What events can affect the entire world?

The 1900 World’s Fair in Paris, shown in this photo, celebrated the achievements of the 1800s. The fair showcased inventions of the Second Industrial Revolution, especially those using the newly discovered power of electricity. In this chapter, you will learn about the causes and effects of the Second Industrial Revolution.

- Name another event that draws participants from around the world. What is the significance of the event?
- What are some technologies invented in your lifetime? How have they influenced your life?
Comparing Opportunities
Create a Folded Table and use it to examine the lives of women before and after the Second Industrial Revolution. Include job opportunities for women, marriage and women’s role in family life, and women’s rights.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>“Bloody Sunday” in St. Petersburg, Russia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1914</td>
<td>World War I begins</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1914</td>
<td>Panama Canal opens</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Visit glencoe.com to preview Chapter 20.
By the late nineteenth century, the Second Industrial Revolution made the economies of most European nations even more productive. Electricity and the internal-combustion engine transformed most of the European world into industrialized societies. However, the transition was not easy for workers. Many sought reform through trade unions or socialism to improve their lives.

The Second Industrial Revolution

In Western Europe, the introduction of electricity, chemicals, and petroleum triggered the Second Industrial Revolution, and a world economy began to develop.

HISTORY & YOU

Does your life come to a halt when the power goes out? Read to learn when electricity first became a part of everyday life.

In the late nineteenth century, the belief in progress was so strong in the West that it was almost a religion. Europeans and Americans had been impressed by the stunning bounty of the Second Industrial Revolution. The first Industrial Revolution had given rise to textiles, railroads, iron, and coal. In the Second Industrial Revolution, steel, chemicals, electricity, and petroleum were the keys to making economies even more productive.

New Products

One major change in industry between 1870 and 1914 was the substitution of steel for iron. Steel was used in the building of lighter, smaller, and faster machines and engines. It was also used in railways, ships, and weapons. In 1860 Great Britain, France, Germany, and Belgium produced 125,000 tons (112,500 t) of steel. By 1913, the total was an astounding 32 million tons (29 million t).

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

Electricity gave birth to a series of inventions. Homes and cities began to have electric lights when Thomas Edison in the United States and Joseph Swan in Great Britain created the light bulb. Edison patented the first commercially practical incandescent light. In 1878, with the help of several financiers, including...
J. P. Morgan, Edison formed the Edison Electric Light Company in New York City. It was during this time that Edison remarked, “We will make electricity so cheap that only the rich will burn candles.”

A revolution in communications also began. Alexander Graham Bell invented the telephone in 1876. Guglielmo Marconi sent the first radio waves across the Atlantic in 1901. Marconi made this report of his remarkable discovery:

“Shortly before mid-day I placed the single earphone to my ear and started listening. . . . I was at last on the point of putting . . . my beliefs to the test. . . . The electric waves sent out into space from Britain had traversed the Atlantic—the distance . . . of 1,700 miles [2,735 km]—It was an epoch in history. I now felt for the first time absolutely certain the day would come when mankind would be able to send messages without wires . . . between the farthest ends of the earth.”
By the 1880s, streetcars and subways powered by electricity had appeared in major European cities. Electricity transformed the factory as well. Conveyor belts, cranes, and machines could all be powered by electricity. With electric lights, factories could remain open 24 hours a day.

The development of the internal-combustion engine, fired by oil and gasoline, provided a new source of power in transportation. This engine gave rise to ocean liners with oil-fired engines, as well as to the airplane and the automobile. In 1903 Orville and Wilbur Wright made the first flight in a fixed-wing plane at Kitty Hawk, North Carolina. In 1919 the first regular passenger air service was established.

New Patterns

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

Early cars were handmade and expensive. Only several hundred were sold between 1893 and 1901. In 1908, an American, Henry Ford, revolutionized the car industry by using an assembly line to mass-produce his Model T. The assembly line cut production costs, enabling Ford to lower prices. By 1916, Ford's factories were producing 735,000 cars a year.

The automobile transformed city life. No longer limited by a transportation system centered on rail lines and streetcars, people could live and work where they wanted. New, broader markets opened to business. Suburbs expanded, new roads were built, and traffic and air pollution increased. Today, nearly 58 million new vehicles hit the road each year worldwide.

Science, Technology, & Society

The Automobile: Technology That Changed the Global Landscape

1. **Identifying** How did the automobile accelerate change in the business world?

