An Era of European Imperialism

1800–1914

▶ Why It Matters

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.

Railways, like this one at London Paddington Station, were integral to the success of the Industrial Revolution in Great Britain.

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Industrialization and Nationalism 1800–1870

Section 1 The Industrial Revolution

Section 2 Reaction and Revolution

Section 3 National Unification and the Nationalism

Section 4 Romanticism and Realism

MAKING CONNECTIONS

How do events influence culture?

In 1834, fire destroyed the original Houses of Parliament in Britain. Reflecting the influence of the romantics, architects used neo-Gothic style—an imitation of the medieval Gothic style—to rebuild these landmarks and add Big Ben. In this chapter, you will learn how romanticism emerged from the turmoil of the Industrial Revolution.

- Review the description of Gothic style in Chapter 10. What elements of Gothic style do you see in the photo of the Houses of Parliament and clock tower?
- How has the development of the Internet affected today's culture?

EUROPE AND THE UNITED STATES ▶

THE WORLD ▶

1804
Richard Trevithick's steam locomotive runs on an industrial rail-line in Britain

1814
Congress of Vienna meets

1848
Revolutions erupt in Europe, beginning with the overthrow of Louis-Philippe

1800   1820   1840

1821
Mexico declares independence from Spain

1839
Opium War begins in China

1865
Confederate forces surrender, ending the American Civil War

1871
German unification achieved under William I

1860

1880

1869
Suez Canal completed

FOLDABLES™
Study Organizer

Describing Create a Layered-Look Book to record notes about the ideologies of the 1800s.

Ideologies
Conservatism
Nationalism
Liberalism

History ONLINE
Chapter Overview—Visit **glencoe.com** to preview Chapter 19.

The Industrial Revolution

Beginning in Great Britain during the late eighteenth century, the Industrial Revolution led to the industrialization that shaped the modern world. 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 in Great Britain

MAIN IDEA With its plentiful natural resources, workers, wealth, and markets, Great Britain became the starting place of the Industrial Revolution.

HISTORY & YOU Think about how computers are rapidly changing today's world. Read to understand how the Industrial Revolution changed life in the nineteenth century.

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.

First, agricultural practices in the eighteenth century had changed. Expansion of farmland, good weather, improved transportation, and new crops such as the potato dramatically increased 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 the increased food supply, the population grew. Parliament passed **enclosure movement** laws in the 1700s. When landowners fenced off common lands, many peasants had to move to towns, giving Britain a plentiful supply of labor.

Third, Britain had a ready supply of money, or **capital**, to invest in the new industrial machines and factories. Many British people were wealthy. The **entrepreneurs** found new business opportunities and new ways to make profits.

Fourth, Britain had plentiful natural resources. The country's rivers provided water power for the new factories. These waterways provided a means for transporting raw materials and finished products. 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. Also, because of population growth and cheaper food at home, domestic markets increased. A growing demand for cotton cloth led British manufacturers to look for ways to increase production.
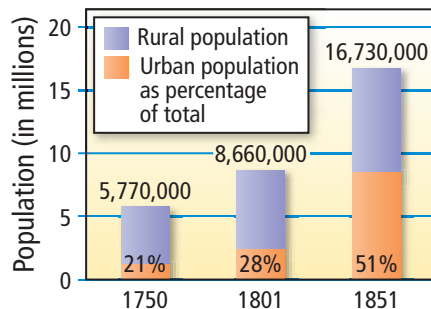
INDUSTRY IN GREAT BRITAIN BY 1850

Legend:
- Coalfield
- ■ Major port
- — Navigable river
- Major canal
- Major railway
- **Industries:**
- Copper mining and smelting
- ▼ Tin mining and smelting
- Iron extraction and smelting
- Lead mining
- Textile production

Estimated Population of England, 1750–1851

Population (in millions)

- Rural population
- Urban population as percentage of total

1750	1801	1851
5,770,000	8,660,000	16,730,000
21%	28%	51%

Source: *Oxford Atlas of World History.*

Geography SKILLS

1. **Movement** Describe what the graph shows about the population in England between 1750 and 1851.
2. **Human-Environment Interaction** What geographical factors help explain why industrialization began in Great Britain?

Maps In Motion See *StudentWorks™ Plus* or glencoe.com.

Map labels: ATLANTIC OCEAN, North Sea, Irish Sea, SCOTLAND, Dundee, Glasgow, Edinburgh, New Lanark, NORTHERN IRELAND, Newcastle, Sunderland, Isle of Man, Halifax, Leeds, Hull, Bury, Liverpool, Sheffield, Manchester, Nottingham, Derby, ENGLAND, Norwich, Leicester, Birmingham, Coventry, WALES, Cambridge, Swansea, Bristol, Harwich, Cardiff, Bath, London, Canterbury, Chatham, Dover, Southampton, Portsmouth, Exeter, Plymouth, Falmouth, FRANCE

Changes in Cotton Production

In the eighteenth century, Great Britain had surged way 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 cotton thread into cloth on looms. In the eighteenth century, individuals spun the thread and then wove the cloth in their rural cottages. This production method was thus called a **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 machine called the spinning jenny, which met this need. Other inventors made similar contributions. The spinning process became much faster. In fact, spinners produced thread 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 in 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 **James Watt**, a Scottish engineer. 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, not powered by water, 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. Sold everywhere in the world, British cotton goods 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. A better quality of iron was produced 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 to produce an iron of high quality. The British iron industry boomed. In 1740, Britain had produced 17,000 tons (15,419 metric tons or 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 the rest of the combined world produced. High-quality iron was used to build new machines, especially trains.

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. Factory owners wanted workers to work without stopping. They disciplined workers to a system of regular hours and repetitive tasks. Anyone who came to work late was fined or quickly fired for misconduct, especially for drunkenness. One early industrialist said that his aim was "to make the men into machines that cannot err."

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

PRIMARY SOURCE

". . . provided a child should be drowsy, the overlooker walks round the room . . . and he touches the 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. . . ."

In some factories, children were often beaten with a rod or whipped to keep them at work.

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.

Richard Trevithick, an English engineer, built the first steam locomotive. In 1804, Trevithick's 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 soon followed. In 1813, George Stephenson built the *Blucher,* the first successful flanged-wheel locomotive. With its flanged wheels, the *Blucher* ran on *top* of the rails instead of in sunken tracks.

The success of Stockton & Darlington, the first true railroad, encouraged investors to link by rail the rich cotton-manufacturing town of Manchester with the thriving port of Liverpool, a distance of 32 miles (51.5 km). In 1829, the investors sponsored a competition to find the most suitable locomotive to do the job. They selected the *Rocket*.

TURNING POINT

INDUSTRIALIZATION TRANSFORMS SOCIETY

The Industrial Revolution in Europe began the shift from an agricultural to an industrial economy. Starting in Great Britain, it transformed not only where people worked but also the nature of work itself.

SOCIAL CHANGES OF INDUSTRIALIZATION

Before the Industrial Revolution
- Agricultural work on farms and in homes predominated; cottage industry took place in homes.
- Most people lived in rural areas.
- Single workers or families produced an entire product.

During and After the Industrial Revolution
- Manufacturing predominated, with workers placed in factories; cottage industry declined or disappeared.
- Workers migrated to work in city factories, causing explosive growth, overcrowding, and filthy conditions.
- Factories practiced division of labor. Each worker performed one task in the production process. These tasks were often repetitive and boring.
- Factory work required long hours under harsh working conditions.
- Child labor occurred on a large scale. Women and children were usually paid lower wages.

The new industrial workers included children as young as seven years old, as shown in this image of child workers carrying clay in a British brickyard.

DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTIONS

1. **Contrasting** How did factory tasks differ from traditional work?
2. **Making Inferences** How do you think industrialization affected people's attitudes about work? What specific changes would workers have disliked?

Mary Evans Picture Library

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. In 1840, Britain had almost 2,000 miles (3,218 km) of railroads. In 1850, more than 6,000 miles (9,654 km) of railroad track crisscrossed much of that country.

Railroad expansion caused a ripple effect in the economy. 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.

✓**Reading Check** **Describing** How were adult and child factory workers disciplined?

The Spread of Industrialization

MAIN IDEA The pace of industrialization in Europe and the United States depended on many factors, including government policy.

HISTORY & YOU Recall how the Enlightenment spread through Europe. Read about the factors that help explain why nations adapt to change at different speeds.

The world's first industrial nation, Great Britain, was also the richest nation by the mid-nineteenth century. 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

SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY, & SOCIETY

The Power of Steam

Steam power helped drive the Industrial Revolution. Its impact was evident in factories and on the farm.

No innovation was more crucial to the Industrial Revolution than the steam engine. Steam power transformed both farm production and the transportation system. Steam-powered locomotives could deliver raw materials to factories and finished goods to market faster than ever before.

Farming had always been labor-intensive, but now farmers were able to haul the portable steam engine to the fields to power tools. Another step forward came in 1842 when a British company developed a self-propelled steam engine that could pull a plow. It paved the way for tractors and other machinery. Farm efficiency shot up dramatically.

George Stephenson's Rocket carried cotton goods from Manchester to the port of Liverpool.

Science Museum/SSPL/The Image Works

CRITICAL THINKING SKILLS

1. **Explaining** Why was a rail connection to Liverpool important to manufacturers in Manchester?
2. **Determining Cause and Effect** In what way was the development of the steam engine a cause of the Industrial Revolution?

