it; I could feel their two thousand wills pressing me forward irresistibly. And it was at this moment, as I stood there with the rifle in my hands, that I first grasped the hollowness, the futility of the white man's dominion in the East. Here was I, the white man with his gun, standing in front of the unarmed native crowd—seemingly the leading actor of the piece; but in reality I was only an absurd puppet pushed to and fro by the will of those yellow faces behind. I perceived in this moment that when the white man turns tyrant it is his own freedom that he destroys. He becomes a sort of hollow, posing dummy, the conventionalized figure of a sahib. For it is the condition of his rule that he shall spend his life in trying to impress the "natives," and so in every crisis he has got to do what the "natives" expect of him. He wears a mask, and his face grows to fit it. I had got to shoot the elephant. I had committed myself to doing it when I sent for the rifle. A sahib has got to act like a sahib; he has got to appear resolute, to know his own mind and do definite things. To come all that way, rifle in hand, with two thousand people marching at my heels, and then to trail feebly away, having done nothing—no, that was impossible. The crowd would laugh at me. And my whole life,

every white man's life in the East, was one long struggle not to be laughed at.

... But I did not want to shoot the elephant. ... The sole thought in my mind was that if anything went wrong those two thousand Burmese would see me ... trampled on, and reduced to a grinning corpse. And if that happened it was quite probable that some of them would laugh. That would never do.

Interpreting World Literature

1. What is the context of this story? Why is the narrator following an elephant?
2. Why does the narrator ultimately decide that he must shoot the elephant?
3. What does this story reveal about Orwell's attitudes about imperialism? How can you tell?
4. **CRITICAL THINKING** According to Orwell in this piece, who held the power in colonial India?

Applications Activity

Write a narrative account of an incident when you felt people were pushing you to act in opposition to your original intentions.

UNIT 5

The Twentieth-Century Crisis

1914–1945

The Period in Perspective

The period between 1914 and 1945 was one of the most destructive in the history of humankind. As many as 60 million people died as a result of World Wars I and II, the global conflicts that began and ended this era. As World War I was followed by revolutions, the Great Depression, totalitarian regimes, and the horrors of World War II, it appeared to many that European civilization had become a nightmare. By 1945, the era of European domination over world affairs had been severely shaken. With the decline of Western power, a new era of world history was about to begin.

Primary Sources Library

See pages 998–999 for primary source readings to accompany Unit 5.

Use The World History **Primary Source Document Library CD-ROM** to find additional primary sources about The Twentieth-Century Crisis.



▲ Gate, Dachau Memorial

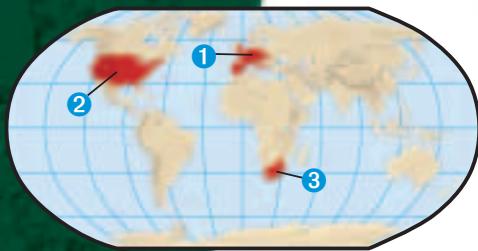
► Former Russian prisoners of war honor the American troops who freed them.



“Never in the field of human conflict was so much owed by so many to so few.”

—Winston Churchill





International Peacekeeping

Until the 1900s, with the exception of the Seven Years' War, never in history had there been a conflict that literally spanned the globe. The twentieth century witnessed two world wars and numerous regional conflicts. As the scope of war grew, so did international commitment to collective security, where a group of nations join together to promote peace and protect human life.



① Europe

The League of Nations

At the end of World War I, the victorious nations set up a “general association of nations” called the League of Nations, which would settle international disputes and avoid war. By 1920, 42 nations had sent delegates to the League’s headquarters in Geneva, Switzerland, and they were eventually joined by another 21.

The United States never joined. Opponents in the U.S. Senate argued that membership in the League went against George Washington’s advice to avoid “entangling alliances.” When the League failed to halt warlike acts in the 1930s, the same opponents pointed to the failure of collective security.

The League of Nations was seen as a peacekeeper without a sword—it possessed neither a standing army nor members willing to stop nations that used war as diplomacy.



The League of Nations and Uncle Sam

to See Ahead



UN membership flags

2 The United States

The United Nations

After World War II, the United States hosted a meeting to create a new peace-keeping organization. Delegates from 50 nations hammered out the Charter of the United Nations. To eliminate the root causes of war, the UN created agencies that promoted global education and the well-being of children. In 1948, United States delegate Eleanor Roosevelt convinced the UN to adopt the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, which committed the UN to eliminate oppression. The headquarters for the UN are located in New York City.



3 South Africa

The Power of World Opinion

By 1995, the UN had taken part in 35 peacekeeping missions—some successful, some not. It also had provided protection for over 30 million refugees.

The UN used world opinion to promote justice. In 1977, it urged nations to enforce economic sanctions and an arms embargo against South Africa until apartheid was lifted. In 1994, South Africa held its first all-race elections. Many believed this was a major triumph for collective international action.



Casting a vote in South Africa

Why It Matters

The UN hopes to use collective international actions to promote peace around the world. Often this involves preventing injustice and improving living conditions. **What are some recent UN actions that support these principles?**

CHAPTER 23

War and Revolution

1914–1919

Key Events

As you read this chapter, look for the key events of World War I, the Russian Revolution, and the Paris Peace Conference.

- Archduke Francis Ferdinand was assassinated by a Serbian nationalist.
- Militarism, nationalism, and alliances drew nations into war.
- The United States's entry into the war helped the Allies.
- The impact of the war at home led to an increase in the federal government's powers and changed the status of women.
- The Russian Revolution ended with the Communists in power.
- Peace settlements caused lingering resentment.
- The League of Nations was formed.

The Impact Today

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

- World War I led to the disintegration of empires and the creation of new states.
- Communism became a factor in global conflict as other nations turned to its ideology.
- The Balkans continue to be an area of political unrest.



World History Video The Chapter 23 video, "Modern Warfare," chronicles innovations in warfare during the twentieth century.

1914

Assassination of
Archduke Ferdinand
sparks World War I

1914



German U-boat

1915

German
submarine
sinks the
Lusitania

1916



Battle of the Somme by Richard Woodville The Battle of the Somme was one of the bloodiest battles of World War I.

Bolsheviks in Russia

1917
Russian
Revolution
begins



1917

1917
United States
enters the war

1918

1918
Germany
agrees to
truce

1919
Allies sign
Treaty of
Versailles

1919



*People celebrating
the end of the war*

HISTORY Online

Chapter Overview

Visit the *Glencoe World History* Web site at wh.glencoe.com and click on **Chapter 23—Chapter Overview** to preview chapter information.

CLICK HERE



*Advancing troops
in the Battle
of the Somme*



British artillery firing on the Germans at the Battle of the Somme

The Battle of the Somme

On July 1, 1916, British and French infantry forces attacked German defensive lines along a front about 25 miles (40 km) long near the Somme River in France. Each soldier carried almost 70 (32 kg) pounds of equipment, including a rifle, ammunition, grenades, a shovel, a mess kit, and a full water bottle. This burden made it "impossible to move much quicker than a slow walk."

German machine guns soon opened fire. "We were able to see our comrades move forward in an attempt to cross No-Man's-Land, only to be mown down like meadow grass," recalled one British soldier. Another wrote later, "I felt sick at the sight of this carnage and remember weeping."

Philip Gibbs, an English journalist with the troops, reported on what he found in the German trenches that the British forces overran: "Victory! . . . Groups of dead lay in ditches which had once been trenches, flung into chaos by that bombardment I had seen. . . . Some of the German dead were young boys, too young to be killed for old men's crimes, and others might have been old or young. One could not tell because they had no faces, and were just masses of raw flesh in rags of uniforms. Legs and arms lay separate without any bodies thereabouts."

In the first day of the Battle of the Somme, about 21,000 British soldiers died. After four months of fighting, the British had advanced five miles (eight km). About one million Allied and German soldiers lay dead or wounded.

Why It Matters

World War I (1914–1918) devastated the economic, social, and political order of Europe. People at the time, overwhelmed by the size of the war's battles and the number of casualties, simply called it the Great War. The war was all the more disturbing to Europeans because it came after a period that many believed to have been an age of progress. World War I and the revolutions it spawned can properly be seen as the first stage in the crisis of the twentieth century.

History and You Look online or in the library for a speech delivered by Woodrow Wilson or another leader, explaining the reasons for entering the war. Analyze the arguments. How might someone opposed to the war counter those arguments?

SECTION 1

The Road to World War I

Guide to Reading

Main Ideas

- Militarism, nationalism, and a crisis in the Balkans led to World War I.
- Serbia's determination to become a large, independent state angered Austria-Hungary and initiated hostilities.

Key Terms

conscription, mobilization

Preview of Events

◆ 1860

◆ 1870

◆ 1880

◆ 1890

◆ 1900

◆ 1910

◆ 1920

1882

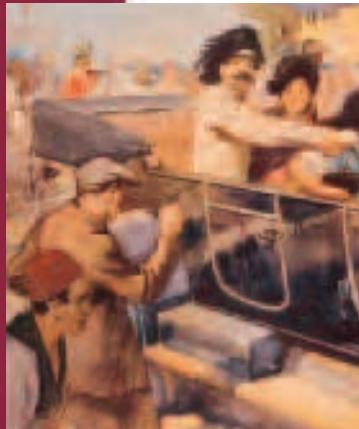
Triple Alliance forms

1907

Triple Entente forms

1914

World War I begins



Assassination at Sarajevo

People to Identify

Archduke Francis Ferdinand, Gavrilo Princip, Emperor William II, Czar Nicholas II, General Alfred von Schlieffen

Places to Locate

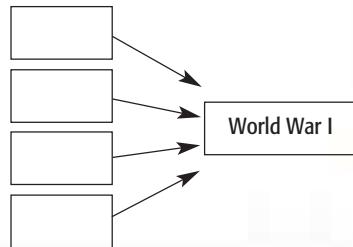
Serbia, Bosnia

Preview Questions

- How did the assassination of Archduke Francis Ferdinand lead to World War I?
- How did the system of alliances help cause the war?

Reading Strategy

Cause and Effect Use a diagram like the one below to identify the factors that led to World War I.



Voices from the Past

On June 28, 1914, the heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne, Archduke Francis Ferdinand, was assassinated in the Bosnian city of Sarajevo. One of the conspirators described the scene:

As the car came abreast, [the assassin] stepped forward from the curb, drew his automatic pistol from his coat and fired two shots. The first struck the wife of the Archduke, the Archduchess Sophia, in the abdomen. She was an expectant mother. She died instantly. The second bullet struck the Archduke close to the heart. He uttered only one word: 'Sophia'—a call to his stricken wife. Then his head fell back and he collapsed. He died almost instantly.

—*Eyewitness to History*, John Carey, ed., 1987

This event was the immediate cause of World War I, but underlying forces had been moving Europeans toward war for some time.

Nationalism and the System of Alliances

In the first half of the nineteenth century, liberals believed that if European states were organized along national lines, these states would work together and create a peaceful Europe. They were wrong.

The system of nation-states that emerged in Europe in the last half of the nineteenth century led not to cooperation but to competition. Rivalries over colonies

Alliances in Europe, 1914



Geography Skills

The alliance system was one of the major causes of World War I.

1. Interpreting Maps

What geographic factor made it unlikely that World War I battles would be fought in Great Britain?

2. Applying Geography Skills

Create a three-column chart with the headings Triple Entente, Triple Alliance, and Other. Place all the countries labeled on the map in the proper column.



and trade grew during an age of frenzied nationalism and imperialist expansion.

At the same time, Europe's great powers had been divided into two loose alliances. Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy formed the **Triple Alliance** in 1882. France, Great Britain, and Russia created the **Triple Entente** in 1907.

In the early years of the twentieth century, a series of crises tested these alliances. Especially troublesome were the crises in the Balkans between 1908 and 1913. These events left European states angry at each other and eager for revenge. Each state was guided by its own self-interest and success. They were willing to use war as a way to preserve the power of their national states.

The growth of nationalism in the nineteenth century had yet another serious result. Not all ethnic groups had become nations. Slavic minorities in the Balkans and the Hapsburg Empire, for example, still dreamed of creating their own national states. The Irish in the British Empire and the Poles in the Russian Empire had similar dreams.

 **Reading Check** **Identifying** Did the growth of nationalism in the first half of the nineteenth century lead to increased competition or increased cooperation among European nations?

Internal Dissent

National desires were not the only source of internal strife at the beginning of the twentieth century. Socialist labor movements also had grown more powerful. The Socialists were increasingly inclined to use strikes, even violent ones, to achieve their goals.

Some conservative leaders, alarmed at the increase in labor strife and class division, feared that European nations were on the verge of revolution. In the view of some historians, the desire to suppress internal disorder may have encouraged various leaders to take the plunge into war in 1914.

 **Reading Check** **Explaining** According to some historians, how might internal disorder have been one of the causes of World War I?

Militarism

The growth of mass armies after 1900 heightened the existing tensions in Europe. The large size of these armies also made it obvious that if war did come, it would be highly destructive.

Conscription, a military draft, had been established as a regular practice in most Western countries before 1914. (The United States and Britain were

exceptions.) European armies doubled in size between 1890 and 1914.

With its 1.3 million men, the Russian army had grown to be the largest. The French and German armies were not far behind, with 900,000 each. The British, Italian, and Austro-Hungarian armies numbered between 250,000 and 500,000 soldiers each.

Militarism—aggressive preparation for war—was growing. As armies grew, so too did the influence of military leaders. They drew up vast and complex plans for quickly mobilizing millions of men and enormous quantities of supplies in the event of war.

Military leaders feared that any changes in these plans would cause chaos in the armed forces. Thus, they insisted that their plans could not be altered. In the 1914 crises, this left European political leaders with little leeway. They were forced to make decisions for military instead of political reasons.

 **Reading Check** **Examining** What was the effect of conscription on events leading up to World War I?

The Outbreak of War: Summer 1914

Militarism, nationalism, and the desire to stifle internal dissent may all have played a role in the starting of World War I. However, it was the decisions made by European leaders in response to another crisis in the Balkans in the summer of 1914 that led directly to the conflict.

The Serbian Problem As we have seen, states in southeastern Europe had struggled for many years to free themselves of Ottoman rule. Furthermore, the rivalry between Austria-Hungary and Russia for domination of these new states created serious tensions in the region.

By 1914, **Serbia**, supported by Russia, was determined to create a large, independent Slavic state in the Balkans. Austria-Hungary, which had its own Slavic minorities to contend with, was equally determined to prevent that from happening.

Many Europeans saw the potential danger in this explosive situation. The British ambassador to Vienna anticipated war in 1913:

“Serbia will some day set Europe by the ears, and bring about a universal war on the Continent. . . . I cannot tell you how exasperated people are getting here at the continual worry which that little country causes to Austria under encouragement from Russia. . . . It will be lucky if Europe succeeds in avoiding war as a result of the present crisis.”

It was against this backdrop of mutual distrust and hatred that the events of the summer of 1914 were played out.

Assassination in Sarajevo On June 28, 1914, **Archduke Francis Ferdinand**, the heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary, and his wife Sophia, visited the Bosnian city of Sarajevo (SAR•uh•YAY•VOH). A group of conspirators waited there in the streets. The conspirators were members of the Black Hand, a Serbian terrorist organization that wanted **Bosnia** to be free of Austria-Hungary and to become part of a large Serbian kingdom.

The conspirators planned to kill the archduke, along with his wife. That morning, one of the conspirators threw a bomb at the archduke's car, but it glanced off and exploded against the car behind him. Later in the day, however, **Gavrilo Princip**, a 19-year-old Bosnian Serb, succeeded in shooting both the archduke and his wife.

Austria-Hungary Responds The Austro-Hungarian government did not know whether or not the Serbian government had been directly involved in the archduke's assassination, but it did not care. It saw an opportunity to “render Serbia innocuous [harmless] once and for all by a display of force,” as the Austrian foreign minister put it.

Austrian leaders wanted to attack Serbia but feared Russian intervention on Serbia's behalf, so they sought the backing of their German allies. **Emperor William II** of Germany and his chancellor responded with a “blank check,” saying that Austria-

*Till the world
comes to an
end the
ultimate
decision will
rest with the
sword.*

— Emperor William II
of Germany



Hungary could rely on Germany's "full support," even if "matters went to the length of a war between Austria-Hungary and Russia."

Strengthened by German support, Austrian leaders sent an ultimatum to Serbia on July 23. In it, they made such extreme demands that Serbia had little choice but to reject some of them in order to preserve its sovereignty. On July 28, Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia.

Russia Mobilizes Russia was determined to support Serbia's cause. On July 28, Czar Nicholas II ordered partial mobilization of the Russian army against Austria-Hungary. **Mobilization** is the process of assembling troops and supplies and making them ready for war. In 1914, mobilization was considered an act of war.

Leaders of the Russian army informed the czar that they could not partially mobilize. Their mobilization plans were based on a war against both Germany and Austria-Hungary. Mobilizing against only Austria-Hungary, they claimed, would create chaos in the army. Based on this claim, the czar ordered full mobilization of the Russian army on July 29, knowing that Germany would consider this order an act of war.

The Conflict Broadens Indeed, Germany reacted quickly. The German government warned Russia that it must halt its mobilization within 12 hours. When Russia ignored this warning, Germany declared war on Russia on August 1.

Like the Russians, the Germans had a military plan. It had been drawn up under the guidance of **General Alfred von Schlieffen** (SHLEE•fuhn), so was known as the Schlieffen Plan. The plan called for a two-front war with France and Russia, who had formed a military alliance in 1894.

According to the Schlieffen Plan, Germany would conduct a small holding action against Russia while most of the German army would carry out a rapid invasion of France. This meant invading France by moving quickly along the level coastal area through Belgium. After France was defeated, the German invaders would move to the east against Russia.

Under the Schlieffen Plan, Germany could not mobilize its troops solely against Russia. Therefore, it declared war on France on August 3. About the same time, it issued an ultimatum to Belgium demanding the right of German troops to pass through Belgian territory. Belgium, however, was a neutral nation.

On August 4, Great Britain declared war on Germany, officially for violating Belgian neutrality. In fact, Britain, which was allied with the countries of France and Russia, was concerned about maintaining its own world power. As one British diplomat put it, if Germany and Austria-Hungary won the war, "what would be the position of a friendless England?" By August 4, all the great powers of Europe were at war.