Europe were Belgium, France, and the German states. In these places, governments actively encouraged industrialization. For example, governments provided funds to build roads, canals, and railroads. By 1850, a network of iron rails spread across Europe.

North America

An Industrial Revolution also occurred in the United States. In 1800, 5 million people lived in the United States, and 6 out of every 7 American workers were farmers. No city had more than 100,000 people. By 1860, the population had grown to 30 million people. Cities had also grown. Nine cities had populations over 100,000. Only 50 percent of American workers were farmers.

A large country, the United States needed a good transportation system to move goods across the nation. 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. Steamboats made transportation easier on the waterways of the United States.

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 country became 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. Women and girls made up a large 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 industrialization of the United States?

Social Impact in Europe

MAIN IDEA Industrialization urbanized Europe and created new social classes, as well as the conditions for the rise of socialism.

HISTORY & YOU Do you know people who run their own businesses? Read to learn how early entrepreneurs contributed to the Industrial Revolution.

The Industrial Revolution drastically changed the social life of Europe and the world. In the first half of the nineteenth century, cities grew and two social classes—the industrial middle class and the industrial working class—emerged.

Growth of Population and Cities

European population stood at an estimated 140 million in 1750. 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. With increased food supplies, more people were better fed and more resistant to disease. Famine largely disappeared from Western Europe. The Irish potato famine proved an exception. The Irish depended on the potato for food. When a fungus infected crops in the 1840s, almost a million Irish people died. A million more emigrated, many to the United States.

European cities and towns dramatically grew. Industrialization spurred this growth. By 1850, British and Belgian cities were home to many industries. With the steam engine, factory owners could locate their plants in cities. People moved from the country to the cities to find work.

In 1800, Great Britain had one major city, London, with a population of about 1 million. Six cities had populations between 50,000 and 100,000. By 1850, London's population had swelled to about 2.5 million. Nine cities had populations over 100,000, and eighteen cities had populations between 50,000 and 100,000. Also, over 50 percent of the British population lived in towns and cities. In other European countries, urban populations grew less dramatically.

The rapid growth of cities in the first half of the nineteenth century led to pitiful living conditions for many. These conditions prompted urban reformers to call on local governments to clean up their cities. Reform would be undertaken in the second half of the nineteenth century.

The Industrial Middle Class

The Middle Ages saw the rise of commercial capitalism, an economic system based on trade. **Industrial capitalism,** an economic system based on industrial production, rose during the Industrial Revolution and 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. The bourgeois were merchants, officials, artisans, lawyers, or intellectuals. Later, the term *bourgeois* came to include people involved in industry and banking, as well as professionals such as lawyers, teachers, or doctors.

The new industrial middle class was made up of the people who built the factories, bought the machines, and developed the markets. They had initiative, vision, ambition, and, often, greed. One said, "Getting of money … is the main business of the life of men."

The Industrial Working Class

The Industrial Revolution also created a working class that faced wretched working conditions. Work hours ranged from 12 to 16 hours a day, 6 days a week. There was no security of employment and no minimum wage.

The worst conditions were in the cotton mills. 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. Steam-powered engines lifted the
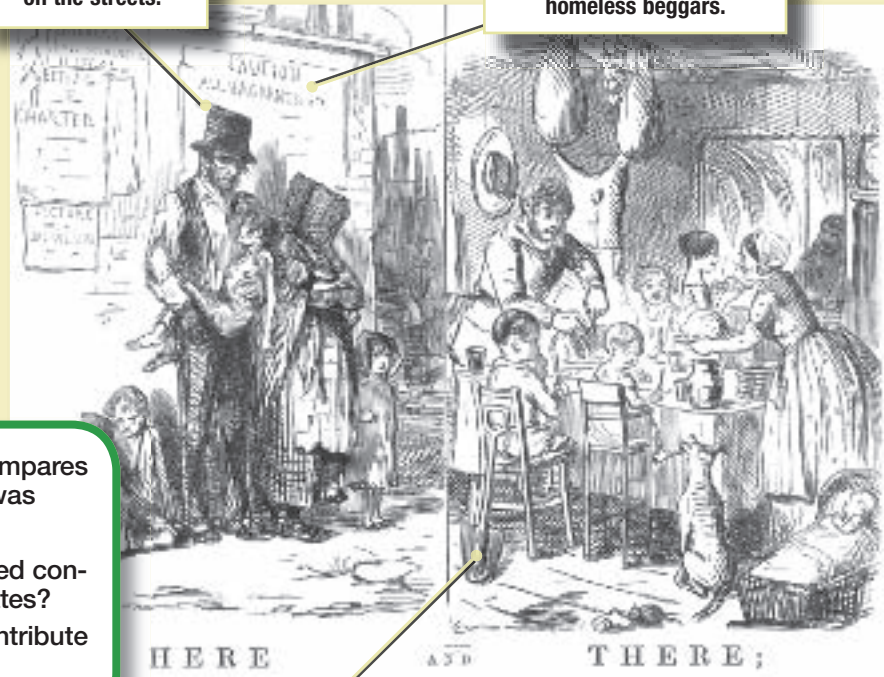
POLITICAL CARTOONS   PRIMARY SOURCE

The Irish Potato Famine

The Irish depended on the potato as their main food source. When a fungus infected the potato in 1845 and again in 1846 and 1848, it spelled disaster. The potato famine of 1845 alone killed one million people. Millions more emigrated during the 1840s, most to the United States. Between 1841 and 1851, Ireland's population actually dropped—from 8.2 to 6.5 million.

The British government did little to relieve the suffering, in part because it believed free trade forbade government interference. Irish resentment at the British failure to help them has been passed on to later generations. For decades, right down to our own day, this resentment has fueled Irish nationalist movements like the IRA (Irish Republican Army).

DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTIONS

A cartoon in the July 15, 1848, Punch magazine compares an Irish and an American family. The full caption was "Here and There; or Emigration, a Remedy."

1. **Interpreting** Why might this cartoon have helped convince Irish people to immigrate to the United States?
2. **Explaining** How did the Irish potato famine contribute to Irish nationalism?

Homeless Irish family on the streets.

A sign warning off the many homeless beggars.

The shovel was regarded as a symbol of labor.

HERE   AND   THERE;

coal from the mines to the top, but the men inside the mines dug out the coal. Dangerous conditions, including cave-ins, explosions, and gas fumes (called "bad air"), were a way of life. The cramped conditions in mines and their constant dampness led to workers' deformed bodies and ruined lungs.

When the Factory Act of 1833 limited child labor, women made up the difference. Women were 50 percent of the British labor force in textile factories. Mostly unskilled, they were paid half or less than half of what men received.

The employment of children and women was a carry-over from the cottage industry where the family worked together. When the work hours of children and women were limited, a new pattern of work emerged. Men now earned most of the family income by working outside the home. Women took over daily care of the family and performed low-paying jobs that could be done in the home. This made it possible for women to continue to help with the family's financial survival.

Early Socialism

The transition to factory work was not easy. Although workers' lives eventually improved, they suffered terribly during the early period of industrialization. Their family life was disrupted, they were separated from the countryside, their hours were long, and their pay was low.

Some reformers opposed such a destructive capitalistic system and advocated **socialism**. In this economic system, society—usually in the form of the government—owns and controls some means of production such as factories and utilities. This public ownership of the means of production, it was believed, would allow wealth to be distributed more equitably to everyone.

Early socialists wrote books about the ideal society that might be created. In this **hypothetical** society, workers could use their abilities and everyone's needs would be met. Later socialists said these were impractical dreams. Karl Marx contemptuously labeled the earlier reformers utopian socialists. (He borrowed the term from *Utopia,* a work describing an ideal society by Sir Thomas More.) To this day we refer to the early socialists in this way.

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. Owen transformed the squalid factory town of New Lanark (Scotland) into a flourishing community. He created a similar community at New Harmony, Indiana, in the United States in the 1820s. New Harmony failed because not everyone was as committed to sharing as Owen was.

✓**Reading Check** **Describing** How did socialists respond to new and harsh working conditions?

Describe the Lives of Workers in the Early 1800s

What hardships did industrialization create for workers? Though it transformed the British economy, industrialization had a drastic social impact on the working people of England.

How did industrialization affect living conditions? The Industrial Revolution not only brought waves of new factories, it caused masses of workers to move to the cities to find jobs at these factories. Both developments had a profound impact on the lives of England's workers.

The Industrial Revolution altered both the working and living conditions of Britain's working class. Read the excerpts and study the illustration to learn more about how industrialization impacted the people of England during the first half of the nineteenth century.

SOURCE 1

Miner Betty Harris, 37, gave testimony to an 1842 Royal Commission investigating conditions in British mines.

I was married at 23, and went into a **colliery**[1] when I was married. I . . . can neither read nor write. . . . I am a **drawer**[2], and work from 6 in the morning to 6 at night. Stop about an hour at noon to eat my dinner; have bread and butter for dinner; I get no drink. . . .

I have a belt round my waist, and a chain passing between my legs, and I go on my hands and feet. The road is very steep, and we have to hold by a rope; and when there is no rope, by anything we can catch hold of. There are six women and about six boys and girls in the pit I work in; it is very hard work for a woman. The pit is very wet where I work, and the water comes over our clog-tops always, and I have seen it up to my thighs; it rains in at the roof terribly. My clothes are wet through almost all day long. . . .

My cousin looks after my children in the day time. I am very tired when I get home at night; I fall asleep sometimes before I get washed. . . . the belt and chain is worse when we are **in the family way**[3]. My feller (husband) has beaten me many a times for not being ready.

SOURCE 2

German socialist Friedrich Engels, co-founder of Marxism, described industrial Manchester in his book, *The Condition of the Working-Class in England in 1844.*

The first court below Ducie Bridge . . . was in such a state at the time of the cholera that the sanitary police ordered it evacuated, swept, and disinfected with **chloride of lime**[4]. . . . At the bottom flows, or rather stagnates, the Irk, a narrow, coal-black, foul-smelling stream, full of debris and refuse, which it deposits on the shallower right bank. . . .

Above the bridge are **tanneries**[5]**, bone mills**[6], and gasworks, from which all drains and refuse find their way into the Irk, which receives further the contents of all the neighboring sewers and **privies**[7]. . . . Below the bridge you look upon the piles of debris, the refuse, the filth, and offal from the courts on the steep left bank; here each house is packed close behind its neighbor and a piece of each is visible, all black, smoky, crumbling, ancient, with broken panes and window frames. . . .

Such is the Old Town of Manchester . . . [in] defiance of all considerations of cleanliness, ventilation, and health which characterize the construction of this single district, containing at least twenty to thirty thousand inhabitants.

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[1] **colliery:** coal mine and its connected buildings
[2] **drawer:** worker who pulled coal tubs in a mine; tubs were attached to the drawer's belt with a chain

[3] **in the family way:** pregnant
[4] **chloride of lime:** bleaching powder
[5] **tanneries:** buildings where skins and hides are tanned

▲ Girls and women worked at "Carding, Drawing, and Roving" in a nineteenth-century English cotton mill.

SOURCE 3

A series of inventions in the late 1700s revolutionized the cotton industry in England. These new machines dramatically increased textile production and marked the end of the home-based system of textile production. By the early 1800s, textile workers had to work in factories where they operated large machines for long hours in hot temperatures.

The above print of a cotton mill appears in the book *History of the Cotton Manufacture in Great Britain* (London, 1835), by Edward Baines. The image shows the belts that connected the machines to a pulley system. A steam engine rotated the wheels on the shaft to power the machines. Note how close the female workers' hands, hair, and clothing are to the rotating gears.

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[6] **bone mills:** mills that convert animal bones into fertilizer
[7] **privies:** outhouses

DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTIONS

1. **Calculating** How many hours did Betty Harris work each day?
2. **Recognizing Bias** How could Engels's background have affected his assessment of Manchester? How might a description of the city written by a factory owner contrast from that written by Engels?
3. **Assessing** How does Baines depict the working environment in the cotton mill? Is it safe or dangerous?
4. **Comparing and Contrasting** What do Harris's testimony and the above print suggest about how the work experience for women in mines and cotton mills was similar and different?
5. **Synthesizing** How could Engels have used Harris's testimony to support his main point about industrialization?
6. **Problem-Solving** Describe the lives of England's workers in the early 1800s. If you were an adviser to the British government in 1845, what changes would you have recommended?

Reaction and Revolution

After the turmoil of the French revolutionary years, European rulers wanted to return to a conservative order and to keep a balance of power among nations. Liberals and nationalists, however, struggled to achieve more liberal governments and new nations. Their struggle led eventually to the revolutions that swept across much of Europe in 1848.

The Congress of Vienna

MAIN IDEA After Napoleon's defeat, the victors met and redrew the map of Europe to create a balance of power and to strengthen conservatism.

HISTORY & YOU Does the United Nations intervene in international disputes? Read about decisions that the great powers made at the Congress of Vienna and their effect on Europe.

After the defeat of Napoleon, European rulers moved to restore the old order. This was the goal of the victors—Great Britain, Austria, Prussia, and Russia—when they met at the **Congress of Vienna** in September 1814 to arrange a final peace settlement.

The haughty Austrian foreign minister, Prince **Klemens von Metternich** (MEH•tuhr•nihk), was the most influential leader at that meeting in **Vienna**. Metternich claimed that the principle of legitimacy guided him. He meant that lawful monarchs from the royal families who had ruled before Napoleon would be restored to their positions of power. This, they believed, would ensure peace and stability in Europe. The victorious powers had already restored the Bourbon king to the French throne in 1814.

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.

Conservatism and the Balance of Power

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

EUROPE AFTER THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA, 1815

KINGDOM OF NORWAY AND SWEDEN

North Sea

DENMARK

Baltic Sea

RUSSIAN EMPIRE

UNITED KINGDOM

NETHERLANDS

PRUSSIA

50°N

60°N

ATLANTIC OCEAN

GERMAN STATES

Vienna

AUSTRIAN EMPIRE

— German Confederation

FRANCE

SWITZ.

Black Sea

ITALIAN STATES

Corsica Fr.

Constantinople

30°E

OTTOMAN EMPIRE

Balearic Is. Sp.

Sardinia

Ionian Is. U.K.

Sicily

Crete

10°E

20°E

Malta U.K.

AFRICA

Mediterranean Sea

0 — 300 kilometers
0 — 300 miles
Lambert Azimuthal Equal-Area projection

Geography SKILLS

1. **Location** Within what political boundaries is Vienna located? Vienna is the capital of what nation today?

2. **Regions** Compare this map to the map of Napoleonic Europe shown on page 600 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 a belief in the value of social stability. Most conservatives at that time favored obedience to political authority. They also believed that organized religion was crucial to keep 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. The purpose of these conferences was to take steps needed to maintain peace in Europe. These meetings came to be called the Concert of Europe.

Principle of Intervention

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. Refusing to accept the principle, Britain argued that the great powers should not interfere in the internal affairs of other states. The other great powers, however, used military forces to crush revolutions in Spain and Italy, as well as to restore monarchs to their thrones.

✓**Reading Check** **Analyzing** What were the goals of European leaders at the Congress of Vienna?

Forces of Change

MAIN IDEA Liberals and nationalists opposed the existing political system and threatened the conservative regimes.

HISTORY & YOU What do you have in common with other Americans? Learn how a common language, religion, and customs led people to form loyalty to a nation.

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 is a political philosophy that grew out of the Enlightenment. **Liberalism** 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 the 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 a representative assembly (legislature) elected by qualified voters should make laws.

Many liberals, then, favored government ruled by a **constitution,** such as in a constitutional monarchy in which a constitution regulates a king. 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 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 when people began to identify themselves as part of a community defined by a distinctive language, common institution, and customs. This community is called a nation. In earlier centuries, people's loyalty went to a king or to their town or region. In the nineteenth century, people began to feel that their chief loyalty was to the nation.

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 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.

In the same year, 1830, three more revolutions occurred. Nationalism was the chief force in all three of them. Belgium, which had been annexed to the former Dutch Republic in 1815, rebelled and created an independent state. In Poland and Italy, which were both ruled by foreign powers, efforts to break free were less successful. Russians crushed the Polish attempt to establish an independent Polish nation. Meanwhile Austrian troops marched south and put down revolts in a number of Italian states.

✓ **Reading Check** **Evaluating** How did liberalism and nationalism present a challenge to the conservative domination of Europe in the early 1800s?

The Revolutions of 1848

MAIN IDEA Beginning in France in 1848, the spirit of revolution spread quickly over Europe, but the uprisings were largely suppressed.

HISTORY & YOU Can you imagine living without the rights guaranteed in the Constitution? In 1848, popular uprisings in Europe hoped to win such rights.

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 once again sparked revolution in other countries. Severe economic problems beginning in 1846 brought untold hardship in France to the lower-middle class, workers, and peasants.

PRIMARY SOURCE **HISTORY & ARTS**

The Overthrow of King Louis Philippe

In the mid 1840s, many French people became increasingly frustrated over poor economic conditions, government corruption, and the fact that so few people could vote. Since political meetings were illegal, reformers were holding banquets to discuss issues.

When King Louis Philippe canceled a banquet meeting on February 22, 1848, riots broke out and the royal palace was under threat. The king renounced the throne and fled to Great Britain.

DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTIONS

This painting depicts the people burning the throne at the Place de la Bastille, 1848.

1. **Explaining** What was the purpose of the banquet to be held on February 22, 1848?