 **Reading Check** **Evaluating** What was the Schlieffen Plan and how did it complicate the events leading to World War I?

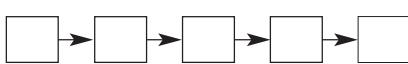
SECTION | ASSESSMENT

Checking for Understanding

1. **Define** conscription, mobilization.
2. **Identify** Triple Alliance, Triple Entente, Archduke Francis Ferdinand, Gavrilo Princip, Emperor William II, Czar Nicholas II, General Alfred von Schlieffen.
3. **Locate** Serbia, Bosnia.
4. **Explain** why Great Britain became involved in the war.
5. **List** the ethnic groups that were left without nations after the nationalist movements of the nineteenth century.

Critical Thinking

6. **Analyze** How did the creation of military plans help draw the nations of Europe into World War I? In your opinion, what should today's national and military leaders have learned from the military plans that helped initiate World War I? Explain your answer.
7. **Sequencing Information** Using a diagram like the one below, identify the series of decisions made by European leaders in 1914 that led directly to the outbreak of war.



Analyzing Visuals

8. **Examine** the painting of Emperor William II of Germany shown on page 719 of your text. How does this portrait of the emperor reflect the nature of leadership before World War I?

Writing About History

9. **Expository Writing** Some historians believe that the desire to suppress internal disorder may have encouraged leaders to take the plunge into war. As an adviser, write a memo to your country's leader explaining how a war might be advantageous with regard to domestic policy.

SECTION 2

The War

Guide to Reading

Main Ideas

- The stalemate at the Western Front led to new alliances, a widening of the war, and new weapons.
- Governments expanded their powers, increased opportunities for women, and made use of propaganda.

Key Terms

propaganda, trench warfare, war of attrition, total war, planned economies

Preview of Events

◆ 1914 ◆ 1915

1915
Lusitania sunk by
German forces

◆ 1916

1916
Battle of Verdun

◆ 1917

1917
United States
enters the war

◆ 1918

◆ 1919

People to Identify

Lawrence of Arabia, Admiral Holtzen-dorff, Woodrow Wilson

Places to Locate

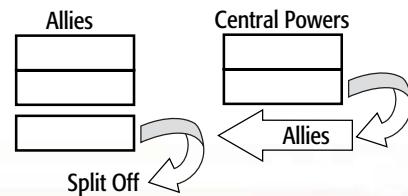
Marne, Tannenberg, Masurian Lakes, Verdun, Gallipoli

Preview Questions

- How did trench warfare lead to a stalemate?
- Why did the United States enter the war?

Reading Strategy

Organizing Information Identify which countries belonged to the Allies and the Central Powers. What country changed allegiance? What country withdrew from the war?



Troops going to war

Voices from the Past

Stefan Zweig, an Austrian writer, described the excitement Austrians felt going to war in 1914:

What did the people know of war in 1914, after nearly half a century of peace? They did not know war; they had hardly given it a thought. They still saw it in the perspective of their school readers and of paintings in museums; brilliant cavalry attacks in glittering uniforms, the fatal shot always straight through the heart, the entire campaign a resounding march of victory—'We'll be home at Christmas,' the recruits shouted laughingly to their mothers in August of 1914. . . . The young people were honestly afraid that they might miss this most wonderful and exciting experience of their lives; . . . that is why they shouted and sang in the trains that carried them to the slaughter.

—*The World of Yesterday*, Helmut Ripperger and B. W. Buebsch, trans., 1943

Europeans went to war in 1914 with remarkable enthusiasm.

1914 to 1915: Illusions and Stalemate

Before 1914, many political leaders had thought that war involved so many political and economic risks that it would not be worth fighting. Others had believed that diplomats could easily control any situation and prevent war. At the beginning of August 1914, both ideas were shattered. However, the new illusions that replaced them soon proved to be equally foolish.

Government **propaganda**—ideas spread to influence public opinion for or against a cause—had worked in stirring up national hatreds before the war. Now, in August 1914, the urgent pleas of European governments for defense against

aggressors fell on receptive ears in every nation at war. Most people seemed genuinely convinced that their nation's cause was just.

A new set of illusions also fed the enthusiasm for war. In August 1914, almost everyone believed that the war would be over in a few weeks. People were reminded that almost all European wars since 1815 had, in fact, ended in a matter of weeks. Both the soldiers who boarded the trains for the war front in August 1914, and the jubilant citizens who showered them with flowers as they left, believed that the warriors would be home by Christmas.

The Western Front German hopes for a quick end to the war rested on a military gamble. The Schlieffen Plan had called for the German army to make a vast encircling movement through Belgium into northern France. According to the plan, the German forces would sweep around Paris. This would enable them to surround most of the French army.

The German advance was halted a short distance from Paris at the First Battle of the Marne (September

6–10). To stop the Germans, French military leaders loaded two thousand Parisian taxicabs with fresh troops and sent them to the front line.

The war quickly turned into a stalemate, as neither the Germans nor the French could dislodge each other from the trenches they had dug for shelter. These trenches were ditches protected by barbed wire. Two lines of trenches soon reached from the English Channel to the frontiers of Switzerland. The Western Front had become bogged down in **trench warfare** that kept both sides in virtually the same positions for four years.

The Eastern Front In contrast to the Western Front, the war on the Eastern Front was marked by mobility. The cost in lives, however, was equally enormous.

At the beginning of the war, the Russian army moved into eastern Germany but was decisively defeated at the Battle of Tannenberg on August 30 and the Battle of **Masurian Lakes** on September 15. As a result of these defeats, the Russians were no longer a threat to German territory.

THE WAY IT WAS

FOCUS ON EVERYDAY LIFE

Trench Warfare

Warfare in the trenches of the Western Front produced unimaginable horrors. Battlefields were hellish landscapes of barbed wire, shell holes, mud, and injured and dying men. The introduction of poison gas in 1915 produced new forms of injuries. One British writer described them: “I wish those people who write so glibly about this being a holy war could see a case of mustard gas . . . could see the poor things burnt and blistered all over with great mustard-coloured suppurating [pus-forming] blisters with blind eyes all sticky . . . and stuck together, and always fighting for breath, with voices a mere whisper,

saying that their throats are closing and they know they will choke.”

Soldiers in the trenches also lived with the persistent presence of death. Because combat went on for months, soldiers had to carry on in the midst of countless bodies of dead men or the remains of men blown apart by artillery barrages. Many soldiers remembered the stench of decomposing bodies and the swarms of rats that grew fat in the trenches.

Daily life in the trenches was predictable. Thirty minutes before sunrise, troops had to “stand to,” or be combat-ready to repel any attack. If no attack came that day,



British gas mask and pack

Austria-Hungary, Germany's ally, fared less well at first. The Austrians had been defeated by the Russians in Galicia and thrown out of Serbia as well. To make matters worse, the Italians betrayed their German and Austrian allies in the Triple Alliance by attacking Austria in May 1915. Italy thus joined France, Great Britain, and Russia, who had formed the Triple Entente, but now were called the Allied Powers, or Allies.

By this time, the Germans had come to the aid of the Austrians. A German-Austrian army defeated the Russian army in Galicia and pushed the Russians far back into their own territory. Russian casualties stood at 2.5 million killed, captured, or wounded. The Russians had almost been knocked out of the war.

Buoyed by their success, Germany and Austria-Hungary, joined by Bulgaria in September 1915, attacked and eliminated Serbia from the war. Their successes in the east would enable the Germans to move back to the offensive in the west.

 **Reading Check** **Contrasting** How did the war on the Eastern Front differ from the war on the Western Front?

the day's routine consisted of breakfast followed by inspection, sentry duty, work on the trenches, care of personal items, and attempts to pass the time. Soldiers often recalled the boredom of life in the dreary, lice-ridden, and muddy or dusty trenches.

At many places along the opposing lines of trenches, a "live and let live" system evolved. It was based on the realization that neither side was going to drive out the other. The "live and let live" system resulted in such arrangements as not shelling the latrines and not attacking during breakfast.

On both sides, troops produced their own humor magazines to help pass the time and fulfill the need to laugh in the midst of their daily madness. The British trench magazine, the *B. E. F. Times*, devoted one of its issues to defining military terms, including "DUDS—These are of two kinds. A shell on impact failing to explode is called a dud. They are unhappily not as plentiful as the other kind, which often draws a big salary and explodes for no reason."

1916 to 1917: The Great Slaughter

On the Western Front, the trenches dug in 1914 had by 1916 become elaborate systems of defense. The lines of trenches for both sides were protected by barbed wire entanglements up to 5 feet (about 1.5 m) high and 30 yards (about 27 m) wide, concrete machine-gun nests, and other gun batteries, supported further back by heavy artillery. Troops lived in holes in the ground, separated from each other by a strip of territory known as no-man's-land.

Tactics of Trench Warfare The unexpected development of trench warfare baffled military leaders. They had been trained to fight wars of movement and maneuver. The only plan generals could devise was to attempt a breakthrough by throwing masses of men against enemy lines that had first been battered by artillery. Once the decisive breakthrough had been achieved, they thought, they could return to the war of movement that they knew best.

At times, the high command on either side would order an offensive that would begin with an artillery



British soldiers in the trenches

CONNECTING TO THE PAST

- 1. Explain** What was the rationale behind the "live and let live" system?
- 2. Writing about History** Write several journal entries as if you were a soldier in the trenches.

barrage to flatten the enemy's barbed wire and leave the enemy in a state of shock. After "softening up" the enemy in this fashion, a mass of soldiers would climb out of their trenches with fixed bayonets and hope to work their way toward the enemy trenches.

The attacks rarely worked because men advancing unprotected across open fields could be fired at by the enemy's machine guns. In 1916 and 1917, millions of young men died in the search for the elusive breakthrough. In 10 months at **Verdun**, France, in 1916, seven hundred thousand men lost their lives over a few miles of land. World War I had turned into a **war of attrition**, a war based on wearing the other side down by constant attacks and heavy losses. (See page 998 to read an excerpt from Arthur Guy Empey's *Over the Top in the Primary Sources Library*.)

War in the Air By the end of 1915, airplanes had appeared on the battlefield for the first time in history. At first, planes were used to spot the enemy's position. However, planes soon began to attack ground targets, especially enemy communications.

Fights for control of the air occurred and increased over time. At first, pilots fired at each other with handheld pistols. Later, machine guns were mounted on the noses of planes, which made the skies considerably more dangerous.

The Germans also used their giant airships—the zeppelins—to bomb London and eastern England. This caused little damage but frightened many people. Germany's enemies, however, soon found that zeppelins, which were filled with hydrogen gas, quickly became raging infernos when hit by antiaircraft guns.

Reading Check Explaining Why were military leaders baffled by trench warfare?



Then and Now

The introduction of airplanes greatly changed the nature of warfare during the twentieth century. What kind of aircraft did the Germans use during World War I?

British fighter plane, c. 1917 ►

U.S. jet fighter, 2001 ▼





Entry of the United States

At first, the United States tried to remain neutral. As World War I dragged on, however, it became more difficult to do so. The immediate cause of United States involvement grew out of the naval war between Germany and Great Britain.

Britain had used its superior naval power to set up a naval blockade of Germany. The blockade kept war materials and other goods from reaching Germany by sea. Germany had retaliated by setting up its own blockade of Britain. Germany enforced its blockade with the use of unrestricted submarine warfare, which included the sinking of passenger liners.

On May 7, 1915, the British ship *Lusitania* was sunk by German forces. There were about 1,100 civilian casualties, including over 100 Americans. After strong United States protests, the German government suspended unrestricted submarine warfare in September 1915 to avoid antagonizing the United States further. Only once did the German and British naval forces actually engage in direct battle—at the Battle of Jutland on May 31, 1916, when neither side won a conclusive victory.

Geography Skills

Trench warfare produced a stalemate on the Western Front.

1. Applying Geography Skills Create a bar graph with dates as one axis and miles as the other. Using Berlin as the starting point, plot the Central Powers advances from the earliest to the latest dates shown on the map.

By January 1917, however, the Germans were eager to break the deadlock in the war. German naval officers convinced Emperor William II that resuming the use of unrestricted submarine warfare could starve the British into submission within six months.

When the emperor expressed concern about the United States, he was told not to worry. The British would starve before the Americans could act. Even if the Americans did intervene, **Admiral Holtzendorff** assured the emperor, “I give your Majesty my word as an officer that not one American will land on the continent.”

The German naval officers were quite wrong. The British were not forced to surrender, and the return to unrestricted submarine warfare brought the United States into the war in April 1917. United States troops



American troops leave for war.

did not arrive in large numbers in Europe until 1918. However, the entry of the United States into the war not only gave the Allied Powers a psychological boost, but also brought them a major new source of money and war goods.

 **Reading Check** **Evaluating** Why did the Germans resort to unrestricted submarine use?

The Home Front: The Impact of Total War

As World War I dragged on, it became a **total war**, involving a complete mobilization of resources and people. It affected the lives of all citizens in the warring countries, however remote they might be from the battlefields.

Masses of men had to be organized and supplies had to be manufactured and purchased for years of combat. (Germany alone had 5.5 million men in uniform in 1916.) This led to an increase in government powers and the manipulation of public opinion to keep the war effort going. The home front was rapidly becoming a cause for as much effort as the war front.

Increased Government Powers Most people had expected the war to be short, so little thought had been given to long-term wartime needs. Governments had to respond quickly, however, when the war machines failed to achieve their goals. Many more men and supplies were needed to continue the war. To meet these needs, governments expanded their powers. Countries drafted tens of millions of young men for that elusive breakthrough to victory.

Throughout Europe, wartime governments also expanded their power over their economies. Free-market capitalistic systems were temporarily put aside. Governments set up price, wage, and rent controls; rationed food supplies and materials; regulated imports and exports; and took over transportation systems and industries. In effect, in order to mobilize all the resources of their nations for the war effort, European nations set up **planned economies**—systems directed by government agencies.

Under conditions of total war mobilization, the differences between soldiers at war and civilians at home were narrowed. In the view of political leaders, all citizens were part of a national army dedicated to victory. As United States president **Woodrow Wilson** said, the men and women “who remain to till the soil and man the factories are no less a part of the army than the men beneath the battle flags.”

Manipulation of Public Opinion As the war continued and casualties grew worse, the patriotic enthusiasm that had marked the early stages of World War I waned. By 1916, there were signs that civilian morale was beginning to crack under the pressure of total war. War governments, however, fought back against the growing opposition to the war.

Authoritarian regimes, such as those of Germany, Russia, and Austria-Hungary, relied on force to subdue their populations. Under the pressures of the war, however, even democratic states expanded their police powers to stop internal dissent. The British Parliament, for example, passed the Defence of the Realm Act (DORA). It allowed the government to arrest protestors as traitors. Newspapers were censored, and sometimes their publication was even suspended.

Wartime governments made active use of propaganda to arouse enthusiasm for the war. At the beginning, public officials needed to do little to achieve this goal. The British and French, for example, exaggerated German atrocities in Belgium and found that their citizens were only too willing to believe these accounts.

As the war progressed and morale sagged, governments were forced to devise new techniques for motivating the people. In one British recruiting poster, for example, a small daughter asked her father, “Daddy, what did YOU do in the Great War?” while her younger brother played with toy soldiers.

Total War and Women World War I created new roles for women. Because so many men left to fight at the front, women were asked to take over jobs that had not been available to them before. Women were employed in jobs that had once been considered

beyond their capacity. These included such occupations as chimney sweeps, truck drivers, farm laborers, and factory workers in heavy industry. For example, 38 percent of the workers in the Krupp Armaments works in Germany in 1918 were women.

The place of women in the workforce was far from secure, however. Both men and women seemed to expect that many of the new jobs for women were only temporary. This was evident in the British poem "War Girls," written in 1916:

There's the girl who clips your ticket for the train,
And the girl who speeds the lift [elevator] from floor
to floor,
There's the girl who does a milk-round [milk delivery]
in the rain,
And the girl who calls for orders at your door.
Strong, sensible, and fit,
They're out to show their grit,
And tackle jobs with energy and knack.
No longer caged and penned up,
They're going to keep their end up
Till the khaki soldier boys come marching back. 99

At the end of the war, governments would quickly remove women from the jobs they had encouraged them to take earlier. The work benefits for women from World War I were short-lived as men returned to the job market. By 1919, there would be 650,000 unemployed women in Great Britain. Wages for the women who were still employed would be lowered.

Nevertheless, in some countries the role played by women in wartime economies had a positive impact

Edith Cavell

1865–1915—British nurse

Edith Cavell was born in Norfolk, England. She trained as a nurse and moved to Brussels in 1907 to head the Berkendael Medical Institute. After the outbreak of war, the institute became a Red Cross hospital. Cavell worked to shelter French and British soldiers and help them reach safety in the Netherlands.



Outraged, German military authorities in Brussels put her on trial for aiding the enemy and ordered her to be shot. Before her execution, Cavell said, "I am glad to die for my country." To arouse anti-German sentiment, both the French and British used her as an example of German barbarism. The Germans insisted they had the right to execute a traitor—whether man or woman.

on the women's movement for social and political emancipation. The most obvious gain was the right to vote, which was given to women in Germany, Austria, and the United States immediately after the war. Most British women gained the vote in 1918.

Many upper- and middle-class women had also gained new freedoms. In ever-larger numbers, young women from these groups took jobs; had their own apartments; and showed their new independence.

 **Reading Check Summarizing** What was the effect of total war on ordinary citizens?

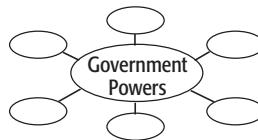
SECTION 2 ASSESSMENT

Checking for Understanding

1. **Define** propaganda, trench warfare, war of attrition, total war, planned economies.
2. **Identify** Lawrence of Arabia, Admiral Holtzendorff, Woodrow Wilson.
3. **Locate** Marne, Tannenberg, Masurian Lakes, Verdun, Gallipoli.
4. **Explain** why World War I required total warfare.
5. **List** some of the occupations opened to women by the war.

Critical Thinking

6. **Identify** What methods did governments use to counter the loss of enthusiasm and opposition to the war at home?
7. **Organizing Information** Use a diagram like the one below to identify ways in which government powers increased during the war.