2. **Analyzing Visuals** How would you describe the symbolic meaning of this painting?
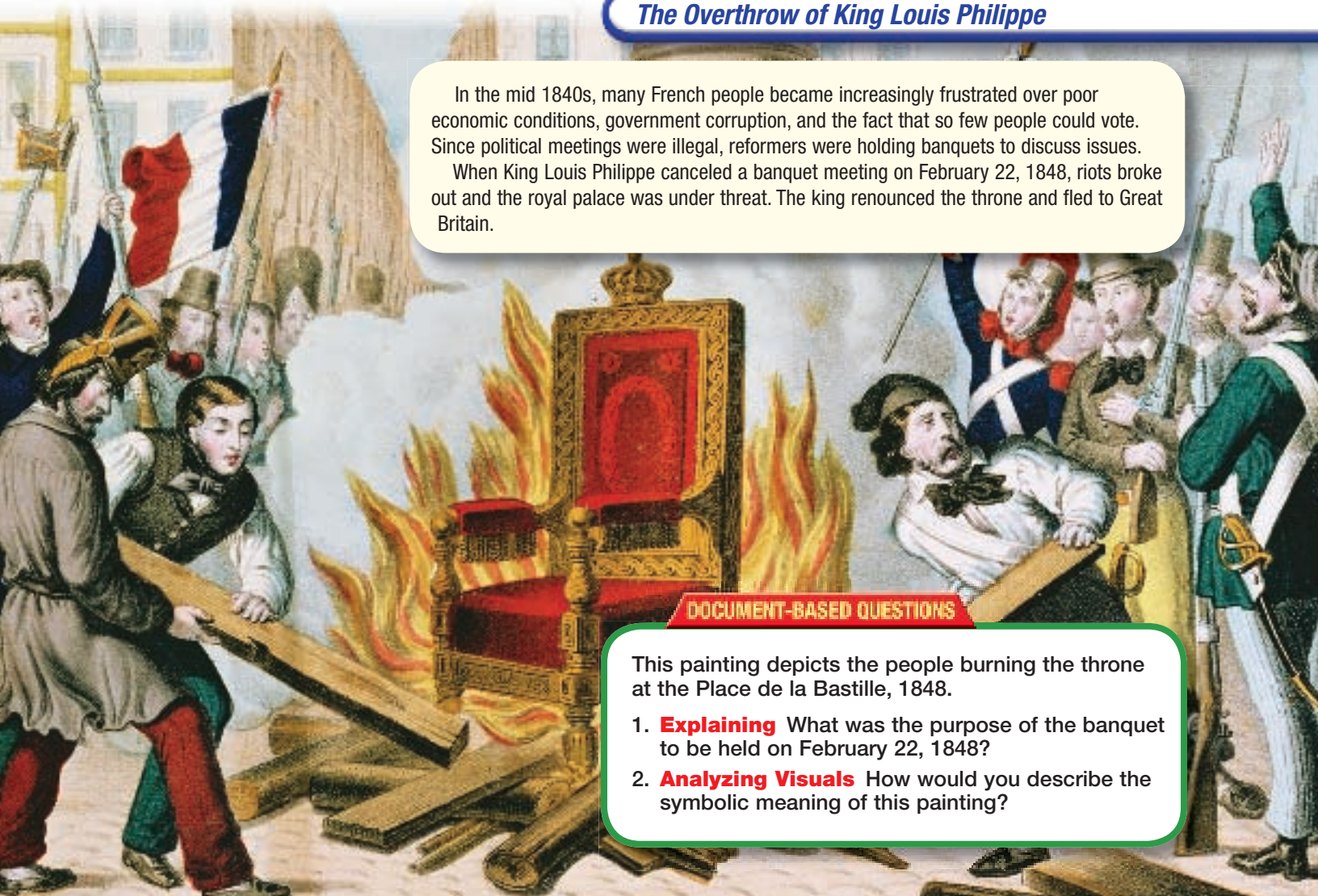
At the same time, members of the middle class clamored for the right to vote. The government of Louis Philippe refused to make changes, and opposition grew.

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,** meaning 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, jury trials, and other liberal reforms. In May 1848, 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. The Frankfurt Assembly's proposed constitution provided for a German state with a parliamentary government and a hereditary emperor ruling under a limited monarchy. The constitution also allowed for direct election of deputies to the parliament by universal male suffrage.

Ultimately, however, the Frankfurt Assembly failed to gain the support needed to achieve its goal. Frederick William IV of Prussia, to whom the throne was offered, refused to accept the crown from a popularly elected assembly. Thus, the assembly members had no real means of forcing the German rulers to accept their drafted constitution. German unification was not achieved.

NATIONAL GEOGRAPHIC

NATIONALITIES IN AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, MID-1800S

GERMANY 20°E
RUSSIA
Prague
BOHEMIA Brno
Kraków
L'viv
Dniester R.
Danube
Vienna
Salzburg
AUSTRIA R.
Innsbruck
Budapest
HUNGARY
N
Trento VENETIA
W   E LOMBARDY (ceded to
S (ceded to Italy 1866) Trieste
Italy 1859) Po R. Venice
Zagreb
Timişoara
Braşov
ITALY
ROMANIA
0 200 kilometers
BOSNIA
0 200 miles
SERBIA
Lambert Azimuthal Equal-Area projection
Danube R.
OTTOMAN EMPIRE
Adriatic Sea

Boundary:
— of Austria-Hungary
— between Austria & Hungary

Geography SKILLS

1. **Place** Name three nationalities in Hungary.
2. **Regions** Why might the ethnic makeup shown on this map lead to conflict within the empire?

Ethnic background of majority of population:
- Croat
- Czech
- German
- Italian
- Magyar
- Pole
- Romanian
- Romansch
- Ruthenian
- Serb
- Slovak
- Slovene

Revolutions in Central Europe

The Austrian Empire also had its problems. The empire was a <mark>multinational state</mark>—a collection of different peoples including Germans, Czechs, Magyars (Hungarians), Slovaks, Romanians, Slovenes, Poles, Croats, Serbians, Ruthenians (Ukrainians), and Italians. Only the German-speaking Hapsburg dynasty held the empire together. The Germans, though only a quarter of the population, played a leading role in governing the Austrian Empire.

In March 1848, demonstrations erupted in the major cities. To calm the demonstrators, the Hapsburg court dismissed Metternich, the Austrian foreign minister, who fled to England. 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 military forces crushed the Czech rebels in <mark>Prague.</mark> By the end of October, the rebels in Vienna had been defeated as well. With the help of a Russian army of 140,000 men, the Hungarian revolutionaries were finally subdued in 1849. The revolutions in the Austrian Empire had failed.

Revolts in the Italian States

The Congress of Vienna had set up nine states in Italy. These states included the Kingdom of Piedmont in the north; 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?

Vocabulary
1. **Explain** the significance of: Congress of Vienna, Klemens von Metternich, Vienna, conservatism, principle of intervention, liberalism, Bill of Rights, constitution, radical, universal male suffrage, Louis-Napoleon, German Confederation, multinational state, Prague.

Main Ideas
2. **Explain** how the Congress of Vienna achieved and maintained a balance of power.
3. **Summarize** the ideologies of conservatism, liberalism, and nationalism by using a chart like the one below.

Conservatism	Liberalism	Nationalism

4. **List** the different peoples living in the Austrian Empire.

Critical Thinking
5. **The BIG Idea** **Analyzing** How did the social and economic changes from the Industrial Revolution contribute to the spread of liberalism?
6. **Hypothesizing** Why did Great Britain not join the revolutions that spread through Europe in 1848?
7. **Analyzing Visuals** Examine the painting on page 627. If you did not already know, how could you tell the social class of the revolutionaries by their dress?

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

History ONLINE

For help with the concepts in this section of *Glencoe World History*, go to **glencoe.com** and click Study Central.

National Unification and Nationalism

Although the revolutions of 1848 had failed, the forces of nationalism and liberalism remained powerful for the rest of the nineteenth century. Italy and Germany were unified, and Great Britain and France became more liberal, while Austria and Russia remained authoritarian by the end of the nineteenth century.

Toward National Unification

MAIN IDEA The rise of nationalism led to the unification of Italy and Germany.

HISTORY & YOU What have you achieved as a member of a group that you could not have achieved on your own? Learn how determined leadership and strong military effort resulted in the unification of the Italian and German states.

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.

Breakdown of the Concert of Europe

The Crimean War was the result of a long-term struggle between Russia and the Ottoman Empire. The Ottoman Empire, centered in what is now Turkey, had long controlled most of the Balkans in southeastern Europe. By 1800, however, the Ottoman Empire was in decline. Its authority over Balkan territories began to weaken.

Russia was a nation with little access to warm-water ports. It had always coveted territory in the Balkans. Having this territory would allow Russian ships to sail through the Dardanelles, the straits between the Black Sea and the Mediterranean. If Russia could achieve this goal, it would become the major power in eastern Europe and would even be able to challenge British naval control of the eastern Mediterranean. Other European nations feared Russian ambitions but also hoped to gain some territory if the Ottoman Empire collapsed.

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 named for the Russian peninsula in the Black Sea where important battles took place. The 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.

Italy, 1859–1870

FRANCE
SWITZ.
AUSTRIA
SAVOY
LOMBARDY
VENETIA
Turin
PIEDMONT PARMA
Po R.
Venice
45°N
Genoa
MODENA
OTTOMAN
EMPIRE
NICE
Florence
TUSCANY PAPAL
STATES
Adriatic
To France
in 1860
Talamone
PAPAL
STATES
Sea
KINGDOM OF
PIEDMONT
Corsica
Fr.
Rome
Sardinia
Volturno
Naples
Mediterranean
Tyrrhenian
Sea
THE
TWO
SICILIES
40°N
N
W   E
S
0   200 kilometers
Messina
Milazzo
Palermo
Calatafimi
Sicily
Reggio
di Calabria
0   200 miles
*Lambert Azimuthal
Equal-Area projection*
10°E
20°E

15°E

🟨 Kingdom of Piedmont before 1859	🟧 Added to Kingdom of Piedmont, 1860	
🟧 Added to Kingdom of Piedmont, 1859	🟩 Added to Kingdom of Italy, 1866	
	🟩 Added to Kingdom of Italy, 1870	
	⬅ Route of Garibaldi's Red Shirts, 1860	

Geography SKILLS

Germany, 1866–1871

North
Sea
DENMARK SWEDEN
Baltic Sea
Memel
SCHLESWIG
Königsberg
54°N
HOLSTEIN
EAST
PRUSSIA
Hamburg
POMERANIA
WEST
OLDENBURG MECKLENBURG
PRUSSIA
HANNOVER
Elbe R.
Berlin
Vistula R.
BRANDENBURG
Ems R.
WESTPHALIA
Cologne
HESSE-
Leipzig
Dresden
Warsaw
RUSSIAN
EMPIRE
BELGIUM
KASSEL
Oder R.
Wrocław
Brussels
Rhine
SAXONY
SILESIA
Sedan 1870
HESSE-
Prague
LUX.
Trier
DARMSTADT
Königgrätz
1866
Verdun
Mainz
Frankfurt
Nuremberg
N
Main R.
W   E
LORRAINE
BAVARIA
Danube
AUSTRIA
S
Strasbourg
WÜRTTEMBERG
0   200 kilometers
48°N
BADEN
Munich
ALSACE
HOHENZOLLERN
0   200 miles
FRANCE
*Lambert Azimuthal Equal-Area
projection*
SWITZERLAND
6°E
12°E
18°E

🟨 Prussia before 1866	🟩 Added in 1871	
🟩 Added 1866–1867 as the North German Confederation	🟪 Annexed in 1871 after the Franco-Prussian War	
	✴ Battle	

1. **Regions** Describe the sequence of events in Italian unification.
2. **Location** What physical feature divided the North German Confederation from the southern German states?

Maps in Motion See *StudentWorks™ Plus* or glencoe.com.

The effect of the Crimean War was to destroy the Concert of Europe. Austria and Russia, the chief powers maintaining the status quo before the 1850s, were now enemies. Austria, with 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 now had no friends among the great powers. This situation opened the door to the **unification** of Italy and Germany.

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. Included in the kingdom were 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 to increase government revenues and enable the kingdom to equip a large army. Cavour, however, knew that Piedmont's army was not strong enough to defeat the Austrians. So, he made an alliance with the French emperor Louis-Napoleon. Cavour then provoked the Austrians into declaring war in 1859.

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

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. They were called Red Shirts because of the color of their uniforms.

A branch of the Bourbon dynasty ruled the Two Sicilies (Sicily and Naples), 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 state of Italy was proclaimed under King Victor Emmanuel II. The task of unification was not yet complete, however. Austria still held Venetia in the north; 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 allied with 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.

German Unification

After the Frankfurt Assembly failed 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 openly voiced his strong dislike of anyone who opposed him.

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, Prussia gained control of the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein. Bismarck then 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 defeated on July 3.

Prussia now organized the German states north of the Main River into the 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, and the growing power and military might of Prussia worried France. Bismarck was aware that France would never be content with a united 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. Taking advantage of the situation, Bismarck goaded 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. 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 600 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).
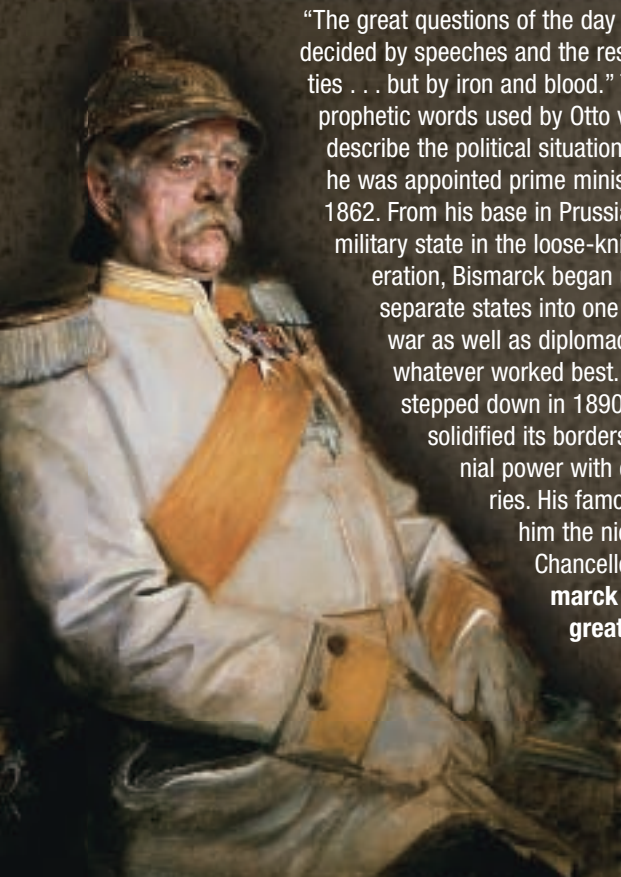
The Prussian monarchy and the Prussian army had achieved German unity. The authoritarian and militaristic values of Prussia were triumphant in the new German state. With its industrial resources and military might, the new state had become the strongest power on the European continent.

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

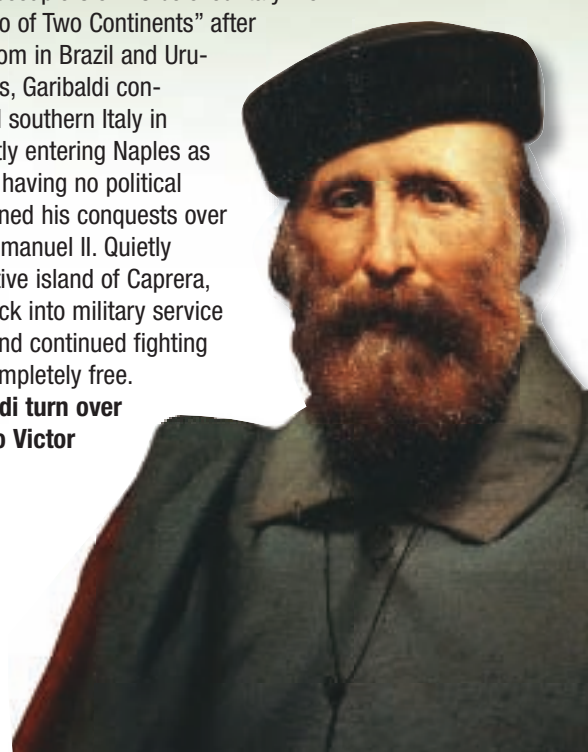# PEOPLE in HISTORY

Otto von Bismarck
1815–1898 German Statesman

"The great questions of the day will not be decided by speeches and the resolutions of majorities . . . but by iron and blood." These were the prophetic words used by Otto von Bismarck to describe the political situation that existed when he was appointed prime minister of Germany in 1862. From his base in Prussia, the strongest military state in the loose-knit German Confederation, Bismarck began uniting the many separate states into one nation. He used war as well as diplomacy in his efforts—whatever worked best. By the time he stepped down in 1890, Germany had solidified its borders and was a colonial power with overseas territories. His famous speech gave him the nickname "The Iron Chancellor." **How did Bismarck think that the great questions of the day would be resolved?**

Giuseppe Garibaldi
1807–1882 Italian Patriot

"The slave shall show at last to his free brothers a sharpened sword forged from the links of his fetters." With these words, Giuseppe Garibaldi rallied his troops against the Bourbon French occupiers of his beloved Italy. Honored as "The Hero of Two Continents" after fighting for freedom in Brazil and Uruguay in the 1840s, Garibaldi conquered Sicily and southern Italy in 1860, triumphantly entering Naples as a liberator. Then, having no political ambitions, he turned his conquests over to King Victor Emmanuel II. Quietly retiring to his native island of Caprera, he was called back into military service soon afterward and continued fighting until Italy was completely free. **Why did Garibaldi turn over his conquests to Victor Emmanuel?**

Nationalism and Reform in Europe

MAIN IDEA While Italy and Germany were being unified, other states in Europe were also changing.

HISTORY & YOU Have you ever been to Paris or seen it depicted in the movies? Read about why the wide boulevards and public squares were originally built.

After 1848, Great Britain became more liberal, while the governments of France, Austria, and Russia grew more authoritarian.

Great Britain

Great Britain managed to avoid the revolutionary upheavals of the first half of the nineteenth century. In 1815, aristocratic landowning classes, which dominated both houses of Parliament, governed Great Britain. 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 avoided revolution in 1848. In the 1850s and 1860s, Parliament continued to make social and political reforms that helped the country to remain stable. However, despite reforms, Britain saw a rising Irish nationalist movement demanding increased Irish control over Irish internal affairs.

Another reason for Britain's stability was its continuing economic growth. By 1850, industrialization had brought prosperity to the British middle class. After 1850, real wages of workers rose significantly, enabling the working classes to share the prosperity.

Queen Victoria, whose reign from 1837 to 1901 was the longest in English history, well reflected the British feeling of national pride. Victoria's sense of duty and moral respectability reflected the attitudes of her age, later known as the Victorian Age.

POLITICAL CARTOONS · PRIMARY SOURCE

Political Reform in Great Britain

The Reform Act of 1832 gave voting rights to many men of the industrial middle class, yet it excluded six out of seven adult males. Pressure to extend voting rights down the social ladder led to the Reform Act of 1867. In his book *The English Constitution* (1867), Walter Bagehot described the possible effects of the Reform Act of 1867:

"... The Reform Act of 1867 has, I think, unmistakably completed the effect which the Act of 1832 began, but left unfinished. The middle class element has gained greatly by the second change, and the aristocratic element has lost greatly. ... As a theoretical writer I can venture to say, what no elected member of Parliament, Conservative or Liberal, can venture to say, that I am exceedingly afraid of the ignorant multitude of the new constituencies. ..."