Analyzing Visuals

8. **Examine** the photograph of British soldiers shown on page 723. How does this photograph illustrate the type of warfare that emerged during World War I? What aspects of trench warfare are *not* shown in the photo?

Writing About History

9. **Expository Writing** What lasting results occurred in women's rights due to World War I? What were the temporary results? Write an essay discussing the effect of the war on women's rights.

THE LUSITANIA


1

Passengers boarding the British liner *R.M.S. Lusitania* in New York on May 1, 1915, for the voyage to Liverpool, England, knew of Germany's threat to sink ships bound for the British Isles. Britain and Germany had been fighting for nine months. Still, few passengers imagined that a civilized nation would attack an unarmed passenger steamer without warning.

Built eight years earlier, the *Lusitania* was described as a "floating palace." German authorities, however, saw her as a threat. They accused the British government of using the *Lusitania* to carry ammunition and other war supplies across the Atlantic.

With her four towering funnels, the liner looked invincible as she left New York on her last voyage. Six days later, at 2:10 P.M. on May 7, 1915, Walther Schwieger, the 30-year-old commander of the German submarine U 20, fired a single torpedo at the *Lusitania* from a range of about 750 yards (686 m).

Captain William Turner of the *Lusitania* saw the torpedo's wake from the navigation bridge just before impact. It sounded like a "million-ton hammer hitting a steam boiler a hundred feet high," one passenger said. A second, more powerful explosion followed, sending a geyser of water, coal, and debris high above the deck.

Listing to starboard, the liner began to sink rapidly at the bow, sending passengers tumbling down her slanted decks. Lifeboats on the port side were hanging too far inboard to be readily launched, those on the starboard side too far out to be easily boarded. Several overfilled lifeboats spilled occupants into the


2

2

sea. The great liner disappeared under the waves in only 18 minutes, leaving behind a jumble of swimmers, corpses, deck chairs, and wreckage. Looking back upon the scene from his submarine, even the German commander Schwieger was shocked. He later called it the most horrible sight he had ever seen.

SPECIAL REPORT



3

News of the disaster raced across the Atlantic. Of 1,959 people aboard, only 764 were saved. The dead included 94 children and infants.

Questions were immediately raised. Did the British Admiralty give the *Lusitania* adequate warning? How could one torpedo have sunk her? Why did she go down so fast? Was there any truth to the German claim that the *Lusitania* had been armed?

From the moment the *Lusitania* sank, she was surrounded by controversy. Americans were outraged by the attack, which claimed the lives of 123 U.S. citizens. Newspapers called the attack “deliberate murder” and a “foul deed,” and former President Theodore Roosevelt demanded

revenge against Germany. The attack on the *Lusitania* is often credited with drawing the United States into World War I. However, President Woodrow Wilson—though he had vowed to hold Germany responsible for its submarine attacks—knew that the American people were not ready to go to war. It was almost two years before the United States joined the conflict in Europe.

A British judge laid full blame on the German submarine commander, while the German government claimed that the British had deliberately made her a military target. Tragically, inquiries following the sinking of the *Lusitania* revealed that Captain Turner had received warnings by wireless from the British Admiralty, took only limited precautions as he approached the area.

1 The *Lusitania* arrives in New York on her maiden voyage in 1907 (opposite page).

2 Captain William Turner of the *Lusitania*, (opposite page, center); Walther Schwieger, commander of the German submarine U 20 (opposite page, right).

3 Headlines in Boston and New York (above) report the terrible news of the sinking of the *Lusitania* on May 7, 1915. In the two days prior to the attack on the *Lusitania*, the German submarine U 20 had sunk three ships off Ireland’s southern coast. Yet the captain of the *Lusitania*, who had received warnings by wireless from the British Admiralty, took only limited precautions as he approached the area.



but took only limited precautions as he approached the area where the U 20 was waiting.

Rumors of diamonds, gold, and valuables locked away in *Lusitania*'s safes have prompted salvage attempts over the years. To date, no treasure has ever been reported.

Perhaps the biggest puzzle has been the hardest to solve: Why did the liner sink so fast? Newspapers speculated that the torpedo had struck munitions in a cargo hold, causing the strong secondary explosion. Divers later reported a huge hole in the port side of the bow, opposite where munitions would have been stored.



Hoping to settle the issue, a team from the Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution, sponsored by the National Geographic Society, sent their robot vehicle Jason down to

photograph the damage. Fitted with cameras and powerful lights, the robot sent video images of the wreck by fiber-optic cable to a control room on the surface ship, *Northern Horizon*. A pilot maneuvered Jason with a joystick, while an engineer relayed instructions to the robot's computers. Other team members watched for recognizable objects on the monitors. In addition to using Jason to make a visual survey of the *Lusitania*, the team of researchers and scientists also used sonar to create a computerized, three-dimensional diagram of how the wreck looks today.

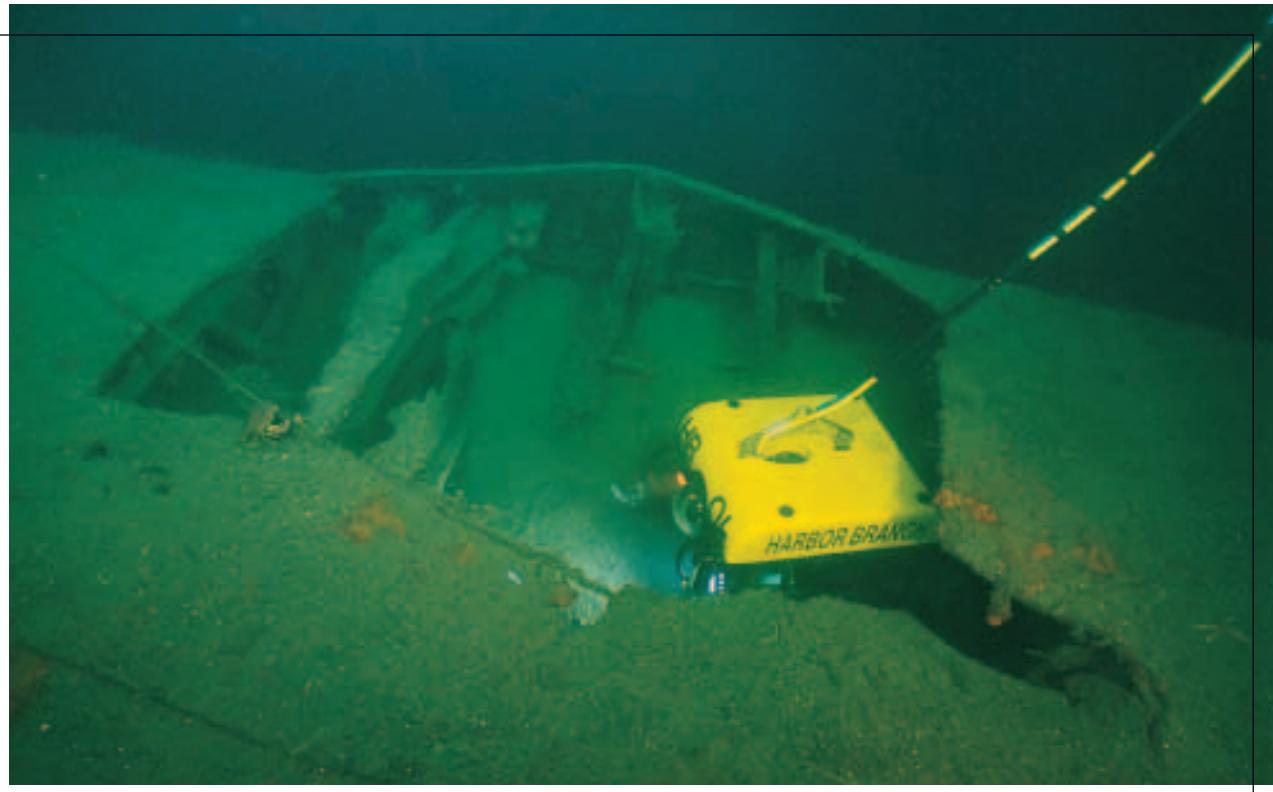
From this data, it was discovered that the *Lusitania*'s hull had been flattened—in part by the force of gravity—to half its original width. But when Jason's cameras swept across the hold, looking for the hole reported by divers shortly after the sinking, there was none to be found. Indeed, no evidence was found that would indicate

that the torpedo had detonated an explosion in a cargo hold, undermining one theory of why the liner sank.

Questions about her cargo have haunted the *Lusitania* since the day she went down. Was she carrying illegal munitions as the Germans have always claimed? In fact, she was. The manifest for her last voyage included wartime essentials such as motorcycle parts, metals, cotton goods, and food, as well as 4,200 cases of rifle ammunition, 1,250 cases of shrapnel (not explosive), and 18 boxes of percussion fuses. However, the investigation conducted by the Woods Hole team and Jason suggested that these munitions did not cause the secondary blast that sent the *Lusitania* to the bottom. So what did?

One likely possibility was a coal-dust explosion. The German torpedo struck the liner's starboard side about 10 feet (3 m) below the waterline, rupturing one of the long coal

4



SPECIAL REPORT



5



6

4 Homer, a small robot, (opposite page) explores a hole in the stern of the *Lusitania* that was cut by a salvage crew to recover silverware and other items.

5 A provocative poster (left) depicted drowning innocents and urged Americans to enlist in the armed forces.

6 Alice Drury (above left) was a young nanny for an American couple on the *Lusitania*. She and another nanny were caring for the couple's children: Audrey (above right), Stuart, Amy, and Susan. Alice was about to give Audrey a bottle when the torpedo hit. Alice wrapped Audrey in a shawl, grabbed Stuart, and headed for the lifeboats. A crewman loaded Stuart, but when Alice tried to board, the sailor told her it was full. Without a life jacket and with Audrey around her neck, Alice jumped into the water. A woman in the lifeboat grabbed her hair and pulled her aboard. Audrey's parents were rescued too, but Amy, Susan, and the other nanny were lost. Alice and Audrey Lawson Johnston have remained close ever since.

bunkers [storage bins] that stretched along both sides. If that bunker, mostly empty by the end of the voyage, contained explosive coal dust, the torpedo might have ignited it. Such an occurrence would explain all the coal that was found scattered on the seafloor near the wreck.

The *Lusitania*'s giant funnels have long since turned to rust, an eerie marine growth covers her hull, and

her superstructure is ghostly wreckage. Yet the horror and fascination surrounding the sinking of the great liner live on. With today's high-technology tools, researchers and scientists at Woods Hole and the National Geographic Society have provided another look—and some new answers—to explain the chain of events that ended with the *Lusitania* at the bottom of the sea.

INTERPRETING THE PAST

1. How did the *Lusitania* contribute to drawing the United States into World War I?
2. Describe the *Lusitania*'s route. Where was it when it sank?
3. What mysteries were researchers able to solve by using underwater robot technology?

SECTION 3

The Russian Revolution

Guide to Reading

Main Ideas

- The czarist regime in Russia fell as a result of poor leadership.
- The Bolsheviks under Lenin came to power.
- Communist forces triumphed over anti-Communist forces.

Key Terms

soviet, war communism

Preview of Events

1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921
1916 Rasputin assassinated	1917 Czar Nicholas II steps down	1918 Lenin signs Treaty of Brest-Litovsk			1921 Communists control Russia

People to Identify

Alexandra, Grigori Rasputin, Alexander Kerensky, Bolsheviks, V. I. Lenin, Leon Trotsky

Places to Locate

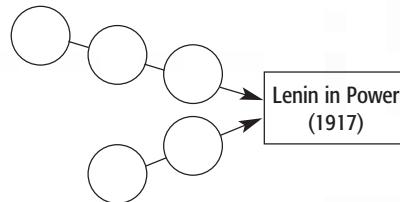
Petrograd, Ukraine, Siberia, Urals

Preview Questions

- What promises did the Bolsheviks make to the Russian people?
- Why did civil war break out in Russia after the Russian Revolution?

Reading Strategy

Categorizing Information Using a chart like the one below, identify the factors and events that led to Lenin coming to power in 1917.



Voices from the Past



John Reed

John Reed, an American journalist, described an important event that took place in St. Petersburg, Russia, on the night of November 6, 1917:

After a few minutes huddling there, some hundreds of men began again to flow forward. By this time, in the light that streamed out of the Winter Palace windows, I could see that the first two or three hundred men were Red Guards [revolutionaries], with only a few scattered soldiers. Over the barricade of firewood we clambered, and leaping down inside gave a triumphant shout as we stumbled on a heap of rifles thrown down by the guards who had stood there. On both sides of the main gateway the doors stood wide open, and from the huge pile came not the slightest sound.

—*Eyewitness to History*, John Carey, ed., 1987

Reed was describing the Bolshevik seizure of the Winter Palace, seat of the Russian Government, by Bolshevik revolutionaries. This act led to a successful revolution in Russia.

Background to Revolution

TURNING POINT As you will learn, out of Russia's collapse in 1917 came the Russian Revolution. Its impact would be felt all over the world.

Russia was unprepared both militarily and technologically for the total war of World War I. Russia had no competent military leaders. Even worse, Czar



Picturing History

Rasputin (shown upper right corner) had great influence over Czar Nicholas II and his family, shown here in a 1913 photograph. [Why was Rasputin able to influence Russian political affairs?](#)

Nicholas II insisted on taking personal charge of the armed forces despite his obvious lack of ability and training.

In addition, Russian industry was unable to produce the weapons needed for the army. Many soldiers trained using broomsticks. Others were sent to the front without rifles and told to pick one up from a dead comrade.

Given these conditions, it is not surprising that the Russian army suffered incredible losses. Between 1914 and 1916, two million soldiers were killed, and another four to six million wounded or captured. By 1917, the Russian will to fight had vanished.

Beginnings of Upheaval Czar Nicholas II was an autocratic ruler who relied on the army and bureaucracy to hold up his regime. Furthermore, he was increasingly cut off from events by his German-born wife, **Alexandra**. She was a willful and stubborn woman who had fallen under the influence of **Grigori Rasputin** (ra•SPYOO•tuhn), an uneducated Siberian peasant who claimed to be a holy man. Alexandra believed that Rasputin was holy, for he alone seemed able to stop the bleeding of her son Alexis. Alexis, the heir to the throne, had hemophilia (a deficiency in the ability of the blood to clot).

With the czar at the battlefield, Alexandra made all of the important decisions. She insisted on first consulting Rasputin, the man she called "her beloved, never-to-be-forgotten teacher, savior, and mentor." Rasputin's influence made him an important power behind the throne. He did not hesitate to interfere in government affairs.

As the leadership at the top stumbled its way through a series of military and economic disasters, the Russian people grew more and more upset with the czarist regime. Even conservative aristocrats who supported the monarchy felt the need to do something to save the situation.

For a start, they assassinated Rasputin in December 1916. It was not easy to kill this man of incredible physical strength. They shot him three times and



then tied him up and threw him into the Neva River. He drowned, but not before he had managed to untie the knots underwater. The killing of Rasputin occurred too late, however, to save the monarchy.

The March Revolution At the beginning of March 1917, a series of strikes led by working-class women broke out in the capital city of **Petrograd** (formerly St. Petersburg). A few weeks earlier, the government had started bread rationing in Petrograd after the price of bread had skyrocketed.

Many of the women who stood in the lines waiting for bread were also factory workers who worked 12-hour days. A police report warned the government:

66Mothers of families, exhausted by endless standing in line at stores, distraught over their half-starving and sick children, are today perhaps closer to revolution than [the liberal opposition leaders] and of course they are a great deal more dangerous because they are the combustible material for which only a single spark is needed to burst into flame.99



CLICK HERE



Web Activity Visit the *Glencoe World History* Web site at wh.glencoe.com and click on **Chapter 23—Student Web Activity** to learn more about the Russian royal family.

On March 8, about 10,000 women marched through the city of Petrograd demanding "Peace and Bread" and "Down with Autocracy." Soon the women were joined by other workers. Together they called for a general strike. The strike shut down all the factories in the city on March 10.

Alexandra wrote her husband Nicholas II at the battlefield, "This is a hooligan movement. If the weather were very cold they would all probably stay at home." Nicholas ordered troops to break up the crowds by shooting them if necessary. Soon, however, large numbers of the soldiers joined the demonstrators and refused to fire on the crowds.

The Duma, or legislative body, which the czar had tried to dissolve, met anyway. On March 12, it established the provisional government, which mainly consisted of middle-class Duma representatives. This

government urged the czar to step down. Because he no longer had the support of the army or even the aristocrats, Nicholas II did step down, on March 15, ending the 300-year-old Romanov dynasty.

The provisional government, headed by **Alexander Kerensky** (keh•REHN•skee), now decided to carry on the war to preserve Russia's honor. This decision to remain in World War I was a major blunder. It satisfied neither the workers nor the peasants, who, tired and angry from years of suffering, wanted above all an end to the war.

The government was also faced with a challenge to its authority—the **soviets**. The soviets were councils composed of representatives from the workers and soldiers. The soviet of Petrograd had been formed in March 1917. At the same time, soviets sprang up in army units, factory towns, and rural areas. The soviets, largely made up of socialists, represented the more radical interests of the lower classes. One group—the Bolsheviks—came to play a crucial role.

✓ **Reading Check** **Identifying** Develop a sequence of events leading to the March Revolution.



CONNECTIONS Past To Present

The Mystery of Anastasia

Czar Nicholas II, his wife Alexandra, and their five children were murdered on the night of July 16, 1918. Soon after, rumors began to circulate that some members of the family had survived.

In 1921, a young woman in Dallendorf, Germany, claimed to be the Grand Duchess Anastasia, youngest daughter of Nicholas II. Some surviving members of the Romanov family became convinced that she was Anastasia. Grand Duke Andrew, Nicholas II's first cousin, said after meeting with her, "For me there is definitely no doubt; it is Anastasia."



▲ Grand Duchess Anastasia



◀ Anna Anderson

Later, the woman claiming to be Anastasia came to the United States. While in New York, she registered at a Long Island hotel as Anna Anderson and soon became known by that name. In 1932, she returned to Germany. During the next 30 years, she pursued a claim in German courts for part of the estate left to Empress Alexandra's German relatives. In the 1960s in the United States, she became even better known as a result of a popular play and film, *Anastasia*.

In 1968, Anna Anderson returned to the United States, where she died in 1984. In 1994, DNA testing of tissues from Anna Anderson revealed that she was not the Grand Duchess Anastasia. In all probability, Anna Anderson was Franziska Schanzkowska, a Polish farmer's daughter who had always dreamed of being an actress.

Comparing Past and Present

The woman claiming to be Anastasia convinced many people of the authenticity of her claim. What do you think might have motivated her to act out the part of Anastasia for so many years?



The Rise of Lenin

The **Bolsheviks** began as a small faction of a Marxist party called the Russian Social Democrats. The Bolsheviks came under the leadership of Vladimir Ilyich Ulyanov (ool•YAH•nuhf), known to the world as **V. I. Lenin**.

Under Lenin's direction, the Bolsheviks became a party dedicated to violent revolution. Lenin believed that only violent revolution could destroy the capitalist system. A "vanguard" (forefront) of activists, he said, must form a small party of well-disciplined professional revolutionaries to accomplish the task.

Between 1900 and 1917, Lenin spent most of his time abroad. When the provisional government was formed in March 1917, he saw an opportunity for the Bolsheviks to seize power. In April 1917, German military leaders, hoping to create disorder in Russia, shipped Lenin to Russia. Lenin and his associates were in a sealed train to prevent their ideas from infecting Germany.

Lenin's arrival in Russia opened a new stage of the Russian Revolution. Lenin maintained that the soviets of soldiers, workers, and peasants were ready-made instruments of power. He believed that the Bolsheviks should work toward gaining control of

Geography Skills

The Russian Revolution and civil war resulted in significant changes to Russia's boundaries.

- 1. Interpreting Maps** Compare the area of Russia under Bolshevik control in 1919 with the area *not* under Bolshevik control. Which is larger? Which contained Russia's main cities?
- 2. Applying Geography Skills** Pose two questions for your classmates to determine whether or not they can describe the changes in Russia's boundaries resulting from the Russian Revolution and World War I.

these groups and then use them to overthrow the provisional government.

At the same time, the Bolsheviks reflected the discontent of the people. They promised an end to the war, the redistribution of all land to the peasants, the transfer of factories and industries from capitalists to committees of workers, and the transfer of government power from the provisional government to the soviets. Three simple slogans summed up the Bolshevik program: "Peace, Land, Bread," "Worker Control of Production," and "All Power to the Soviets."

 **Reading Check** **Examining** What was Lenin's plan when he arrived in Russia?

The Bolsheviks Seize Power

By the end of October, Bolsheviks made up a slight majority in the Petrograd and Moscow soviets. The number of party members had grown from 50,000 to 240,000. With Leon Trotsky, a dedicated revolutionary, as head of the Petrograd soviet, the Bolsheviks were in a position to claim power in the name of the soviets. During the night of November 6, Bolshevik forces seized the Winter Palace, the seat of the provisional government. The government quickly collapsed with little bloodshed.



V. I. Lenin

This overthrow of the provisional government coincided with a meeting in Petrograd of the all-Russian Congress of Soviets, which represented local soviets from all over the country. Outwardly, Lenin turned over the power of the provisional government to the Congress of Soviets. The real power, however, passed to a Council of People's Commissars, headed by Lenin.

The Bolsheviks, who soon renamed themselves the Communists, still had a long way to go. Lenin had promised peace, and that, he realized, would not be an easy task. It would mean the humiliating loss of much Russian territory. There was no real choice, however.

On March 3, 1918, Lenin signed the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk with Germany and gave up eastern Poland, Ukraine, Finland, and the Baltic provinces. To his critics, Lenin argued that it made no difference. The spread of the socialist revolution throughout Europe would make the treaty largely irrelevant. In any case, he had promised peace to the Russian people. Real peace did not come, however, because the country soon sank into civil war.

Reading Check **Describing** What was the impact of the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk on Russia?

Civil War in Russia

Many people were opposed to the new Bolshevik, or Communist, regime. These people included not only groups loyal to the czar but also liberals and anti-Leninist socialists. These groups were joined by the Allies, who were extremely concerned about the Communist takeover. The Allies sent thousands of troops to various parts of Russia in the hope of

bringing Russia back into the war. The Allied forces rarely fought on Russian soil, but they did give material aid to anti-Communist forces.

Between 1918 and 1921, the Communist (Red) Army was forced to fight on many fronts against these opponents. The first serious threat to the Communists came from **Siberia**. Here an anti-Communist (White) force attacked westward and advanced almost to the Volga River before being stopped.

Attacks also came from the Ukrainians in the southwest and from the Baltic regions. In mid-1919, White forces swept through Ukraine and advanced almost to Moscow before being pushed back.

By 1920, however, the major White forces had been defeated and Ukraine retaken. The next year, the Communist regime regained control over the independent nationalist governments in Georgia, Russian Armenia, and Azerbaijan (A•zuhr•BY•JAHN).



The royal family was another victim of the civil war. After the czar abdicated, he, his wife, and their five children had been taken into captivity. In April 1918, they were moved to Ekaterinburg, a mining town in the **Urals**. On the night of July 16, members of the local soviet murdered the czar and his family and burned their bodies in a nearby mine shaft.

Reading Check **Identifying** Who opposed the new Bolshevik regime?

Triumph of the Communists

How had Lenin and the Communists triumphed in the civil war over what seemed to be overwhelming forces? One reason was that the Red Army was a well-disciplined fighting force. This was largely due to the organizational genius of **Leon Trotsky**. As commissar of war, Trotsky reinstated the draft and insisted on rigid discipline. Soldiers who deserted or refused to obey orders were executed on the spot.

Furthermore, the disunity of the anti-Communist forces weakened their efforts. Political differences created distrust among the Whites and prevented them from cooperating effectively with one another. Some Whites insisted on restoring the czarist regime. Others believed that only a more liberal and democratic program had any chance of success.



Picturing History

The Red Army is shown here marching through Moscow. Between 1918 and 1921, the Communist (Red) Army faced resistance from both the Allies and the anti-Communist (White) forces. **Who was the Communist commissar of war during this period?**



The Whites, then, had no common goal. The Communists, in contrast, had a single-minded sense of purpose. Inspired by their vision of a new socialist order, the Communists had the determination that comes from revolutionary zeal and convictions.

The Communists were also able to translate their revolutionary faith into practical instruments of power. A policy of **war communism**, for example, was used to ensure regular supplies for the Red Army. War communism meant government control of banks and most industries, the seizing of grain from peasants, and the centralization of state administration under Communist control.

Another Communist instrument was revolutionary terror. A new Red secret police—known as the Cheka—began a Red Terror aimed at the destruction of all those who opposed the new regime (much like the Reign of Terror in the French Revolution). The Red Terror added an element of fear to the Communist regime.

Finally, the presence of foreign armies on Russian soil enabled the Communists to appeal to the powerful force of Russian patriotism. At one point, over a

hundred thousand foreign troops—mostly Japanese, British, American, and French—were stationed in Russia in support of anti-Communist forces. Their presence made it easy for the Communist government to call on patriotic Russians to fight foreign attempts to control the country.

By 1921, the Communists were in total command of Russia. In the course of the civil war, the Communist regime had transformed Russia into a centralized state dominated by a single party. The state was also largely hostile to the Allied powers, because the Allies had tried to help the Communists' enemies in the civil war.

 **Reading Check** **Contrasting** Why did the Red Army prevail over the White Army?

SECTION 3 ASSESSMENT

Checking for Understanding

1. **Define** soviets, war communism.
2. **Identify** Alexandra, Grigori Rasputin, Alexander Kerensky, Bolsheviks, V.I. Lenin, Leon Trotsky.
3. **Locate** Petrograd, Ukraine, Siberia, Urals.
4. **Explain** why Lenin accepted the loss of so much Russian territory in the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk.
5. **List** some of the different opinions that split the White forces.

Critical Thinking

6. **Explain** How did the presence of Allied troops in Russia ultimately help the Communists?
7. **Organizing Information** Using a chart like the one below, sequence the steps the Communists took to turn Russia into a centralized state dominated by a single party.

Steps to Communist control
1.
2.

Analyzing Visuals

8. **Examine** the photograph of Czar Nicholas II and his family shown on page 733 of your text. Is this photograph an idealized view of royalty? Do you think the people of Russia would have agreed with this view of the royal family as portrayed in this photograph, especially during World War I?

Writing About History

9. **Expository Writing** Write an essay comparing the economic, political, and social causes of the American, French, and Russian Revolutions.

Ten Days That Shook the World



Lenin speaks to the troops in Moscow.

JOHN REED WAS AN AMERICAN JOURNALIST sympathetic to socialism. In *Ten Days That Shook the World*, he left an eyewitness account of the Russian Revolution. Inspired by the Bolsheviks, he helped found the American Communist Labor Party in Chicago. Accused of treason, he returned to the Soviet Union, dying there in 1920.

“It was just 8:40 when a thundering wave of cheers announced the entrance of the presidium [executive committee], with Lenin—great Lenin—among them. A short, stocky figure, with a big head set down in his shoulders, bald and bulging. Little eyes, a snub-nose, wide, generous mouth, and heavy chin. Dressed in shabby clothes, his trousers much too long for him. Unimpressive, to be the idol of a mob, loved and revered as perhaps few leaders in history have been. . . .

Now Lenin, gripping the edge of the reading stand, letting his little winking eyes travel over the crowd as he stood there waiting, apparently oblivious to the long-rolling ovation, which lasted several minutes. When it finished, he said simply, ‘We shall

now proceed to construct the socialist order!’ Again that overwhelming human roar.

‘The first thing is the adoption of practical measures to realize peace. . . . We shall offer peace to the peoples of all the warring countries upon the basis of the Soviet terms—no annexations, no indemnities, and the right of self-determination of peoples. . . . This proposal of peace will meet with resistance on the part of the imperialist governments—we don’t fool ourselves on that score. But we hope that revolution will soon break out in all the warring countries; that is why we

address ourselves especially to the workers of France, England and Germany. . . .’

‘The revolution of November 6th and 7th,’ he ended, ‘has opened the era of the Social Revolution. . . . The labour movement, in the name of peace and socialism, shall win, and fulfill its destiny. . . .’

There was something quiet and powerful in all this, which stirred the souls of men. It was understandable why people believed when Lenin spoke. ”

—John Reed, *Ten Days That Shook the World*

Analyzing Primary Sources

1. Did John Reed agree or disagree with Lenin?
2. How do you know that Reed’s account of Lenin is biased?



SECTION 4

End of the War

Guide to Reading

Main Ideas

- Combined Allied forces stopped the German offensive.
- Peace settlements brought political and territorial changes to Europe and created bitterness and resentment in several nations.

Key Terms

armistice, reparation, mandate

Preview of Events

◆ 1917

◆ 1918

◆ 1919

◆ 1920

1918

Germany agrees
to an armistice

1919

Treaty of Versailles signed at
the Paris Peace Conference

Voices from the Past

On September 15, 1916, on the Western Front, a new weapon appeared:

“We heard strange throbbing noises, and lumbering slowly towards us came three huge mechanical monsters such as we had never seen before. My first impression was that they looked ready to topple on their noses, but their tails and the two little wheels at the back held them down and kept them level. . . . Instead of going on to the German lines the three tanks assigned to us straddled our front line, stopped and then opened up a murderous machine-gun fire. . . . They finally realized they were on the wrong trench and moved on, frightening the Germans out of their wits and making them scuttle like frightened rabbits.”

—*Eyewitness to History*, John Carey, ed., 1987

The tank played a role in bringing an end to World War I and foreshadowed a new kind of warfare.



British tank

The Last Year of the War

The year 1917 had not been a good one for the Allies. Allied offensives on the Western Front had been badly defeated. The Russian Revolution, which began in November 1917, led to Russia’s withdrawal from the War a few months later. The cause of the Central Powers looked favorable, although war weariness was beginning to take its toll.

On the positive side, the entry of the United States into the war in 1917 gave the Allies a much-needed psychological boost, along with fresh men and material. In 1918, American troops would prove crucial.

A New German Offensive For Germany, the withdrawal of the Russians offered new hope for a successful end to the war. Germany was now free to concentrate entirely on the Western Front. Erich von Ludendorff, who guided German military operations, decided to make one final military gamble—a grand offensive in the west to break the military stalemate.

The German attack was launched in March 1918. By April, German troops were within about 50 miles (80 km) of Paris. However, the German advance was stopped at the Second Battle of the Marne on July 18. French, Moroccan, and American troops (140,000 fresh American troops had just arrived), supported by hundreds of tanks, threw the Germans back over the Marne. Ludendorff's gamble had failed.

With more than a million American troops pouring into France, Allied forces began a steady advance toward Germany. On September 29, 1918, General Ludendorff informed German leaders that the war was lost. He demanded that the government ask for peace at once.

Collapse and Armistice German officials soon discovered that the Allies were unwilling to make peace with the autocratic imperial government of Germany. Reforms were begun to create a liberal government, but these efforts came too late for the exhausted and angry German people.

On November 3, sailors in the town of **Kiel**, in northern Germany, mutinied. Within days, councils of workers and soldiers were forming throughout northern Germany and taking over civilian and military offices. William II gave in to public pressure and left the country on November 9.



After William II's departure, the Social Democrats under **Friedrich Ebert** announced the creation of a democratic republic. Two days later, on November 11, 1918, the new German government signed an **armistice** (a truce, an agreement to end the fighting).

Opposing Viewpoints

Who Caused World War I?

Immediately after World War I, historians began to assess which nation was most responsible for beginning the war. As these four selections show, opinions have varied considerably.

“The Allied and Associated Governments affirm and Germany accepts the responsibility of Germany and her allies for causing all the loss and damage to which the Allied and Associated Governments have been subjected as a consequence of the war imposed upon them by the aggression of Germany and her allies.”

Treaty of Versailles, Article 231, 1919

“None of the powers wanted a European War. . . . But the verdict of the Versailles Treaty that Germany and her allies were responsible for the War, in view of the evidence now available, is historically unsound. It should therefore be revised.”

—Sidney Bradshaw Fay
Origins of the World War, 1930

Revolutionary Forces The war was over, but the revolutionary forces it had set in motion in Germany were not yet exhausted. A group of radical socialists, unhappy with the moderate policies of the Social Democrats, formed the German Communist Party in December 1918. A month later, the Communists tried to seize power in Berlin.

The new Social Democratic government, backed by regular army troops, crushed the rebels and murdered Rosa Luxemburg and Karl Liebknecht (LEEP•KNEHKT), leaders of the German Communists. A similar attempt at Communist revolution in the city of Munich, in southern Germany, was also crushed.

The new German republic had been saved from radical revolution. The attempt at revolution, however, left the German middle class with a deep fear of communism.

Austria-Hungary, too, experienced disintegration and revolution. As war weariness took hold of the empire, ethnic groups increasingly sought to achieve their independence. By the time the war ended, the Austro-Hungarian Empire was no more.

“In estimating the order of guilt of the various countries we may safely say that the only direct and immediate responsibility for the World War falls upon Serbia, France and Russia, with the guilt about equally divided.”

—Harry Elmer Barnes
The Genesis of the World War, 1927

“As Germany willed and coveted the Austro-Serbian war and, in her confidence in her military superiority, deliberately faced the risk of a conflict with Russia and France, her leaders must bear a substantial share of the historical responsibility for the outbreak of general war in 1914.”

—Fritz Fischer,
Germany's Aims in the First World War, 1961

You Decide

1. Write a quote of your own that reflects your views on which nation caused World War I. Support your quote with passages from the text.

The empire had been replaced by the independent republics of Austria, Hungary, and Czechoslovakia, along with the large monarchical state called Yugoslavia. Rivalries among the nations that succeeded Austria-Hungary would weaken eastern Europe for the next 80 years.

 **Reading Check** **Describing** What happened within Germany after the armistice?

The Peace Settlements

In January 1919, representatives of 27 victorious Allied nations met in Paris to make a final settlement of the Great War. Over a period of years, the reasons for fighting World War I had changed dramatically. When European nations had gone to war in 1914 they sought territorial gains. By the beginning of 1918, more idealistic reasons were also being expressed.

Wilson's Proposals No one expressed these idealistic reasons better than the U.S. president, Woodrow Wilson. Even before the end of the war, Wilson outlined “Fourteen Points” to the United States Congress—his basis for a peace settlement that he believed justified the enormous military struggle being waged.

Wilson's proposals for a truly just and lasting peace included reaching the peace agreements openly rather than through secret diplomacy; reducing armaments (military forces or weapons) to a “point consistent with domestic safety”; and ensuring self-determination (the right of each people to have its own nation).

Wilson portrayed World War I as a people's war against “absolutism and militarism.” These two enemies of liberty, he argued, could be eliminated only by creating democratic governments and a “general association of nations.” This association would guarantee “political independence and territorial integrity to great and small states alike.”

Wilson became the spokesperson for a new world order based on democracy and international cooperation. When he arrived in Europe for the peace conference, he was enthusiastically cheered by many Europeans. Wilson soon found, however, that more practical motives guided other states.

The Paris Peace Conference Delegates met in Paris in early 1919 to determine the peace settlement. At the Paris Peace Conference, complications became obvious. For one thing, secret treaties and agreements that had been made before the war had raised

the hopes of European nations for territorial gains. These hopes could not be totally ignored, even if they did conflict with the principle of self-determination put forth by Wilson.

National interests also complicated the deliberations of the Paris Peace Conference. **David Lloyd George**, prime minister of Great Britain, had won a decisive victory in elections in December of 1918. His platform was simple: make the Germans pay for this dreadful war.

France's approach to peace was chiefly guided by its desire for national security. To **Georges Clemenceau** (KLEH•muhn•SOH), the premier of France, the French people had suffered the most from German aggression. The French desired revenge and security against future German aggression. Clemenceau wanted Germany stripped of all weapons, vast German payments—**reparations**—to cover the costs of the war, and a separate Rhineland as a buffer state between France and Germany.

The most important decisions at the Paris Peace Conference were made by Wilson, Clemenceau, and Lloyd George. Italy, as one of the Allies, was considered one of the so-called Big Four powers. However, it played a smaller role than the other key powers—the United States, France, and Great Britain, called the Big Three. Germany was not invited to attend, and Russia could not be present because of its civil war.