The figure on the horse represents Britain.

In the background are Lord Derby and other members of Parliament.

The horse and rider are jumping into the darkness labeled REFORM.

The face is Prime Minister Benjamin Disraeli, who sponsored the Reform Act of 1867, which added millions of working-class men to the voting lists.

A LEAP IN THE DARK.
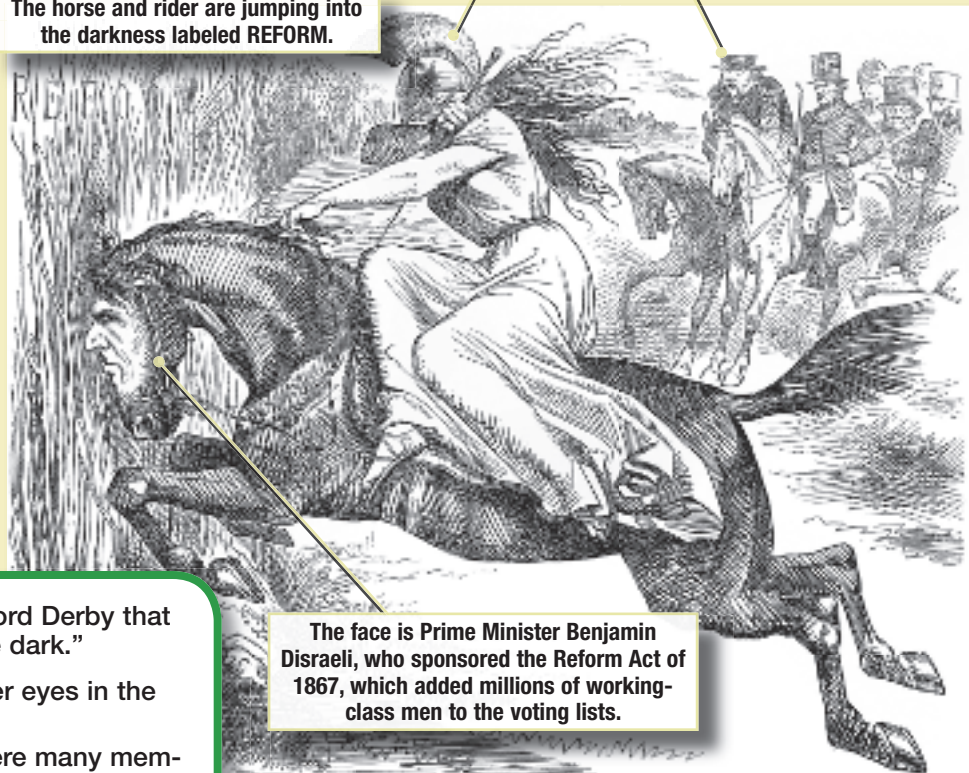
DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTIONS

This cartoon focuses on a comment by Lord Derby that the Reform Act of 1867 was "a leap in the dark."

1. **Explaining** Why is Britain shielding her eyes in the cartoon?
2. **Analyzing Primary Sources** Why were many members of the ruling class uneasy about the new law?

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 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

Nationalism, a major force in nineteenth-century Europe, presented special problems for the Austrian Empire. That was because the empire contained so many different ethnic groups, and many were campaigning for independence. Yet the Austrian Empire had managed to frustrate their desires.

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 of these concessions was the Compromise of 1867. This compromise created the dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary. Each of these two 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 multi-national 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. However, the Russian government faced challenges.

It used soldiers, secret police, repression, and censorship to withstand the revolutionary fervor of the early 1800s.

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

Serfdom, the largest problem in czarist Russia, was not just a humanitarian issue, but a complicated one that affected the economic, social, and political future of 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.

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, 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. A group of radicals assassinated Alexander II in 1881. His son, Alexander III, became the successor to the throne. Alexander III turned against reform and returned to the old methods of repression.

✓**Reading Check** **Examining** What concessions did the Hungarians gain from Austria in the Compromise of 1867?

CONNECTING TO THE UNITED STATES

NURSING AND PUBLIC HEALTH

In 1854, Florence Nightingale served Britain as a nurse in Turkey during the Crimean War. Appalled by the filthy conditions, she worked to improve sanitary practices in military hospitals. After the war, Nightingale promoted nursing as a profession. During the American Civil War, the United States government sought her advice. In 1863, Nightingale founded the world's first nursing school. Her writings laid down principles of nursing and sanitary practices that continue to influence public health today.

Nightingale's work also influenced Clara Barton, a leader in the American nursing profession. From 1863 to 1873, Barton lived in Europe and helped establish hospitals during the Franco-Prussian War. For her service, Germany awarded her the Iron Cross. Barton went on to found the American Red Cross in 1883.

- **Nurses are trained, respected medical professionals.**
- **The Red Cross serves victims of conflicts and natural disasters.**
- **Standards for sanitation help safeguard public health.**

The Lady with the Lamp, c. 1880, depicts Florence Nightingale making her nightly rounds in a military hospital during the Crimean War.

CONNECTING TO TODAY

1. **Summarizing** What contributions did Florence Nightingale and Clara Barton make to public health?

2. **Making Inferences** Why did nursing and public health advances come about during wars?

Nationalism in the United States

MAIN IDEA Unified by the War of 1812, the United States later entered a bloody civil war that lasted from 1861 to 1865.

HISTORY & YOU Do you recall the upheaval of the American and French Revolutions? Read how the United States responded to national upheaval in the 1800s.

The United States Constitution committed the nation to liberalism and nationalism. Yet national unity did not come easily.

Two factions fought bitterly about the division of power in the new government. The Federalists favored a strong central government. The Republicans, fearing central power, wanted the federal government to be subordinate to the state governments. These divisions had ended with the War of 1812 against the British. This surge of national feeling served to cover up the nation's divisions.

By the mid-nineteenth century, slavery had become a threat to American unity. Four million enslaved African Americans were 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 1858 that "this government cannot endure permanently half slave and half free." When Lincoln was elected president in November 1860, war became certain.

On December 20, 1860, South Carolina voted to **secede**, or withdraw, from the United States. In February 1861, six more Southern states did the same. 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. Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation declared most of the nation's enslaved people "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.

✓**Reading Check** **Explaining** Why did the election of Abraham Lincoln make civil war certain in the United States?

SECTION 3 REVIEW

Vocabulary
1. **Explain** the significance of: unification, Piedmont, Giuseppe Garibaldi, militarism, Otto von Bismarck, Alsace, Lorraine, kaiser, Queen Victoria, plebiscite, regime, Budapest, Czar Alexander II, emancipation, abolitionism, secede.

Main Ideas
2. **Summarize** Bismarck's and Cavour's methods for achieving unification in Germany and Italy by using a Venn diagram like the one below.

Bismarck   Cavour
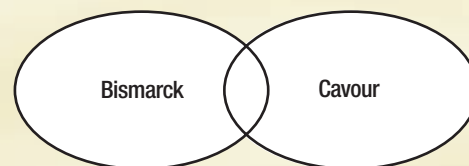
3. **Describe** the authoritarian aspects of Napoleon III's rule.

4. **Contrast** the views of the Federalists and Republicans in the United States.

Critical Thinking
5. **The BIG Idea** **Analyzing** Explain how liberalism affected events in Great Britain during the nineteenth century.

6. **Making Inferences** Why did Alexander III of Russia turn against the reforms of his father?

7. **Analyzing Visuals** Examine the political cartoon on page 634. How has the artist portrayed the relationship of the prime minister, Britain, and Parliament?

Writing About History
8. **Expository Writing** Write an essay comparing Bismarck and Napoleon III. Discuss events that occurred while they were in power and the impact of their leadership.

Romanticism and Realism

Romanticism was a reaction to the Enlightenment and to the Industrial Revolution. Romantics believed that emotions, rather than reason, should guide them. By the mid-nineteenth century, romanticism had given way to a new movement called realism. Realists focused on the everyday world and ordinary people.

Romanticism

MAIN IDEA In the arts, romanticism stressed individualism and emotion instead of the Enlightenment's focus on universalism and reason.

HISTORY & YOU Do you and your friends dress differently from your parents? Perhaps you are expressing your individuality, as the romantics did in their time. Read to learn what romantics of the eighteenth century valued.

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 ages, especially the medieval era. They felt it had a mystery and interest in the soul that their own industrial age did not. Romantic architects revived medieval styles and built castles, cathedrals, city halls, parliamentary buildings, and even railway stations in a style called neo-Gothic. The British Houses of Parliament in London are a prime example of this architectural style.

Romanticism in Art and Music

Romantic artists shared at least two features. First, to them, all art was a reflection of 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.

Romanticism: The Prisoner of Chillon

In 1816, English poet Lord Byron (1788–1824) visited the Castle of Chillon in Switzerland. The story of Swiss patriot François Bonivard, a political prisoner in its dungeon for four years (1532–1536), inspired Byron to pen the moving poem "The Prisoner of Chillon" (1820). Here is an excerpt.

"… They chain'd us each to a column stone,
And we were three—yet, each alone,
We could not move a single pace,
We could not see each other's face,
But with that pale and livid light
That made us strangers in our sight:
And thus together—yet apart,
Fetter'd in hand, but join'd in heart."

DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTIONS

Eugène Delacroix painted the *Prisoner of Chillon* in 1834 in response to a poem by Byron.

1. **Interpreting** Describe the feelings you get from the poem and the painting.
2. **Making Connections** What might have inspired Byron and Delacroix to address the story of a long-ago prisoner?

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."

Many of Delacroix's paintings depicted scenes of uprisings against tyrants. His most influential work is perhaps *Liberty Leading the People*. In this painting, a woman holding a red banner is the symbol of liberty. She is leading revolutionaries forward during battle. After his travels to Spain and North Africa, Delacroix painted the animals he had seen there. *The Lion Hunt* is a good example of his later subjects.

In music, too, romantic trends dominated the first half of the nineteenth century. One of the most famous composers of this era was **Ludwig van Beethoven**. Some have called him a bridge between classical and romantic music. Others argue that he was such a rare genius he cannot be easily classified.

Beethoven's early work fell largely within the classical form of the eighteenth century. However, his *Third Symphony* embodied the elements of romanticism with powerful melodies that created dramatic intensity.

In one way, Beethoven was definitely a romantic. He thought of himself as an artist, not a craftsman. He had an intense and difficult personality but was committed to writing music that reflected his deepest feelings. "I must write, for what weighs on my heart, I must express."

Romanticism in Literature

Like the visual arts, the literary arts were deeply affected by romanticism and reflected a romantic interest in the past. Sir Walter Scott's *Ivanhoe,* for example, a best-seller in the early 1800s, told of clashes between knights in medieval England. Many romantic writers chose medieval subjects and created stories that expressed their strong nationalism.
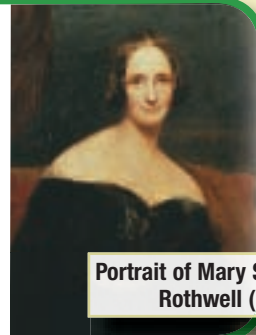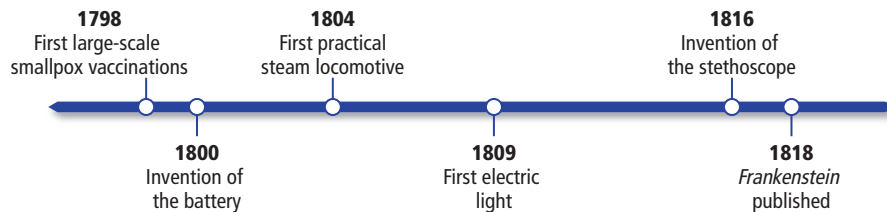
An attraction to the exotic and unfamiliar gave rise to Gothic literature. Chilling examples are Mary Shelley's *Frankenstein*

HISTORY & ARTS — PRIMARY SOURCE

A Romantic Response to Industrialization

Scientific Advancements Leading Up to the Publication of *Frankenstein*

1798 First large-scale smallpox vaccinations

1800 Invention of the battery

1804 First practical steam locomotive

1809 First electric light

1816 Invention of the stethoscope

1818 *Frankenstein* published

Portrait of Mary Shelley by Richard Rothwell (1797–1851)

This illustration of the monster by Theodor M. von Holst appeared in Shelley's *Frankenstein.*

"Frightful must it be; for supremely frightful would be the effect of any human endeavour to mock the stupendous mechanism of the Creator of the world. His success would terrify the artist; he would rush away from his odious [disgusting] handywork, horror-stricken. He would hope that left to itself, the slight spark of life which he had communicated would fade; that this thing, which had received such imperfect animation [life], would subside into dead matter; and he might sleep in the belief that the silence of the grave would quench for ever the transient [short] existence of the hideous corpse which he had looked upon as the cradle of life."

—Mary Shelley, about her monster in her book *Frankenstein*

DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTIONS

Shelley's 1818 novel reflects the romantics' reaction to scientific advances.

1. **Summarizing** Based on the excerpt, how did Shelley feel about her monster?
2. **Making Connections** Can you connect the time line events and Shelley's quote?

in Britain and Edgar Allen Poe's short stories of horror in the United States. Some romantics even sought the unusual in their own lives. They explored their dreams and nightmares and sought altered states of consciousness.

For the true romantic, poetry was the ideal art form. 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.

Wordsworth's experience of nature was almost mystical:

PRIMARY SOURCE

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

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 human soul was a source of expression for William Blake, a poet and artist connected with romanticism. Blake's *Songs of Innocence*, read in conjunction with his *Songs of Experience*, express what Blake called "the two contrary states of the human soul."

Many romantics were convinced that industrialization would cause people to become alienated from their inner selves and from the natural world. This idea shows up in Mary Shelley's novel *Frankenstein*: When science dares to try and conquer nature, a monster is created.

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

New Age of Science

MAIN IDEA Rapid advances in science and technology fueled industrial growth, made medical care more effective, and challenged religious faith.

HISTORY & YOU When you get sick, do you take antibiotics to kill the germs? Learn how discoveries, such as the existence of germs, changed society in the 1800s.

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.

New Discoveries

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.

Dramatic material benefits such as these 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 to or rejection of religion in the affairs of the world. For many people, truth was now to be found in science and the concrete material existence of humans.

Charles Darwin

More than anyone else, it was Charles Darwin who promoted the idea that humans are material beings who are part of the natural world. In 1859, Charles Darwin published his book *On the Origin of Species by Means of Natural Selection.*

Realist artists depicted the everyday life of ordinary people with photographic realism.

DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTIONS

French realist Gustave Courbet preferred to portray the common people, as here in *The Stonebreakers* (1849) where workers are repairing a road.

1. **Contrasting** In what ways does this painting illustrate Courbet's rejection of romanticism?
2. **Interpreting** What do you think was Courbet's goal in portraying a scene?

The basic idea of this book was that each species, or kind, of plant and animal had evolved over a long period of time from earlier, 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 born with variations, or differences, that make them more adaptable to their environment than other organisms, a process that Darwin called **natural selection.**

Those organisms that are naturally selected for survival ("survival of the fittest") reproduce and thrive. The unfit do not survive. The fit that 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 did not take his ideas seriously. Other people objected that Darwin's theory made human beings ordinary products of nature rather than unique creations of God. 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. Some believers felt Darwin had not acknowledged God's role in creation. Some detractors scorned Darwin and depicted him unfavorably in cartoons. Gradually, however, many scientists and other intellectuals came to accept Darwin's theory. His theory changed thinking in countless fields from biology to anthropology.

✓**Reading Check** **Describing** How did the theory of natural selection influence the way people saw the world?

Realism

MAIN IDEA The rise of science encouraged writers and artists to create realistic works that portrayed even the poor and degraded in society.

HISTORY & YOU Do you enjoy lifelike video games? What details make these games so realistic? Learn about the details that created realism in nineteenth century art and literature.

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." In the literary and visual arts, realism became a movement as well.

Realism in Literature

The literary realists of the mid-nineteenth century rejected romanticism. They wanted to write about ordinary characters from life, not 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.

The French author Gustave Flaubert, who was a leading novelist of the 1850s and 1860s, perfected the realist novel. His work Madame Bovary presents a critical description of small-town life in France.

In Great Britain, **Charles Dickens** became a huge success with novels that showed the realities of life for the poor in the early Industrial Age. Novels such as *Oliver Twist* and *David Copperfield* created a vivid picture of the brutal life of London's poor, as well as of their humor and humanity. In fact, his characters were so sympathetic that they helped inspire social reform.

Realism in Art

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 painter Gustave Courbet was the most famous artist of the realist school. He loved to portray scenes from everyday life. His subjects were factory workers and peasants. "I have never seen either angels or goddesses, so I am not interested in painting them," Courbet once commented. 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?

Vocabulary
1. **Explain** the significance of: romanticism, individuality, Ludwig van Beethoven, approach, Louis Pasteur, secularization, Charles Darwin, organic evolution, natural selection, realism, Charles Dickens.

Main Ideas
2. **List** the values of the romantics.
3. **Summarize** the discoveries that scientists made in the mid-nineteenth century by using a chart like the one below.

Scientist	Discovery
Pasteur	
Mendeleyev	
Faraday	
Darwin	

4. **Explain** why Charles Dickens's novels helped inspire social reform.

Critical Thinking
5. **The BIG Idea** **Comparing and Contrasting** How did romanticism compare to the ideas of the Enlightenment?
6. **Assessing** How did scientific developments affect the cultural movements of the nineteenth century?
7. **Analyzing Visuals** Compare Delacroix's *Prisoner of Chillon* on page 639 with *The Stonebreakers* on page 642. From the paintings, how would you explain why we say that Delacroix is a romantic, and Courbet is a realist?

Writing About History
8. **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.

History ONLINE

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Time Life Pictures/Getty Images

A Showcase for Industry and Progress

On May 1, 1851, the Great Exhibition opened in London's Hyde Park. The first international exhibition of its kind, the Great Exhibition displayed thousands of industrial innovations and manufactured goods from around the globe. This event displayed Great Britain's influential position as the "workshop of the world." Perhaps the crowning achievement of the Great Exhibition was the exhibition hall itself—the world's first prefabricated building, constructed of iron and glass and called "the Crystal Palace."

Over 6 million people of all classes, many from European cities, visited the Great Exhibition during the 141 days that it was open.