People In History

Georges Clemenceau

1841–1929—French statesman

Georges Clemenceau was one of France's wartime leaders. He had a long political career before serving as French premier (prime minister) from 1906 to 1909 and from 1917 to 1920.

When Clemenceau became premier in 1917, he suspended basic civil liberties for the rest of the war. He had the editor of an antiwar newspaper executed on a charge of helping the enemy. Clemenceau also punished journalists who wrote negative war reports by having them drafted.

Clemenceau strongly disliked and distrusted the Germans and blamed them for World War I. "For the catastrophe of 1914 the Germans are responsible," he said. "Only a professional liar would deny this."



In view of the many conflicting demands at the peace conference, it was no surprise that the Big Three quarreled. Wilson wanted to create a world organization, the League of Nations, to prevent future wars. Clemenceau and Lloyd George wanted to punish Germany. In the end, only compromise made it possible to achieve a peace settlement.

Wilson's wish that the creation of an international peacekeeping organization be the first order of business was granted. On January 25, 1919, the conference accepted the idea of a League of Nations. In return, Wilson agreed to make compromises on territorial arrangements. He did so because he believed that the League could later fix any unfair settlements.

Clemenceau also compromised to obtain some guarantees for French security. He gave up France's wish for a separate Rhineland and instead accepted a defensive alliance with Great Britain and the United States. The U.S. Senate refused to ratify this agreement, which weakened the Versailles peace settlement.

The Treaty of Versailles The final peace settlement of Paris consisted of five separate treaties with the defeated nations—Germany, Austria, Hungary, Bulgaria, and Turkey. The Treaty of Versailles with Germany, signed at Versailles near Paris, on June 28, 1919, was by far the most important.

The Germans considered it a harsh peace. They were especially unhappy with Article 231, the so-called War Guilt Clause, which declared that Germany (and Austria) were responsible for starting the war. The treaty ordered Germany to pay reparations for all the damage to which the Allied governments and their people had been subjected as a result of the war "imposed upon them by the aggression of Germany and her allies."

The military and territorial provisions of the Treaty of Versailles also angered the Germans. Germany had to reduce its army to a hundred thousand men, cut back its navy, and eliminate its air force. **Alsace** and **Lorraine**, taken by the Germans from France in 1871, were now returned. Sections of eastern Germany were awarded to a new Polish state.

German land along both sides of the Rhine was made a demilitarized zone and stripped of all weapons and fortifications. This, it was hoped, would serve as a barrier to any future German military moves westward against France. Outraged by the "dictated peace," the new German government complained but, unwilling to risk a renewal of the war, they accepted the treaty.

Europe and the Middle East after World War I



A New Map of Europe As a result of the war, the Treaty of Versailles, and the separate peace treaties made with the other Central Powers—Austria, Hungary, Bulgaria, and Turkey—the map of Eastern Europe was largely redrawn. Both the German and Russian empires lost much territory in eastern Europe. The Austro-Hungarian Empire disappeared.

New nation-states emerged from the lands of these three empires: Finland, Latvia, Estonia, Lithuania, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Austria, and Hungary. New territorial arrangements were also made in the Balkans. Romania acquired additional lands from Russia, Hungary, and Bulgaria. Serbia formed the nucleus of a new state, called Yugoslavia, which combined Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes.

The Paris Peace Conference was supposedly guided by the principle of self-determination. However, the mixtures of peoples in eastern Europe made it impossible to draw boundaries along neat ethnic lines. Compromises had to be made, sometimes to satisfy the national interests of the victors. France, for

World War I dramatically changed political boundaries.

1. Interpreting Maps Rank the countries and empires listed in the map legend according to the amount of lost territory, from largest loss to smallest loss.

2. Applying Geography Skills Look back at the map on page 718, then examine the map above. Now, knowing the outcome of the war, predict which countries would lose the most territory. Why does the actual loss of territory, as shown above, differ from (or match) your predictions?

example, had lost Russia as its major ally on Germany's eastern border. Thus, France wanted to strengthen and expand Poland, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, and Romania as much as possible. Those states could then serve as barriers against Germany and Communist Russia.

As a result of compromises, almost every eastern European state was left with ethnic minorities: Germans in Poland; Hungarians, Poles, and Germans in Czechoslovakia; Hungarians in Romania, and the



History *through Art*

Signing of the Treaty of Versailles by John Christen Johansen, 1919 A peace settlement with Germany was signed at Versailles on June 28, 1919. **What were the names of the representatives of the Big Three powers at the Paris Peace Conference?**

combination of Serbs, Croats, Slovenes, Macedonians, and Albanians in Yugoslavia. The problem of ethnic minorities within nations would lead to later conflicts.

Yet another centuries-old empire—the Ottoman Empire—was broken up by the peace settlement. To gain Arab support against the Ottoman Turks during the war, the Western Allies had promised to recognize the independence of Arab states in the Ottoman Empire. Once the war was over, however, the Western nations changed their minds. France took control of Lebanon and Syria, and Britain received Iraq and Palestine.

These acquisitions were officially called **mandates**. Woodrow Wilson had opposed the outright annexation of colonial territories by the Allies. As a result, the peace settlement created the mandate system. According to this system, a nation officially governed another nation as a mandate on behalf of the League of Nations but did not own the territory.

The War's Legacy World War I shattered the liberal, rational society that had existed in late nineteenth- and early twentieth-century Europe. The death of almost 10 million people, as well as the incredible destruction caused by the war, undermined the whole idea of progress. Entire populations had participated in a devastating slaughter.

World War I was a total war—one that involved a complete mobilization of resources and people. As a result, the power of governments over the lives of their citizens increased. Freedom of the press and speech were limited in the name of national security. World War I made the practice of strong central authority a way of life.

The turmoil created by the war also seemed to open the door to even greater insecurity. Revolutions broke up old empires and created new states, which led to new problems. The hope that Europe and the rest of the world would return to normalcy was, however, soon dashed.

✓ Reading Check **Identifying** What clause in the Treaty of Versailles particularly angered the Germans?

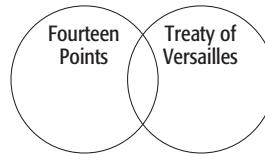
SECTION 4 ASSESSMENT

Checking for Understanding

1. **Define** armistice, reparation, mandate.
2. **Identify** Erich von Ludendorff, Friedrich Ebert, David Lloyd George, Georges Clemenceau.
3. **Locate** Kiel, Alsace, Lorraine, Poland.
4. **Explain** why the mandate system was created. Which countries became mandates? Who governed them?
5. **List** some of President Wilson's proposals for creating a truly just and lasting peace. Why did he feel the need to develop these proposals?

Critical Thinking

6. **Making Generalizations** Although Woodrow Wilson came to the Paris Peace Conference with high ideals, the other leaders had more practical concerns. Why do you think that was so?
7. **Compare and Contrast** Using a Venn diagram like the one below, compare and contrast Wilson's Fourteen Points to the Treaty of Versailles.



Analyzing Visuals

8. **Compare** the photograph of troops going to war on page 721 with the painting on page 715. How do you think the soldiers' expectations compared to their actual experiences?

Writing About History

9. **Informative Writing** You are a reporter for a large newspaper, sent to the Paris Peace Conference to interview one of the leaders of the Big Three. Prepare a written set of questions you would like to ask the leader you have selected.

Critical Thinking SKILLBUILDER

Interpreting Military Movements on Maps

Why Learn This Skill?

Although wars begin over many different issues, they end as fights to control territory. Because wars are basically fought over land, maps are particularly useful tools for seeing the "big picture" of a war.

Learning the Skill

The map key is essential in interpreting military maps. The key explains what the map's colors and symbols represent. Use the following steps to study the key:

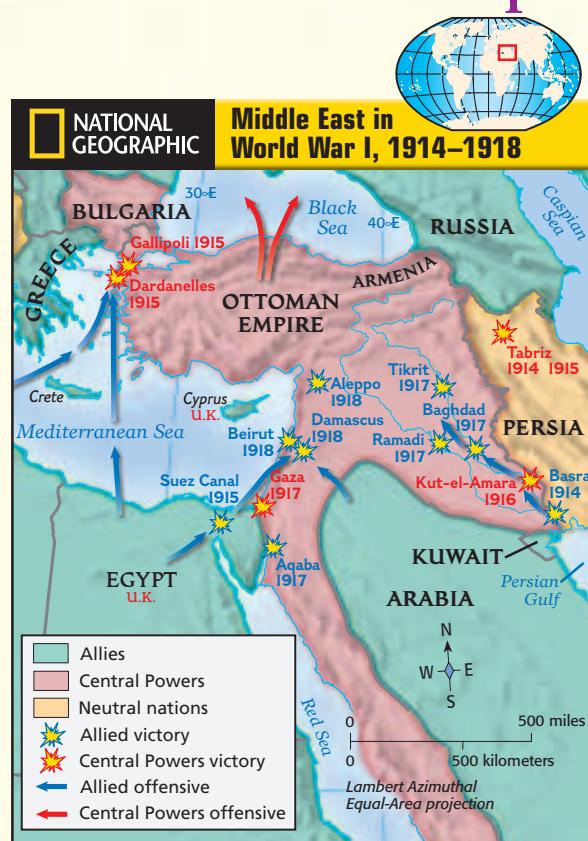
- Determine the meanings of the colors on the map. Usually, colors represent different sides in the conflict.
- Identify all symbols. These may include symbols for battle sites, victories, and types of military units and equipment.
- Study the arrows, which show the direction of military movements. Because these movements occur over time, some maps give dates showing when and where troops advanced and retreated.

Once you have studied the key and the map, follow the progress of the campaign that is shown. Notice where each side began, in which direction it moved, where the two sides fought, and which side claimed victory.

Practicing the Skill

The map on this page shows the Middle East front during World War I. Study the map and then answer the following questions.

- On which side did Arabia and Egypt fight?
- Who won the battle at the Dardanelles?
- Describe the movement of the Central Powers offensives.
- When did the Allies win the most battles in the Middle East?



Applying the Skill

Choose a military map from this text or select one from another source. Study the map selection carefully. Write a paragraph about the war or conflict as it is depicted in the map. You should respond to issues such as where most of the fighting occurred; the year in which the most significant advance was made, and by whom; and whether or not there was a decisive victory by either side. Attach a copy of the map to your report.

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

Using Key Terms

- The practice of requiring young people to join the military, which was followed by many nations before World War I, was called _____.
- Before World War I, many European nations completed the ____ of their military by assembling troops and supplies for war.
- The development of ____ baffled military leaders who had been trained to fight wars of movement.
- World War I became a ____, or war based on wearing the other side down by constant attacks and heavy losses.
- World War I involved a complete mobilization of resources and people that affected the lives of all citizens in the warring countries—a situation called _____.
- European nations set up _____, or systems directed by government agencies to mobilize the entire resources of their nations.
- Councils of workers and soldiers called ____ challenged the provisional government established after Nicholas II stepped down.
- ____ is the term used to describe the Communists' centralization of control over its economy.
- Germany was required by the Treaty of Versailles to make payments called ____ to the nations that won the war.

Reviewing Key Facts

- Government** How did the British government try to eliminate opposition from the people who were opposed to World War I?
- Culture** Explain the social changes promised by the Bolshevik slogans.
- History** State the significance of the following dates: 1914, 1917, and 1918.
- Culture** Describe the role and contribution of women during World War I. What was their status after the war?
- History** Why were Alexandra and Rasputin able to control the czar's government during much of World War I?
- Government** How did international alliances help to draw nations into World War I?
- History** Why was a "breakthrough" such an important military goal during the war?
- Government** What did the creation of a League of Nations have to do with Woodrow Wilson's willingness to sign the Treaty of Versailles?
- History** Why did Russia withdraw from the war? How did that affect Germany?
- Science and Technology** What innovations in military warfare occurred during World War I?

Chapter Summary

The outline below shows four themes of the chapter.

Cooperation: Alliance System

- Two loose alliances form in Europe: the Triple Alliance (Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy) and the Triple Entente (France, Great Britain, and Russia).
- Alliances draw France and Great Britain into a conflict in which they have no direct interest.

Conflict: World War I

- Combat takes the forms of trench warfare on the Western Front, a war of movement on the Eastern Front, and German submarine warfare in the waters surrounding Great Britain.
- For the first time in history, airplanes are used for reconnaissance, combat, and bombing.

Revolution: Russian Revolution

- Military and economic crises lead to a spontaneous revolution that ends the reign of the czars.
- The Bolsheviks overthrow the provisional government and establish a Communist regime.

Internationalism: Peace of Paris

- The peace is a compromise between international and national interests.
- Germany's reparation payments, military reductions, and territorial losses create a lasting bitterness that helps spark World War II.

CLICK HERE

Self-Check Quiz

Visit the *Glencoe World History* Web site at wh.glencoe.com and click on **Chapter 23—Self-Check Quiz** to prepare for the Chapter Test.

Critical Thinking

20. **Decision Making** Compare Lenin's beliefs and goals with those of Woodrow Wilson. Which leader has had the greater impact on world history? Why?
21. **Analyzing** Why do some people feel that it is unlikely that a lasting peace could have been created at the end of World War I?

Writing about History

22. **Persuasive Writing** Both Britain and the United States passed laws during the war to silence opposition and censor the press. Are the ideals of a democratic government consistent with such laws? Provide arguments for and against.

Analyzing Sources

Reread the quote below, which appears on page 719, then answer the questions below.

“I cannot tell you how exasperated people are getting here at the continual worry which that little country [Serbia] causes to Austria under encouragement from Russia. . . . It will be lucky if Europe succeeds in avoiding war as a result of the present crisis.”

23. Where is Vienna located? Is the ambassador neutral in his comments or does he favor one country over another?
24. Compare the ways in which the actual events that started World War I mirror this ambassador's concerns.

Applying Technology Skills

25. **Interpreting the Past** Use the Internet to research the total costs of World War I. Determine how many people, both military and civilian, were killed or wounded on both sides. Also find the monetary costs of the war for both sides. Create a table that clearly shows your findings.

Making Decisions

26. Some historians argue that the heavy psychological and economic penalties placed on Germany by the Treaty of Versailles created the conditions for World War II. How might the treaty have been written to alleviate worldwide concern over German militarism without exacting such a heavy toll?

Paris Peace Conference: The Big Three

Country	United States	Great Britain	France
Leader	Wilson	Lloyd George	Clemenceau
Goal	Lasting peace	Germany pays	French security

Treaty of Versailles

International Relations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> League of Nations is formed.
Responsibility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Germany accepts responsibility for starting the war and agrees to make reparations to the Allies.
Territory	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> New nations are formed. Germany returns Alsace and Lorraine to France. France and Great Britain acquire mandates in the Middle East.
Military Strength	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Germany will reduce its army and navy and eliminate its air force. German land along the Rhine River is demilitarized.

Analyzing Maps and Charts

Using the chart above, answer the following questions:

27. Which of the Big Three nations at the Treaty of Versailles wanted to punish Germany for World War I?
28. What was the effect of the Treaty of Versailles on Germany's military?
29. What territory did France regain after the war?



Standardized Test Practice

Directions: Choose the best answer to the following statement.

The role Russia played in World War I can best be described as

- a strong supporter of Germany and Austria.
- a strong supporter of France and Great Britain.
- a weak role due to the Russian Revolution.
- militarily strong because of its vast army.

Test-Taking Tip: An important word in this question is *best*. Although it is true that Russia entered on the side of France and Great Britain, it could never provide strong support due to internal weaknesses.

CHAPTER 24

The West Between the Wars

1919–1939

Key Events

As you read this chapter, look for the key events in the history of the Western countries between the wars.

- Europe faced severe economic problems after World War I, including inflation and the Great Depression.
- Dictatorial regimes began to spread into Italy, Germany, and across eastern Europe.
- The uncertainties and disillusionment of the times were reflected in the art and literature of the 1920s and 1930s.

The Impact Today

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

- The current debate over the federal government's role in local affairs and social problems developed in part from Franklin D. Roosevelt's solution to the Great Depression.
- Automobiles, motion pictures, and radios transformed the ways in which people lived during the 1920s and 1930s and still impact how we live our lives today.



World History Video The Chapter 24 video, "The Rise of Dictators," chronicles the growth of dictatorial regimes in Europe after 1918.

Dorothea Lange's famous photograph, *Migrant Mother*, 1936, captured the human hardship and suffering resulting from the Great Depression.



1920	1922	1924	1926	1928
1922	1924	1926	1928	1929

1922 Communists create the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics

1924 Hitler writes first volume of *Mein Kampf*

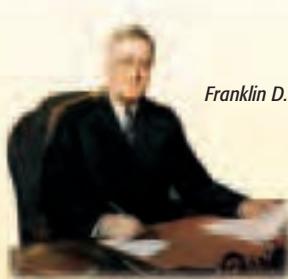
1926 Mussolini creates a Fascist dictatorship in Italy

1929 The Great Depression begins

1929 Stalin establishes dictatorship in Soviet Union



Hitler and the Nazi Party used rallies, such as this one at Nuremberg in 1937, to create support for their policies.



Franklin D. Roosevelt

1932

Franklin Delano Roosevelt is elected president of the United States

1930

1932

1934

1936

John Maynard Keynes's *General Theory of Employment, Interest, and Money* is published



Flags of the Hitler Youth organization

1933

Hitler becomes chancellor of Germany

1936

Spanish Civil War begins

HISTORY Online

Chapter Overview

Visit the *Glencoe World History* Web site at wh.glencoe.com and click on **Chapter 24—Chapter Overview** to preview chapter information.

CLICK HERE



During the Great Depression, many people had to resort to desperate measures to find food.

The Great Depression

After World War I, Europe was faced with severe economic problems. Most devastating of all was the Great Depression that began at the end of 1929. The Great Depression brought misery to millions of people. Begging for food on the streets became widespread, especially when soup kitchens were unable to keep up with the demand.

More and more people were homeless and moved around looking for work and shelter. One observer in Germany reported, "An almost unbroken chain of homeless men extends the whole length of the great Hamburg-Berlin highway . . . [w]hole families had piled all their goods into baby carriages and wheelbarrows that they were pushing along as they plodded forward in dumb despair." In the United States, the homeless set up shantytowns they named "Hoovervilles" after President Herbert Hoover.

In their misery, some people saw suicide as the only solution. One unemployed person said, "Today, when I am experiencing this for the first time, I think that I should prefer to do away with myself, to take gas, to jump into the river, or leap from some high place. . . . Would I really come to such a decision? I do not know."

Social unrest spread rapidly. Some of the unemployed staged hunger marches to get attention. In democratic countries, people began to listen to, and vote for, radical voices calling for extreme measures.

Why It Matters

In the 1920s, many people assumed that Europe and the world were about to enter a new era of international peace, economic growth, and political democracy. These hopes were not realized, however. Most people wanted peace but were unsure how to maintain it. Plans for economic revival gave way to inflation and then to the Great Depression. Making matters worse, economic hard times gave rise to dictatorial regimes across much of Europe. The world was filled with uncertainty.

History and You Make a diagram listing the problems faced by the United States, Germany, and France during the Great Depression. Indicate how the problems were interrelated. Using what you learn from your diagram, explain how recovery would also have a chain effect.

SECTION 1

The Futile Search for Stability

Guide to Reading

Main Ideas

- Peace and prosperity were short-lived after World War I.
- After 1929, a global economic depression weakened the Western democracies.

Key Terms

depression, collective bargaining, deficit spending

Preview of Events

1920	1925	1930	1935	1940
1921 German debt determined	1924 German debt restructured	1925 Treaty of Locarno	1929 U.S. stock market crashes	1935 WPA is established
				1936 Popular Front is formed in France

People to Identify

John Maynard Keynes,
Franklin Delano Roosevelt

Places to Locate

Ruhr Valley, Switzerland

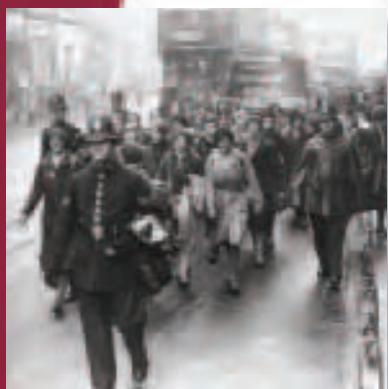
Preview Questions

- What was the significance of the Dawes Plan and the Treaty of Locarno?
- How was Germany affected by the Great Depression?

Reading Strategy

Compare and Contrast Use a table like the one below to compare France's Popular Front with the New Deal in the United States.

Popular Front	New Deal



Hunger marchers in London, 1932

Voices from the Past

On October 27, 1932, a group of workers marched in London to protest government policies. One observer reported:

By mid-day approximately 100,000 London workers were moving towards Hyde Park from all parts of London, to give the greatest welcome to the hunger marchers that had ever been seen in Hyde Park. . . . As the last contingent of marchers entered the park gates, trouble broke out with the police. It started with the special constables [police officers]; not being used to their task, they lost their heads, and, as the crowds swept forward on to the space where the meetings were to be held, the specials drew their truncheons [billy clubs] in an effort to control the sea of surging humanity. This incensed the workers, who turned on the constables and put them to flight.

—*Eyewitness to History*, John Carey, ed., 1987

Worker unrest was but one of the social problems in Europe in the 1920s and 1930s.

Uneasy Peace, Uncertain Security

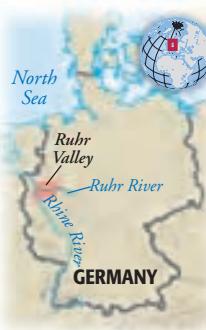
The peace settlement at the end of World War I had tried to fulfill nineteenth-century dreams of nationalism by creating new boundaries and new states. From the beginning, however, the settlement left nations unhappy. Border disputes poisoned relations in eastern Europe for years. Many Germans vowed to revise the terms of the Treaty of Versailles.

A Weak League of Nations President Woodrow Wilson had realized that the peace settlement included unwise provisions that could serve as new causes for conflict. He had placed many of his hopes for the future in the League of Nations. This organization, however, was not very effective in maintaining the peace.

One problem was the failure of the United States to join the league. Most Americans did not wish to be involved in European affairs. The U.S. Senate, despite Wilson's wishes, refused to ratify, or approve, the Treaty of Versailles. That meant the United States could not be a member of the League of Nations, which automatically weakened the organization's effectiveness. As time would prove, the remaining League members could not agree to use force against aggression.

French Demands Between 1919 and 1924, desire for security led the French government to demand strict enforcement of the Treaty of Versailles. This tough policy toward Germany began with the issue of reparations, which were the payments that the Germans were supposed to make for the damage they had done in the war.

In April 1921, the Allied Reparations Commission determined that Germany owed 132 billion German marks (33 billion U.S. dollars) for reparations, payable in annual installments of 2.5 billion marks. The new German republic made its first payment in 1921.



By the following year, however, the German government, faced with financial problems, announced that it was unable to pay any more. France was outraged and sent troops to occupy the **Ruhr Valley**, Germany's chief industrial and mining center. France planned to collect reparations by operating and using the Ruhr mines and factories.

Inflation in Germany The German government adopted a policy of passive resistance to French occupation. German workers went on strike, and the government mainly paid their salaries by printing more paper money. This only added to the inflation (rise in prices) that had already begun in Germany by the end of the war.

CONNECTIONS Around The World

The Great Flu Epidemic

A flu epidemic at the end of World War I proved disastrous to people all over the world. Some observers believe that it began among American soldiers in Kansas. When they were sent abroad to fight, they carried the virus to Europe. By the end of 1918, many soldiers in European armies had been stricken with the flu.

The disease spread quickly throughout Europe. The three chief statesmen at the peace conference—the American president Woodrow Wilson, the British prime minister David Lloyd George, and the French premier Georges Clemenceau—all were sick with the flu during the negotiations that led to the Treaty of Versailles.



◀ Flu victim

The Spanish flu, as this strain of influenza was called, was known for its swift and deadly action. Many people died within a day of being infected. Complications also arose from bacterial infections in the lungs, which caused a deadly form of pneumonia.

In 1918 and 1919, the Spanish flu spread around the world with devastating results. Death tolls were enormous: in Russia, 450,000; in India, at least 6,000,000; in the United States, 550,000. It has been estimated that 22 million people, or more than twice the number of people killed in World War I, died from the great flu epidemic between 1918 and 1919.

Comparing Cultures

Using outside sources, research the medical advancements made since 1919 in treating and preventing influenza viruses. Could another flu epidemic occur today? Has the flu danger been replaced by other medical concerns?

The German mark soon became worthless. In 1914, 4.2 marks equaled 1 U.S. dollar. By November 1, 1923, it took 130 billion marks to equal 1 dollar. By the end of November, the ratio had increased to an incredible 4.2 trillion marks to 1 dollar.

Evidence of runaway inflation was everywhere. Workers used wheelbarrows to carry home their weekly pay. One woman left a basket of money outside while she went into a store. When she came out, the money was there, but the basket had been stolen.

Economic adversity led to political upheavals, and both France and Germany began to seek a way out of the disaster. In August 1924, an international commission produced a new plan for reparations. The **Dawes Plan**, named after the American banker who chaired the commission, first reduced reparations. It then coordinated Germany's annual payments with its ability to pay.

The Dawes Plan also granted an initial \$200 million loan for German recovery. This loan soon opened the door to heavy American investment in Europe. A brief period of European prosperity followed, but it only lasted from 1924 to 1929.

The Treaty of Locarno With prosperity came a new European diplomacy. A spirit of cooperation was fostered by the foreign ministers of Germany and France, Gustav Stresemann and Aristide Briand. In 1925, they signed the **Treaty of Locarno**, which guaranteed Germany's new western borders with France and Belgium.

The Locarno pact was viewed by many as the beginning of a new era of European peace. On the day after the pact was concluded, the headlines in *The New York Times* read "France and Germany Ban War Forever." The *London Times* declared "Peace at Last."

The new spirit of cooperation grew even stronger when Germany joined the League of Nations in March 1926. Two years later, the Kellogg-Briand pact brought even more hope. Sixty-three nations signed this accord



Geography Skills

The new nationalism, as reflected by the European political map of the 1920s, did not solve Europe's problems after the war.

1. Interpreting Maps Compare the map above to the map of Europe before World War I on page 718. List all the countries shown on this map that are *not* shown on the earlier map. What does your list tell you about the political results of World War I?

2. Applying Geography Skills Again, compare the map above to the one on page 718. Create a two-column table. Label one column **Changed Boundaries**, and the other **Unchanged Boundaries**. List countries under the appropriate column.

written by U.S. secretary of state Frank B. Kellogg and French foreign minister Aristide Briand. These nations pledged "to renounce war as an instrument of national policy." Nothing was said, however, about what would be done if anyone violated the pact.

Unfortunately, the spirit of Locarno was based on little real substance. Promises not to go to war were worthless without a way to enforce these promises. Furthermore, not even the spirit of Locarno could convince nations to cut back on their weapons. The League of Nations Covenant had suggested that

nations reduce their military forces to make war less probable. Germany, of course, had been forced to reduce its military forces. At the time, it was thought that other states would later do the same. However, states were simply unwilling to trust their security to anyone but their own military forces.

 **Reading Check** **Explaining** Why was the League of Nations unable to maintain peace?

The Great Depression

 In this section, you will learn how Western nations suffered a major economic collapse in the 1930s. This collapse, called the Great Depression, devastated morale, led to extremist political parties, and created the conditions for World War II.

The brief period of prosperity that began in Europe in 1924 ended in an economic collapse that came to be known as the Great Depression. A **depression** is a period of low economic activity and rising unemployment.

Causes of the Depression Two factors played a major role in the start of the Great Depression. One important factor was a series of downturns in the economies of individual nations in the second half of the 1920s. By the mid-1920s, for example, prices for farm products, especially wheat, were falling rapidly because of overproduction.

The second factor in the coming of the Great Depression was an international financial crisis involving the U.S. stock market. We have seen that

Economic downturns led to labor unrest in many countries.



much of the European prosperity between 1924 and 1929 was built on U.S. bank loans to Germany. Germany needed the U.S. loans to pay reparations to France and Great Britain.

During the 1920s, the U.S. stock market was booming. By 1928, American investors had begun to pull money out of Germany to invest it in the stock market. Then, in October 1929, the U.S. stock market crashed, and the prices of stocks plunged.

In a panic, U.S. investors withdrew even more funds from Germany and other European markets. This withdrawal weakened the banks of Germany and other European states. The Credit-Anstalt, Vienna's most famous bank, collapsed in May 1931. By then, trade was slowing down, industrial production was declining, and unemployment was rising.

Responses to the Depression Economic depression was by no means new to Europe. However, the extent of the economic downturn after 1929 truly made this the Great Depression. During 1932, the worst year of the depression, nearly one British worker in every four was unemployed. About six million Germans, or roughly 40 percent of the German labor force, were out of work at the same time. The unemployed and homeless filled the streets.

Governments did not know how to deal with the crisis. They tried a traditional solution of cutting costs by lowering wages and raising tariffs to exclude foreign goods from home markets. These measures made the economic crisis worse, however, and had serious political effects.

One effect of the economic crisis was increased government activity in the economy. This occurred even in countries that, like the United States, had a strong laissez-faire tradition—a belief that the government should not interfere in the economy.

Another effect was a renewed interest in Marxist doctrines. Marx's prediction that capitalism would destroy itself through overproduction seemed to be coming true. Communism thus became more popular, especially among workers and intellectuals.

Finally, the Great Depression led masses of people to follow political leaders who offered simple solutions in return for dictatorial power. Everywhere, democracy seemed on the defensive in the 1930s.

 **Reading Check** **Summarizing** What were the results of the Great Depression?

Democratic States after the War

President Woodrow Wilson had claimed that the war had been fought to make the world safe for democracy. In 1919, his claim seemed justified. Most major European states and many minor ones had democratic governments.

In a number of states, women could now vote. Male political leaders had rewarded women for their contributions to the war effort by granting them voting rights. (Exceptions were France, Italy, and **Switzerland**. Women gained the right to vote in 1944 in France, 1945 in Italy, and 1971 in Switzerland.)

In the 1920s, Europe seemed to be returning to the political trends of the prewar era—parliamentary regimes and the growth of individual liberties. This was not, however, an easy process. Four years of total war and four years of postwar turmoil made a “return to normalcy” difficult.

Germany The Imperial Germany of William II had come to an end in 1918 with Germany’s defeat in the war. A German democratic state known as the **Weimar (VY•MAHR) Republic** was then created. The Weimar Republic was plagued by problems.

For one thing, the republic had no truly outstanding political leaders. In 1925, Paul von Hindenburg, a World War I military hero, was elected president at the age of 77. Hindenburg was a traditional military man who did not fully endorse the republic he had been elected to serve.

The Weimar Republic also faced serious economic problems. As we have seen, Germany experienced runaway inflation in 1922 and 1923. With it came serious social problems. Widows, teachers, civil servants, and others who lived on fixed incomes all watched their monthly incomes become worthless, or their life savings disappear. These losses increasingly pushed the middle class toward political parties that were hostile to the republic.

To make matters worse, after a period of relative prosperity from 1924 to 1929, Germany was struck by the Great Depression. In 1930, unemployment had grown to 3 million people by March and to 4.38 million by December. The depression paved the way for fear and the rise of extremist parties.

France After the defeat of Germany, France became the strongest power on the European continent. Its greatest need was to rebuild the areas that had been devastated in the war. However, France, too, suffered financial problems after the war.



This German woman is using her worthless money to start a fire in her kitchen stove.

Because it had a more balanced economy than other nations, France did not begin to feel the full effects of the Great Depression until 1932. The economic instability it then suffered soon had political effects. During a nineteen-month period in 1932 and 1933, six different cabinets were formed as France faced political chaos. Finally, in June 1936, a coalition of leftist parties—Communists, Socialists, and Radicals—formed the Popular Front government.

The Popular Front started a program for workers that some have called the French New Deal. This program was named after the New Deal in the United States (discussed later in this section). The French New Deal gave workers the right to **collective bargaining** (the right of unions to negotiate with employers over wages and hours), a 40-hour workweek in industry, a two-week paid vacation, and a minimum wage.

The Popular Front’s policies, however, failed to solve the problems of the depression. By 1938, the French had little confidence in their political system.

Great Britain During the war, Britain had lost many of the markets for its industrial products to the United

States and Japan. Such industries as coal, steel, and textiles declined after the war, leading to a rise in unemployment. In 1921, 2 million Britons were out of work. Britain soon rebounded, however, and experienced limited prosperity from 1925 to 1929.

By 1929, Britain faced the growing effects of the Great Depression. The Labour Party, which had become the largest party in Britain, failed to solve the nation's economic problems and fell from power in 1931. A new government, led by the Conservatives, claimed credit for bringing Britain out of the worst stages of the depression. It did so by using the traditional policies of balanced budgets and protective tariffs.



John Maynard Keynes

Political leaders in Britain largely ignored the new ideas of a British economist, **John Maynard Keynes**, who published his *General Theory of Employment, Interest, and Money* in 1936. He condemned the old theory that, in a free economy, depressions should be left to resolve themselves without governmental interference.

Keynes argued that unemployment came not from overproduction, but from a decline in demand. Demand, in turn, could be increased by putting people back to work building highways and public buildings. The government should finance such projects even if it had to engage in **deficit spending**, or had to go into debt.

The United States After Germany, no Western nation was more affected by the Great Depression than the United States. By 1932, U.S. industrial production had fallen almost 50 percent from its 1929 level. By 1933, there were more than 12 million unemployed.

Under these circumstances, the Democrat **Franklin Delano Roosevelt** was able to win a landslide victory in the 1932 presidential election. A believer in free enterprise, Roosevelt realized that capitalism had to be reformed if it was to be "saved." He pursued a policy of active government intervention in the economy known as the **New Deal**.

The New Deal included an increased program of public works, including the Works Progress Administration (WPA). The WPA, established in 1935, was a government organization that employed about 3 million people at its peak. They worked at building bridges, roads, post offices, and airports.

The Roosevelt administration was also responsible for new social legislation that began the U.S. welfare system. In 1935, the Social Security Act created a system of old-age pensions and unemployment insurance.

The New Deal provided reforms that perhaps prevented a social revolution in the United States. However, it did not solve the unemployment problems of the Great Depression. In 1938, American unemployment still stood at more than 10 million. Only World War II and the growth of weapons industries brought U.S. workers back to full employment.

Reading Check **Explaining** What did John Maynard Keynes think would resolve the Great Depression?

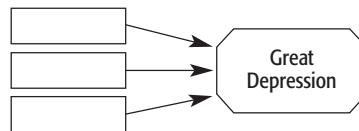
SECTION | ASSESSMENT

Checking for Understanding

1. **Define** depression, collective bargaining, deficit spending.
2. **Identify** Dawes Plan, Treaty of Locarno, John Maynard Keynes, Weimar Republic, Franklin Delano Roosevelt, New Deal.
3. **Locate** Ruhr Valley, Switzerland.
4. **Summarize** the intent of the Roosevelt administration's New Deal.
5. **List** the provisions of the Dawes Plan.

Critical Thinking

6. **Evaluate** Determine the validity of the following quotation: "Promises not to go to war were worthless without a way to enforce these promises."
7. **Cause and Effect** Use a diagram like the one below to list the causes of the Great Depression.



Analyzing Visuals

8. **Examine** the photograph on page 755. How would you survive if currency became worthless? Who would be at an advantage?

Writing About History

9. **Informative Writing** Research and write an essay that explains how the Great Depression caused extremist political parties to emerge throughout the world. Identify which parties are still active in the United States.

Critical Thinking SKILLBUILDER

Analyzing Political Cartoons

Why Learn This Skill?

What is your favorite comic strip? Why do you read it? Many people enjoy comics because they use interesting or amusing visuals to convey a story or idea.

Cartoons do not only appear in the newspaper's funny pages. They are also in the editorial section, where they give opinions on political issues. Political cartoons have been around for centuries and are good historical sources because they reflect the popular views on current affairs.

Learning the Skill

Using caricature and symbols, political cartoonists help readers see relationships and draw conclusions about events. A caricature exaggerates a detail such as a subject's features. Cartoonists use caricature to create a positive or negative impression. For example, if a cartoon shows one figure three times larger than another, it implies that one figure is more powerful than the other.