Thirty-two countries from Europe, America, Africa, and Asia took part in the exhibition. Fourteen thousand exhibitors displayed their products.

STOP THE PRESSES

Much was written about the Great Exhibition and the Crystal Palace, including an opening-day ode by William Makepeace Thackeray that expressed the general public's sense of awe at the sight of the exhibition hall and the products on display "from Mississippi and from Nile—from Baltic, Ganges, Bosporus." Not everyone was impressed, however. Of the Crystal Palace, the artist Leigh Hunt wrote, "It was neither crystal nor a palace." The art critic John Ruskin said it looked like "a huge greenhouse."

Within its giant iron frame of 2,300 girders, the Crystal Palace contained nearly 300,000 panes of glass.

Two thousand laborers built the Crystal Palace in nine months—a record in 1851.

New products exhibited included false teeth, rubber goods, hydraulic presses, automated spinning machines, steam engines and pumps, and an early submarine.

MASS-PRODUCED GOODS

Because of Britain's access to raw materials from its colonies and because of the inventions and improvements in machinery during the Industrial Revolution, the thousands of products on display at the Great Exhibition had been mass-produced and were affordable to the average consumer. At the opening ceremony, Prince Albert of Great Britain stressed this point: "The products of all quarters of the globe are placed here at our disposal. And we have only to choose that which is best and cheapest for our purposes...."

ANALYZING VISUALS

1. **Comparing** If an international exhibition like this were held today, what kinds of innovative products might be on display? What types of industries would be represented?

2. **Inferring** Which country today might be called "the workshop of the world"? Explain why.

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INDUSTRIALIZATION Transformed Society

- The Industrial Revolution began in Great Britain and spread throughout Europe and the United States.
- New technologies improved the production and transportation of goods.
- Workers migrated to cities as economies shifted from being farm-based to factory-based.
- As cities grew, an industrial middle class and an industrial working class emerged.

NEW TECHNOLOGIES DROVE INDUSTRIALIZATION

The new process of "puddling" helped factories make high-quality iron to build locomotives and machinery.

THE GERMAN STATES UNIFIED

A ceremony at the palace of Versailles installed William I as kaiser of the Second German Empire.

IDEOLOGIES Arising From the Industrial Revolution

- Harsh conditions in factories made socialism attractive.
- Liberalism and nationalism threatened conservative governments, leading to the revolutions of 1830 and 1848.
- Liberal reforms helped Great Britain to avoid revolution, while France, Austria, and Russia grew more authoritarian.
- The Crimean War broke down the Concert of Europe, enabling nationalists to unify Germany and Italy.

REALISM IN LITERATURE: THE NOVEL *MADAME BOVARY*
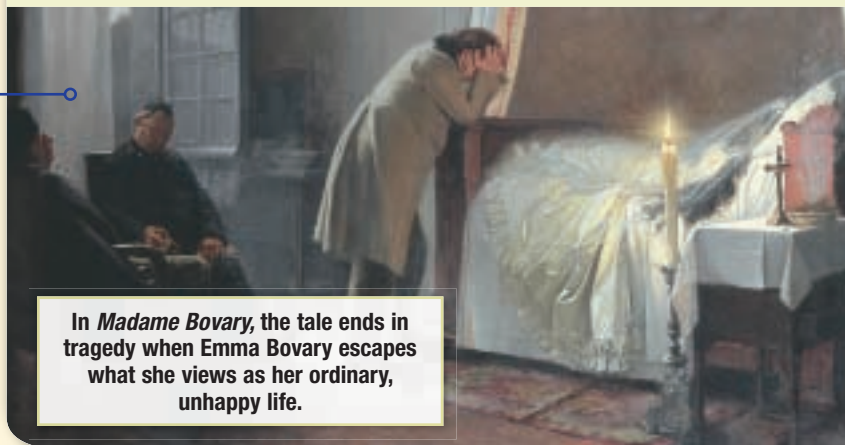
In *Madame Bovary,* the tale ends in tragedy when Emma Bovary escapes what she views as her ordinary, unhappy life.

CULTURAL MOVEMENTS Arising From the Industrial Revolution

- Romanticism emphasized emotions and individuality in response to the Enlightenment's emphasis on reason.
- The Industrial Revolution heightened interest in scientific research.
- Growing confidence in science undermined religious faith, leading to increased secularization.
- Interest in science led to the realism movement, featuring ordinary people instead of romantic heroes.

STANDARDIZED TEST PRACTICE

TEST-TAKING TIP

When a question asks for an answer that is supported by information presented in a table, find the answer choice that is *proven true* by the information in the table.

Reviewing Vocabulary

Directions: Choose the word or words that best complete the sentence.

1. Another word for *popular vote* is _____.

  A emancipation

  B plebiscite

  C secession

  D kaiser

2. _____ evolution means that plant and animal species have evolved over a long period of time from earlier, simpler forms.

  A Natural

  B Sequential

  C Environmental

  D Organic

3. _____ is based on tradition and social stability.

  A Liberalism

  B Conservatism

  C Socialism

  D Abolitionism

4. Under _____, the public—generally the government—owns the means of production.

  A romanticism

  B liberalism

  C socialism

  D conservatism

Reviewing Main Ideas

Directions: Choose the best answers to the following questions.

Section 1 *(pp. 614–621)*

5. Which engineer improved the steam engine so it could drive machinery?

  A James Watt

  B Robert Fulton

  C Henry Cort

  D Robert Owen

6. From where did labor for the factories in the United States mostly come?

  A Factories from the Northeast

  B Native American population

  C Southern cities

  D Farm population

7. In what did industrialization trigger a dramatic increase?

  A Diseases

  B City populations

  C Agricultural jobs

  D Death rates

Section 2 *(pp. 624–629)*

8. Who was the most influential leader at the Congress of Vienna meeting in 1814?

  A Charles X

  B Louis-Napoleon

  C Klemens von Metternich

  D Ludwig van Beethoven

Need Extra Help?								
If You Missed Questions . . .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Go to Page . . .	635	642	624	621	616	619	619	624

GO ON

9. What ideology or ideologies were behind the 1830 revolutions?

A Radicalism

B Liberalism and nationalism

C Socialism

D Romanticism

Section 3 *(pp. 630–637)*

10. Who was the politician who practiced realpolitik?

A Camillo di Cavour

B Giuseppe Garibaldi

C Otto von Bismarck

D Klemens von Metternich

11. What was the largest problem in czarist Russia?

A Poor soil

B Czar Alexander II

C Romanticism

D Serfdom

Section 4 *(pp. 638–643)*

12. What did romantics view as the direct expression of the soul?

A Prose

B Poetry

C Liberalism

D Nature

13. Who classified all the material elements known in the 1860s based on their atomic weights?

A Louis Pasteur

B Michael Faraday

C Dimitry Mendeleyev

D Robert Fulton

Critical Thinking

Directions: Choose the best answers to the following questions.

Use the following information to answer question 14.

American Civil War Casualties (1861–1865)

Type of Casualty	Union	Confederate	Total
Combat	110,070	74,524	184,594
Other*	249,458	124,000	373,458
TOTALS	359,528	198,524	558,052

*Includes deaths from disease, hardship, and accidents and includes losses among prisoners of war.

14. Which of the following statements is supported by the information in the table?

A There were more than a million casualties in the Civil War.

B Confederate forces had more casualties overall than did Union forces.

C More Confederate soldiers died in combat than did Union soldiers.

D Most soldiers died from causes other than actual combat.

15. Why were factory workers forced to work in shifts?

A To keep the machines producing at a steady rate

B Because women had to stay at home with their children

C Because workers did not want to rise early

D To give them diversity in the tasks performed

16. Why did the liberals favor a government ruled by a constitution?

A To give everyone the right to vote

B To guarantee the rights they sought to preserve

C To do away with the need of a monarch

D To let the lower classes share power

17. Why did the literary realists of the mid-nineteenth century prefer novels to poems?

    A Gothic novels were far more popular than poetry.

    B No one knew how to write poetry.

    C They could express their social views through their characters.

    D They wanted to convey emotions with as few words as possible.

Use the map and answer question 18.

Revolutions in Europe, 1848–1849

Center of revolution

18. How far south did the revolutions of 1848–1849 extend?

    A Naples

    B Buda

    C Florence

    D Palermo

Document-Based Questions

Directions: Analyze the document and answer the short-answer questions that follow the document.

William Wordsworth, the foremost English romantic poet of nature, wrote the *Lyrical Ballads.* Among those ballads is "The Tables Turned." Read the following excerpt.

> *"One impulse from a vernal wood*
> *May teach you more of man,*
> *Of moral evil and of good,*
> *Than all the sages can.*
> *Sweet is the lore which Nature brings;*
> *Our meddling intellect*
> *Mis-shapes the beauteous forms of things:—*
> *We murder to dissect.*
> *Enough of Science and of Art;*
> *Close up those barren leaves;*
> *Come forth, and bring with you a heart*
> *That watches and receives."*

19. What characteristic of romantic poetry is evident in Wordsworth's poem?

20. What message is Wordsworth trying to convey?

Extended Response

21. Literature reflects the concerns that people have about their society. How did the political, economic, and social injustices that existed during the nineteenth century contribute to romanticism and realism?

History ONLINE

For additional test practice, use Self-Check Quizzes—Chapter 19 at **glencoe.com**.

Need Extra Help?

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