A symbol is an image or object that represents something else. For example, a cartoonist may use a crown to represent monarchy. Symbols often represent nations or political parties. Uncle Sam is a common symbol for the United States.

To analyze a political cartoon:

- Examine the cartoon thoroughly.
- Identify the topic and principal characters.
- Read labels and messages.
- Note relationships between the figures and symbols.
- Determine what point the cartoon is making.

Practicing the Skill

In the next section of this chapter, you will be reading about several dictators who rose to power in Europe in the years following World War I.

The political cartoon on this page, published in 1938, makes a statement about these dictators and the reaction of the Western democracies toward them. Study the cartoon and then answer these questions.

- 1 What do the figures represent?
- 2 Why is the standing figure so large?
- 3 What is the standing figure holding and what is it attached to?
- 4 What is the sitting figure doing?
- 5 What is the message of the cartoon?



WOULD YOU OBLIGE ME WITH A MATCH PLEASE?

David Low, London Evening Standard

Applying the Skill

Choose a current issue on which you hold a strong opinion. Draw a political cartoon expressing your opinion on this issue. Show it to a friend to find out if the message is clear. If not, revise the cartoon to clarify its point.

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



SECTION 2

The Rise of Dictatorial Regimes

Guide to Reading

Main Ideas

- Mussolini established a modern totalitarian state in Italy.
- As leader of the Soviet Union, Stalin eliminated people who threatened his power.

Key Terms

totalitarian state, fascism, New Economic Policy, Politburo, collectivization

Preview of Events

◆ 1920

1919

Mussolini creates the *Fascio di Combattimento*

◆ 1925

1924

Lenin dies

◆ 1930

1928

Stalin launches his First Five-Year Plan

◆ 1935

1929

Mussolini recognizes independence of Vatican City

◆ 1940

1939

The Spanish Civil War ends

People to Identify

Benito Mussolini, Joseph Stalin, Francisco Franco

Places to Locate

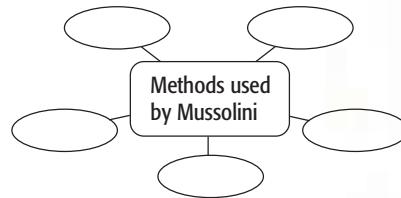
Russia, Madrid

Preview Questions

- To what extent was Fascist Italy a totalitarian state?
- How did Joseph Stalin establish a totalitarian regime in the Soviet Union?

Reading Strategy

Categorizing Information Use a web diagram like the one below to list methods used by Mussolini to create a Fascist dictatorship.



Benito Mussolini

Voices from the Past

In 1932, Benito Mussolini, the dictator of Italy, published a statement of his movement's principles:

“Anti-individualistic, the Fascist conception of life stresses the importance of the State and accepts the individual only in so far as his interests coincide with those of the State. . . . The Fascist conception of the State is all-embracing; outside of it no human or spiritual values can exist. Thus understood, fascism is totalitarian, and the Fascist State . . . interprets, develops, and potentiates [makes effective] the whole life of a people . . . fascism does not, generally speaking, believe in the possibility or utility of perpetual peace. . . . War alone keys up all human energies to their maximum tension and sets the seal of nobility on those people who have the courage to face it.”

—Benito Mussolini, “The Doctrine of Fascism,” *Italian Fascisms*,
Adrian Lyttleton, ed., 1973

These were the principles of the movement Mussolini called fascism.

The Rise of Dictators

The apparent triumph of democracy in Europe in 1919 was extremely short-lived. By 1939, only two major European states—France and Great Britain—remained democratic. Italy, the Soviet Union, Germany, and many other European states adopted dictatorial regimes. These regimes took both old and new forms.

A new form of dictatorship was the modern totalitarian state. A **totalitarian** is a government that aims to control the political, economic, social, intellectual, and cultural lives of its citizens. New totalitarian regimes pushed the power of the central state far beyond what it had been in the past.

These totalitarian states wanted more than passive obedience. They wanted to conquer the minds and hearts of their subjects. They achieved this goal through mass propaganda techniques and high-speed modern communication. Modern technology also provided totalitarian states with an unprecedented ability to impose their wishes on their subjects.

The totalitarian states that emerged were led by a single leader and a single party. They rejected the ideal of limited government power and the guarantee of individual freedoms. Instead, individual freedom was subordinated to the collective will of the masses. This collective will of the masses, however, was organized and determined by the leader. The totalitarian state expected the active involvement of the masses in the achievement of its goals, whether those goals included war, a socialist state, or a thousand-year empire like the one Adolf Hitler wanted to establish.

 **Reading Check Summarizing** What is the goal of a totalitarian state?

Fascism in Italy

In the early 1920s, **Benito Mussolini** (MOO•suh•LEE•nee) established the first European fascist movement in Italy. Mussolini began his political career as a Socialist. In 1919, he created a new political group, the *Fascio di Combattimento*, or League of Combat. The term *fascism* is derived from that name.

As a political philosophy, **fascism** (FA•SHIH•zuhm) glorifies the state above the individual by emphasizing the need for a strong central government led by a dictatorial ruler. In a fascist state, people are controlled by the government, and any opposition is suppressed.

Rise of Fascism Like other European countries, Italy experienced severe economic problems after World War I. Inflation grew, and both industrial and agricultural workers staged strikes. Socialists spoke of revolution. The middle class began to fear a Communist takeover like the one that had recently occurred in **Russia**. Industrial and agricultural strikes created more division. Mussolini emerged from this background of widespread unrest.



Geography Skills

Many European countries adopted dictatorial regimes to solve their problems in the 1920s and 1930s.

- Interpreting Maps** Which countries shown on the map above are Fascist? Which are authoritarian? Which are democratic states?
- Applying Geography Skills** Pose and answer a question that creates a comparison between a country's political status as shown on this map and the side that country fought on in World War I.

In 1920 and 1921, Mussolini formed bands of black-shirted, armed Fascists called *squadristi* or Blackshirts. These bands attacked socialist offices and newspapers. They also used violence to break up strikes. Both middle-class industrialists who feared working-class strikes and large landowners who objected to agricultural strikes began to support Mussolini's Fascist movement.

By 1922, Mussolini's movement was growing quickly. The middle-class fear of socialism, communism, and disorder made the Fascists increasingly attractive to many people. In addition, Mussolini realized that the Italian people were angry over Italy's failure to receive more land in the peace settlement that followed the war. He understood that nationalism was a powerful force. Thus, he demanded more land for Italy and won thousands of converts to fascism with his patriotic and nationalistic appeals.

Benito Mussolini

1883–1945—Italian dictator



Benito Mussolini was the founder of the first Fascist movement. He was an unruly and rebellious child who was expelled from school once for stabbing a fellow pupil. Ultimately, he received a diploma and worked for a short time as an elementary school teacher.

Mussolini became a Socialist and gradually became well known in Italian Socialist circles.

In 1912, he obtained the important position of editor of *Avanti (Forward)*, the official Socialist daily newspaper.

After being expelled from the Socialist Party, he formed his own political movement, the Fascist movement. When the Fascists did poorly in the Italian election of November 1919, Mussolini said that fascism had "come to a dead end." He then toyed with the idea of emigrating to the United States to become a journalist.

In 1922, Mussolini and the Fascists threatened to march on Rome if they were not given power. Mussolini exclaimed, "Either we are allowed to govern, or we will seize power." Victor Emmanuel III, the king of Italy, gave in and made Mussolini prime minister.

Mussolini used his position as prime minister to create a Fascist dictatorship. New laws gave the government the right to suspend any publications that criticized the Catholic Church, the monarchy, or the state. The prime minister was made head of the government with the power to make laws by decree. The police were given unrestricted authority to arrest and jail anyone for either nonpolitical or political crimes.

In 1926, the Fascists outlawed all other political parties in Italy and established a secret police, known as the OVRA. By the end of the year, Mussolini ruled Italy as *Il Duce* (eel DOO•chay), "The Leader."

The Fascist State Since Mussolini believed that the Fascist state should be totalitarian, he used various means to establish complete control over the Italian people. As we have seen, Mussolini created a secret police force, the OVRA, whose purpose was to watch citizens' political activities and enforce government policies. Police actions in Italy, however, were never as repressive or savage as those in Nazi Germany (discussed later in this chapter).

The Italian Fascists also tried to exercise control over all forms of mass media, including newspapers,

radio, and film. The media was used to spread propaganda. Propaganda was intended to mold Italians into a single-minded Fascist community. Most Italian Fascist propaganda, however, was fairly unsophisticated and mainly consisted of simple slogans like "Mussolini Is Always Right."

The Fascists also used organizations to promote the ideals of fascism and to control the population. For example, by 1939, Fascist youth groups included about 66 percent of the population between the ages of 8 and 18. These youth groups particularly focused on military activities and values.

With these organizations, the Fascists hoped to create a nation of new Italians who were fit, disciplined, and war-loving. In practice, however, the Fascists largely maintained traditional social attitudes. This is especially evident in their policies regarding women. The Fascists portrayed the family as the pillar of the state and women as the foundation of the family. Women were to be homemakers and mothers, which was "their natural and fundamental mission in life," according to Mussolini.

Despite his attempts, Mussolini never achieved the degree of totalitarian control seen in Hitler's Germany or Stalin's Soviet Union (discussed later in this chapter). The Italian Fascist Party did not completely destroy the country's old power structure. Some institutions, including the armed forces, were not absorbed into the Fascist state but managed to keep most of their independence. Victor Emmanuel was also retained as king.

Mussolini's compromise with the traditional institutions of Italy was especially evident in his relationship with the Catholic Church. In the Lateran Accords of February 1929, Mussolini's regime recognized the sovereign independence of a small area within Rome known as Vatican City. The Church had claimed this area since 1870. When Mussolini formally recognized that claim, the pope then recognized the Italian state.

Mussolini's regime also gave the Church a large grant of money and recognized Catholicism as the "sole religion of the state." In return, the Catholic Church urged Italians to support the Fascist regime.

In all areas of Italian life under Mussolini and the Fascists, there was a large gap between Fascist ideals and practices. The Italian Fascists promised

HISTORY Online

Web Activity Visit the Glencoe World History Web site at wh.glencoe.com and click on **Chapter 24—Student Web Activity** to learn more about the rise of fascism.



much but delivered considerably less. They would soon be overshadowed by a much more powerful Fascist movement to the north—that of Adolf Hitler, a student and admirer of Mussolini.

 **Reading Check** **Examining** How did Mussolini gain power in Italy?

A New Era in the Soviet Union

As we have seen, Lenin followed a policy of war communism during the civil war in Russia. The government controlled most industries and seized grain from peasants to ensure supplies for the army.

Once the war was over, peasants began to sabotage the communist program by hoarding food. The situation became even worse when drought caused a great famine between 1920 and 1922. As many as 5 million lives were lost. With agricultural disaster came industrial collapse. By 1921, industrial output was only 20 percent of its 1913 level.

Russia was exhausted. A peasant banner proclaimed, “Down with Lenin and horseflesh. Bring back the czar and pork.” As Leon Trotsky said, “The country, and the government with it, were at the very edge of the abyss.”

Lenin’s New Economic Policy In March 1921, Lenin pulled Russia back from the abyss. He abandoned war communism in favor of his **New Economic Policy** (NEP). The NEP was a modified version of the old capitalist system. Peasants were allowed to sell their produce openly. Retail stores, as well as small industries that employed fewer than 20 workers, could be privately owned and operated. Heavy industry, banking, and mines, however, remained in the hands of the government.

In 1922, Lenin and the Communists formally created a new state called the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, which is also known as the USSR (by its initials), or as the Soviet Union (by its shortened form). By that time, a revived market and a good harvest had brought an end to famine. Soviet agricultural production climbed to 75 percent of its prewar level.

Overall, the NEP saved the Soviet Union from complete economic disaster. Lenin and other leading Communists, however, only intended the NEP to be a temporary retreat from the goals of communism.

The Rise of Stalin Lenin died in 1924. A struggle for power began at once among the seven members of the **Politburo** (PAH•luht•BYOOR•OH)—a commit-

tee that had become the leading policy-making body of the Communist Party. The Politburo was severely divided over the future direction of the Soviet Union.

One group, led by Leon Trotsky, wanted to end the NEP and launch Russia on a path of rapid industrialization, chiefly at the expense of the peasants. This group also wanted to spread communism abroad and believed that the revolution in Russia would not survive without other communist states.

Another group in the Politburo rejected the idea of worldwide communist revolution. Instead, it wanted to focus on building a socialist state in Russia and to continue Lenin’s NEP. This group believed that rapid industrialization would harm the living standards of the Soviet peasants.

These divisions were underscored by an intense personal rivalry between Leon Trotsky and another Politburo member, **Joseph Stalin**. In 1924, Trotsky held the post of commissar of war. Stalin held the bureaucratic job of party general secretary. Because the general secretary appointed regional, district, city, and town party officials, this bureaucratic job actually became the most important position in the party.

Stalin used his post as general secretary to gain complete control of the Communist Party. The thousands of officials Stalin appointed provided him with support in his bid for power. By 1929, Stalin had eliminated from the Politburo the Bolsheviks of the revolutionary era and had established a powerful

People In History

Joseph Stalin

1879–1953—Soviet dictator



Joseph Stalin established a strong personal dictatorship over the Soviet Union. He joined the Bolsheviks in 1903 and came to Lenin’s attention after staging a daring bank robbery to get funds for the Bolshevik cause. His real last name was Dzhugashvili, but he adopted the name Stalin, which means “man of steel.”

Stalin was neither a dynamic speaker nor a forceful writer. He was a good organizer, however. His fellow Bolsheviks called him “Comrade Index-Card.”

Like Hitler, Stalin was one of the greatest mass murderers in human history. It is estimated that his policies and his deliberate executions led to the death of as many as 25 million people. At the time of his death in 1953, he was planning yet another purge of party members.



dictatorship. Trotsky, expelled from the party in 1927, eventually made his way to Mexico, where he was murdered in 1940, probably on Stalin's orders.

Five-Year Plans The Stalinist Era marked the beginning of an economic, social, and political revolution that was more sweeping in its results than were the revolutions of 1917. Stalin made a significant shift in economic policy in 1928 when he ended the NEP and launched his First Five-Year Plan. The **Five-Year Plans** set economic goals for five-year periods. Their purpose was to transform Russia virtually overnight from an agricultural into an industrial country.

The First Five-Year Plan emphasized maximum production of capital goods (goods devoted to the production of other goods, such as heavy machines) and armaments. The plan quadrupled the production of heavy machinery and doubled oil production. Between 1928 and 1937, during the first two Five-Year Plans, steel production in Russia increased

The period from the beginning of World War I to the beginning of World War II was one of dramatic change in Russia.

- 1. Interpreting Maps** From Moscow, in which direction would you go to find the Soviet Union's most productive farming area: northeast, southwest, northwest, or southeast?
- 2. Applying Geography Skills** Identify a particular area of the Soviet Union as shown on the map and explain why that area would have been of particular interest to Stalin during his First Five-Year Plan.

from 4 million to 18 million tons (3.628 to 16.326 million t) per year.

The social and political costs of industrialization were enormous. Little provision was made for caring for the expanded labor force in the cities. The number of workers increased by millions between 1932 and 1940, but total investment in housing actually declined after 1929. The result was that millions of workers and their families lived in pitiful conditions. Real wages in industry also declined by 43 percent between 1928 and 1940. Strict laws even limited where workers could move. To keep workers content, government propaganda stressed the need for sacrifice to create the new socialist state.

With rapid industrialization came an equally rapid collectivization of agriculture. **Collectivization** was a system in which private farms were eliminated. Instead, the government owned all of the land, while the peasants worked it.

Strong resistance to Stalin's plans came from peasants, who responded by hoarding crops and killing livestock. However, these actions only led Stalin to step up the program. By 1930, 10 million peasant households had been collectivized. By 1934, 26 million family farms had been collectivized into 250,000 units.

Costs of Stalin's Programs Collectivization was done at tremendous cost. The hoarding of food and the slaughter of livestock produced widespread famine. Stalin himself is supposed to have said that 10 million peasants died in the famines of 1932 and 1933. The only concession Stalin made to the peasants was that each collective farm worker was allowed to have one tiny, privately owned garden plot.

Stalin's programs had other costs as well. To achieve his goals, Stalin strengthened his control over the party bureaucracy. Those who resisted were sent into forced labor camps in Siberia.

Stalin's desire to make all decisions by himself also led to purges, or removals, of the Old Bolsheviks—those who had been involved in the early days of the movement. Between 1936 and 1938, the most promi-

nent Old Bolsheviks were put on trial and condemned to death.

During this same time, Stalin purged army officers, diplomats, union officials, party members, intellectuals, and numerous ordinary citizens. An estimated eight million Russians were arrested. Millions were sent to forced labor camps in Siberia, from which they never returned. Others were executed.

The Stalin Era also overturned much of the permissive social legislation that was enacted in the early 1920s. To promote equal rights for women, the Communists had made the divorce process easier, and they had also encouraged women to work outside the home. After Stalin came to power, the family was praised as a small collective in which parents were responsible for teaching the values of hard work, duty, and discipline to their children. Divorced fathers who did not support their children were heavily fined.

 **Reading Check** **Summarizing** What was Lenin's New Economic Policy?

Authoritarian States in the West

A number of governments in the Western world were not totalitarian but were authoritarian. These states adopted some of the features of totalitarian states, in particular, their use of police powers. However, the main concern of these authoritarian governments was not to create a new kind of mass society, but to preserve the existing social order.

Eastern Europe Some of these governments were found among the new states of eastern Europe. At first, it seemed that political democracy would become well established in eastern Europe after the war. Austria, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia (known as the kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes until 1929), Romania, Bulgaria, and Hungary all adopted parliamentary systems. However, most of these systems were soon replaced by authoritarian regimes.

Parliamentary systems failed in most eastern European states for several reasons. These states had little tradition of political democracy. In addition, they were mostly rural and agrarian. Many of the peasants were illiterate, and much of the land was still dominated by large landowners who feared the peasants. Ethnic conflicts also threatened these countries.

Powerful landowners, the churches, and even some members of the small middle class feared land

What If...

Trotsky had succeeded Lenin?

Lenin's death in 1924 caused a bitter political struggle to determine his successor. Although he had no influence over the final outcome, Lenin's testament, written in December 1922, predicted a split between Trotsky and Stalin. In his testament, read to delegates at the Thirteenth Congress, Lenin advised removing Stalin from his post as general secretary to prevent a power struggle.

Consider the Consequences Consider what would have happened if Stalin had not maintained his position of influence and had lost to Trotsky. Research Trotsky's beliefs, then write a short essay describing the direction the Soviet Union would have taken under his leadership.



History *through Art*

Guernica by Pablo Picasso, 1937

This famous painting is a strong anti-war statement. **What do the images say about the realities of war?**

reform, communist upheaval, and ethnic conflict. For this reason these groups looked to authoritarian governments to maintain the old system. Only Czechoslovakia, which had a large middle class, a liberal tradition, and a strong industrial base, maintained its political democracy.

Spain In Spain, too, political democracy failed to survive. Led by General **Francisco Franco**, Spanish military forces revolted against the democratic government in 1936. A brutal and bloody civil war began.

Foreign intervention complicated the Spanish Civil War. The Fascist regimes of Italy and Germany aided Franco's forces with arms, money, and men. Hitler used the Spanish Civil War as an opportunity to test the new weapons of his revived air force. The horrible destruction of Guernica by German bombers

in April 1937 was immortalized in a painting by the Spanish artist Pablo Picasso.

The Spanish republican government was aided by forty thousand foreign volunteers and by trucks, planes, tanks, and military advisers from the Soviet Union.

The Spanish Civil War came to an end when Franco's forces captured **Madrid** in 1939. Franco established a dictatorship that favored large landowners, businesspeople, and the Catholic clergy. Because it favored traditional groups and did not try to control every aspect of people's lives, Franco's dictatorship is an example of a regime that was authoritarian rather than totalitarian.

Reading Check **Explaining** How did Czechoslovakia maintain its political democracy?

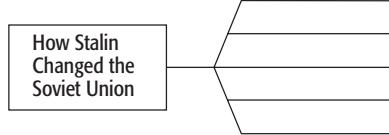
SECTION 2 ASSESSMENT

Checking for Understanding

1. **Define** totalitarian state, fascism, New Economic Policy, Politburo, collectivization.
2. **Identify** Benito Mussolini, Joseph Stalin, Five-Year Plan, Francisco Franco.
3. **Locate** Russia, Madrid.
4. **Explain** how Stalin gained control of the Communist Party after Lenin died.
5. **List** the countries that participated in the Spanish Civil War.

Critical Thinking

6. **Evaluate** What was the major purpose of the Five-Year Plans during the 1920s and 1930s in the Soviet Union?
7. **Organizing Information** Use a diagram like the one below to identify ways in which Stalin changed the Soviet Union. Include the economic, social, and political results of his programs.



Analyzing Visuals

8. **Contrast** the above painting with the rally photo on page 749. Both images make political statements about war and militarism. How do they differ? How are they similar? Which makes the strongest statement?

Writing About History

9. **Persuasive Writing** What were the pros and cons of Mussolini's rule? In an essay, argue whether or not Mussolini was good for Italy. Conduct research to support your position and base your statements on fact.

The Formation of Collective Farms

THE COLLECTIVIZATION OF AGRICULTURE transformed Russia's 26 million family farms into 250,000 collective farms (*kolkhozes*). In this first-hand account, we see how the process worked.

General collectivization in our village was brought about in the following manner: Two representatives of the [Communist] Party arrived in the village. All the inhabitants were summoned by the ringing of the church bell to a meeting at which the policy of general collectivization was announced. . . . Although the meeting lasted two days, from the viewpoint of the Party representatives, nothing was accomplished.

After this setback, two more officials were sent to reinforce the first two. A meeting of our section of the village was held in a stable which had previously belonged to a kulak [wealthy peasant farmer]. The meeting dragged on until dark. Suddenly someone threw a brick at the lamp, and in the dark the peasants began to beat the Party representatives who jumped out the window and escaped from the village barely alive. The following day seven people were arrested. The militia was called in and stayed in the village until the peasants, realizing their helplessness, calmed down. . . .

By the end of 1930 there were two kolkhozes in our village. Though at first these collectives embraced at most only 70 percent of the peasant households, in the months that followed they gradually absorbed more and more of them.

In these kolkhozes the great bulk of the land was held and worked communally, but each peasant household owned a house of some sort, a small plot of ground and perhaps some livestock. All the members of the kolkhoz were required to work on the kolkhoz a certain number of days each month; the rest of the time they were allowed to work on their own holdings. They derived their income partly from what they grew on their garden strips and partly from their work in the kolkhoz.

When the harvest was over, and after the farm had met its obligations to the state and to various



Russian peasants using scythes to harvest grain

special funds and had sold on the market whatever undesignated produce was left, the remaining produce and the farm's monetary income were divided among the kolkhoz members according to the number of 'labor days' each one had contributed to the farm's work. . . . After they had received their earnings, one of them remarked, 'You will live, but you will be very, very thin. . . .' By late 1932 more than 80 percent of the peasant households had been collectivized. *Max Below, The History of a Collective Farm*

Analyzing Primary Sources

1. Why did the peasants resist the collective farms?
2. How would you characterize the writer's description of the collectivization process in his village? Was he fair and objective; or, do you think that he reveals a bias either for or against the process? Explain and support your answer using excerpts from his description.



SECTION 3

Hitler and Nazi Germany

Guide to Reading

Main Ideas

- Hitler and the Nazi Party established a totalitarian state in Germany.
- Many Germans accepted the Nazi dictatorship, while other Germans suffered greatly under Hitler's rule.

Key Terms

Reichstag, concentration camp

People to Identify

Adolf Hitler, Heinrich Himmler

Places to Locate

Munich, Nuremberg

Preview Questions

- How did Adolf Hitler rise to power?
- What were the chief features of the Nazi totalitarian state?
- How did the rise of Nazism affect Germany?

Reading Strategy

Categorizing Information Use a chart like the one below to list anti-Semitic policies enforced by the Nazi Party.

Anti-Semitic Policies

Preview of Events

1880	1890	1900	1910	1920	1930	1940
	1889 Hitler is born	1921 Hitler takes control of the National Socialist German Workers' Party		1933 Reichstag passes Enabling Act	1935 Nazis enact Nuremberg laws	1938 The Kristallnacht occurs



Adolf Hitler

Voices from the Past

In September 1936, Adolf Hitler spoke to a mass rally in the city of Nuremberg:

“Do we not feel once again in this hour the miracle that brought us together? Once you heard the voice of a man, and it struck deep into your hearts; it awakened you, and you followed this voice. . . . When we meet each other here, the wonder of our coming together fills us all. Not everyone of you sees me, and I do not see everyone of you. But I feel you, and you feel me. It is the belief in our people that has made us small men great, that has made brave and courageous men out of us wavering, timid folk; this belief . . . joined us together into one whole! . . . You come, that you may, once in a while, gain the feeling that now we are together; we are with him and he with us, and we are now Germany!”

—*The Speeches of Adolf Hitler*, Norman Baynes, ed., 1942

Hitler worked to create an emotional bond between himself and the German people.

Hitler and His Views

Adolf Hitler was born in Austria on April 20, 1889. A failure in secondary school, he eventually traveled to Vienna to become an artist but was rejected by the Vienna Academy of Fine Arts. He stayed in the city, supported at first by an inheritance. While in Vienna, however, Hitler developed his basic ideas, which he held for the rest of his life.

At the core of Hitler's ideas was racism, especially anti-Semitism. Hitler was also an extreme nationalist who understood how political parties could effectively use propaganda and terror. Finally, during his Viennese years, Hitler came to believe firmly in the need for struggle, which he saw as the "granite foundation of the world."

At the end of World War I, after four years of service on the Western Front, Hitler remained in Germany and decided to enter politics. In 1919, he joined the little-known German Workers' Party, one of several right-wing extreme nationalist parties in **Munich**.

By the summer of 1921, Hitler had taken total control of the party, which by then had been renamed the **National Socialist German Workers' Party** (NSDAP), or Nazi for short. Within two years, party membership had grown to 55,000 people, with 15,000 in the party militia. The militia was variously known as the SA, the Storm Troops, or the Brownshirts, after the color of their uniforms.

An overconfident Hitler staged an armed uprising against the government in Munich in November 1923. This uprising, called the Beer Hall Putsch, was quickly crushed, and Hitler was sentenced to prison. During his brief stay in jail, Hitler wrote *Mein Kampf*, or *My Struggle*, an account of his movement and its basic ideas.

In *Mein Kampf*, extreme German nationalism, strong anti-Semitism, and anticommunism are linked together by a social Darwinian theory of struggle. This theory emphasizes the right of superior nations to *lebensraum* (LAY•buhnz•ROWM)—living space—

through expansion. It also upholds the right of superior individuals to gain authoritarian leadership over the masses.

 **Reading Check** **Summarizing** What main ideas does Hitler express in his book *Mein Kampf*?

Rise of Nazism

While he was in prison, Hitler realized that the Nazis would have to attain power by legal means, and not by a violent overthrow of the Weimar Republic. This meant that the Nazi Party would have to be a mass political party that could compete for votes with the other political parties.

After his release from prison, Hitler expanded the Nazi Party to all parts of Germany. By 1929, it had a national party organization. Three years later, it had 800,000 members and had become the largest party in the **Reichstag**—the German parliament.

No doubt, Germany's economic difficulties were a crucial factor in the Nazi rise to power. Unemployment had risen dramatically, growing from 4.35 million in 1931 to 6 million by the winter of 1932. The economic and psychological impact of the Great Depression made extremist parties more attractive.

Hitler promised to create a new Germany. His appeals to national pride, national honor, and traditional militarism struck an emotional chord in his listeners. After attending one of Hitler's rallies, a schoolteacher in Hamburg said, "When the speech was over, there was roaring enthusiasm and applause. . . . How many look up to him with

Picturing History

In *Mein Kampf*, Hitler wrote that mass meetings were important because individuals who feel weak and uncertain become intoxicated with the power of the group. **How do you think Hitler viewed the average person?**



touching faith as their helper, their saviour, their deliverer from unbearable distress."

Reading Check Explaining What factors helped the Nazi Party to gain power in Germany?

Victory of Nazism

After 1930, the German government ruled by decree with the support of President Hindenburg. The Reichstag had little power, and thus Hitler clearly saw that controlling the parliament was not very important.

More and more, the right-wing elites of Germany—the industrial leaders, landed aristocrats, military officers, and higher bureaucrats—looked to Hitler for leadership. He had the mass support to create a right-wing, authoritarian regime that would save Germany and people in privileged positions from a Communist takeover. In 1933, Hindenburg, under pressure, agreed to allow Hitler to become chancellor and create a new government.

Within two months, Hitler had laid the foundation for the Nazis' complete control over Germany. The crowning step of Hitler's "legal seizure" of power came on March 23, 1933, when a two-thirds vote of

the Reichstag passed the **Enabling Act**. This law gave the government the power to ignore the constitution for four years while it issued laws to deal with the country's problems.

The Enabling Act gave Hitler's later actions a legal basis. He no longer needed the Reichstag or President Hindenburg. In effect, Hitler became a dictator appointed by the parliamentary body itself.

With their new source of power, the Nazis acted quickly to bring all institutions under Nazi control. The civil service was purged of Jews and democratic elements. Large prison camps called **concentration camps** were set up for people who opposed the new regime. Trade unions were dissolved. All political parties except the Nazis were abolished.

By the end of the summer of 1933, only seven months after being appointed chancellor, Hitler had established the basis for a totalitarian state. When Hindenburg died in 1934, the office of president was abolished. Hitler became sole ruler of Germany. Public officials and soldiers were all required to take a personal oath of loyalty to Hitler as their *Führer* (FYUR•uhr), or "Leader."

Reading Check Examining Why was the Enabling Act important to Hitler's success in controlling Germany?

THE WAY IT WAS

YOUNG PEOPLE IN . . .

Nazi Germany

In setting up a totalitarian state, the Nazis recognized the importance of winning young people over to their ideas. The Hitler Youth, an organization for young people between the ages of 10 and 18, was formed in 1926 for that purpose.

By 1939, all German young people were expected to join the Hitler Youth. Upon entering, each took an oath: "In the presence of this blood banner [Nazi flag], which represents our *Führer*, I swear to devote all my energies and my strength to the savior of our country, Adolf Hitler. I am

willing and ready to give up my life for him, so help me God."

Members of the Hitler Youth had their own uniforms and took part in a number of activities. For males, these included camping and hiking trips, sports activities, and evenings together in special youth "homes." Almost all activities were competitive and meant to encourage fighting and heroic deeds.

Above all, the Hitler Youth organization worked to foster military values and virtues, such as duty, obedience, strength, and ruthlessness. Uniforms and drilling became



Young Germans waving flags

The Nazi State, 1933–1939

Hitler wanted to develop a totalitarian state. He had not simply sought power for power's sake. He had a larger goal—the development of an *Aryan* racial state that would dominate Europe and possibly the world for generations to come. (*Aryan* was a term linguists used to identify people speaking Indo-European languages. The Nazis misused the term and identified the Aryans with the ancient Greeks and Romans and twentieth-century Germans and Scandinavians.) Nazis thought the Germans were the true descendants and leaders of the Aryans and would create another empire like the one ruled by the ancient Romans. The Nazis believed that the world had already seen two German empires or Reichs: the Holy Roman Empire and the German Empire of 1871 to 1918. It was Hitler's goal to create a Third Reich, the empire of Nazi Germany.

To achieve his goal, Hitler needed the active involvement of the German people. Hitler stated:

“We must develop organizations in which an individual's entire life can take place. Then every activity and every need of every individual will be regulated by the collectivity represented by the party. There is

no longer any arbitrary will, there are no longer any free realms in which the individual belongs to himself. . . . The time of personal happiness is over.”

The Nazis pursued the creation of the totalitarian state in a variety of ways. Economic policies, mass spectacles, and organizations—both old and new—were employed to further Nazi goals. Terror was freely used. Policies toward women and, in particular, Jews reflected Nazi aims.

The State and Terror Nazi Germany was the scene of almost constant personal and institutional conflict. This resulted in administrative chaos. Struggle was a basic feature of relationships within the party, within the state, and between party and state. Hitler, of course, was the ultimate decision maker and absolute ruler.

For those who needed coercion, the Nazi totalitarian state used terror and repression. The *Schutzstaffeln* (“Guard Squadrons”), known simply as the SS, were an important force for maintaining order. The SS was originally created as Hitler's personal bodyguard. Under the direction of **Heinrich Himmler**, the SS came to control not only the secret police forces that Himmler had set up, but also the regular police forces.



Many German children were proud of being part of the Hitler Youth.

a way of life. By 1938, training in the military arts was also part of the routine. Even boys 10 to 14 years old were given small-arms drill and practice with dummy hand grenades. Those who were 14 to 18 years old bore army packs and rifles while on camping trips in the countryside.

The Hitler Youth had a female division, known as the League of German Girls, for girls aged 10 to 18. They, too, had uniforms: white blouses, blue ankle-length skirts, and sturdy hiking shoes. Camping and hiking were also part of the girls' activities. More important, however, girls were taught domestic skills—how to cook, clean houses, and take care of children. In Nazi Germany, women were expected to be faithful wives and dutiful mothers.

CONNECTING TO THE PAST

- 1. Explaining** What ideals and values did the Hitler Youth promote?
- 2. Analyzing** How did the Hitler Youth help support the Nazi attempt to create a total state?
- 3. Writing about History** Do organizations like the Hitler Youth exist today in the United States? How are they similar or different?

Three Dictators: Mussolini, Stalin, and Hitler

	Benito Mussolini (1883-1945)	Joseph Stalin (1879-1953)	Adolf Hitler (1889-1945)
Country	Italy	USSR	Germany
Political Title	Prime Minister	General Secretary	Chancellor
Date in Power	1922	1929	1933
Political Party	Fascist Party	Communist Party	National Socialist German Workers' Party (NSDAP, or Nazi)
Type of Government	Fascist	Communist	Fascist
Source(s) of Support	Middle-class industrialists and large land owners	Party officials	Industrial leaders, landed aristocrats, military, and bureaucracy
Methods of Controlling Opposition	Secret police (OVRA), imprisonment, outlawing other parties, propaganda, censorship of the press	Purges, prison camps, secret police, state-run press, forced labor camps, executions	<i>Schutzstaffeln</i> (SS) police force, propaganda, state-run press, terror, repression, racial laws, concentration and death camps
Policies	Support for Catholic Church, nationalism, antisocialism, anticommunism	Five-Year Plans for rapid industrialization, collectivization of farms	Rearmament, public projects to put people to work, anti-Semitism, racism, Social Darwinism, extreme nationalism

Chart Skills

Mussolini, Stalin, and Hitler all came to power after World War I.

- Making Comparisons** Compare the governments of Mussolini, Stalin, and Hitler. How were they similar?
- Identifying** What methods do people in a democracy use to express their opposition to government policies? Why would these methods not have worked under these dictators?

The SS was based on two principles: terror and ideology. Terror included the instruments of repression and murder—secret police, criminal police, concentration camps, and later, execution squads and death camps (concentration camps where prisoners are killed). For Himmler, the chief goal of the SS was to further the Aryan master race.

Economic Policies In the economic sphere, Hitler used public works projects and grants to private construction firms to put people back to work and end the depression. A massive rearmament program, however, was the key to solving the unemployment problem.

Unemployment, which had reached 6 million people in 1932, dropped to 2.6 million in 1934 and less than 500,000 in 1937. The regime claimed full credit for solving Germany's economic woes. The new regime's part in bringing an end to the depression was an important factor in leading many Germans to accept Hitler and the Nazis.

Spectacles and Organizations Mass demonstrations and spectacles were also used to make the German people an instrument of Hitler's policies. These meetings, especially the Nuremberg party rallies that were held every September, had great appeal. They usually evoked mass enthusiasm and excitement.

Institutions, such as the Catholic and Protestant churches, primary and secondary schools, and universities, were also brought under the control of the Nazi totalitarian state. Nazi professional organizations and leagues were formed for civil servants, teachers, women, farmers, doctors, and lawyers. In addition, youth organizations taught Nazi ideals.

Women and Nazism Women played a crucial role in the Aryan state as bearers of the children who, it