2. **Evaluating** What are the major benefits and costs of automotive technology?
manufactured goods were lower because of reduced transportation costs. One of the biggest reasons for more efficient production was the assembly line, a new manufacturing method pioneered by Henry Ford in 1913. The assembly line allowed a much more efficient mass production of goods.

In the cities, the first department stores began to sell a new range of consumer goods. These goods—clocks, bicycles, electric lights, and typewriters, for example—were made possible by the steel and electrical industries.

Not everyone benefited from the Second Industrial Revolution. By 1900, Europe was divided into two economic zones. Great Britain, Belgium, France, the Netherlands, Germany, the western part of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, and northern Italy made up an advanced industrialized core. These nations had a high standard of living and decent systems of transportation.

Another part of Europe was still largely agricultural. This was the little-industrialized area to the south and east. It consisted of southern Italy, most of Austria-Hungary, Spain, Portugal, the Balkan kingdoms, and Russia. These countries provided food and raw materials for the industrial countries and had a much lower standard of living than the rest of Europe.

**Toward a World Economy**

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

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

**The Working Class**

**Main Idea**  Industrialization gave some a higher standard of living, but struggling workers turned to trade unions or socialism to improve their lives.

**HISTORY & YOU** Have you ever seen striking workers walking a picket line? Read to learn how trade unions first formed to help workers win better working conditions.

The transition to an industrialized society was very hard on workers. It made their lives difficult and forced them to live in crowded slums. They had to work long hours at mind-numbing tasks. This transition eventually gave workers a higher standard of living.

**Goals for Reform**

Reformers of this era believed that industrial capitalism was heartless and brutal. They wanted a new kind of society. Some reformers were moderates. They were willing to work within the system for gradual changes such as fewer hours, better benefits, and safe working conditions. Often they used trade unions to achieve these practical goals.

Other reformers were more radical. They wanted to abolish the capitalist system entirely and create a socialist system. To achieve this goal, they supported socialist parties. Socialist parties emerged after 1870, but the theory on which they were based came largely from Karl Marx. One form of Marxist socialism was eventually called communism (see Chapter 24).

**Marx’s Theory**

In 1848 The Communist Manifesto was published. It was written by two Germans, Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels, who were appalled at the horrible conditions in the industrial factories. They blamed the system of industrial capitalism for these conditions.

Marx believed that all of world history was a “history of class struggles.” According to Marx, oppressor and oppressed have always “stood in constant opposition to one another.” One group—the oppressors—owned the means of production, such as land, raw materials, money, and so forth.
In this passage from *The Communist Manifesto*, Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels express their belief that a classless society would be the end product of the struggle between the bourgeoisie and the proletariat.

“[T]he first step in the revolution by the working class is to raise the proletariat to the position of the ruling class. . . . The proletariat will use its political supremacy to wrest, by degrees, all capital from the bourgeoisie, to centralize all instruments of production in the hands of the State, i.e., of the proletariat organized as the ruling class; and to increase the total productive forces as rapidly as possible. . . . The proletarians have nothing to lose but their chains. They have a world to win.”

*The Communist Manifesto* ends with a call to unity: “Workers of All Countries, Unite!”

The German Social Democratic Party was the most important party to emerge based on Marx’s ideas. This German poster from 1904 proclaims “Proletarians of the World, Unite!”

**Document-Based Questions**

1. **Summarizing** What is the central message of the poster? Describe how the images create this message.

2. **Synthesizing** Describe the goals of the revolution that Marx and Engels discuss in the excerpt.

This gave them the power to control government and society. The other group, who owned nothing and who depended on the owners of the means of production, was the oppressed.

In the industrialized societies of Marx’s day, the class struggle continued. Around him, Marx believed he saw a society that was “more and more splitting up into two great hostile camps, into two great classes directly facing each other: Bourgeoisie and Proletariat.” The bourgeoisie—the middle class—were the oppressors. The proletariat (proh•lieh•TEHR•ee•uht)—the working class—were the oppressed.

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

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

In spite of government efforts to destroy it, the German Social Democratic Party grew. When it received four million votes in the 1912 elections, it became the largest single party in Germany. Because the German constitution gave greater power to the upper house and the German emperor, the SPD was not able to bring about the kind of changes it wanted.

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

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

Trade Unions

Another force working for evolutionary, rather than revolutionary, socialism was the trade union, or labor union. To improve their conditions, workers organized in a union. Then the union had to get the employer to recognize its right to represent workers in collective bargaining. This is a process whereby union representatives negotiate with employers over wages and hours.

The right to strike was another important part of the trade union movement. In a strike, a union calls on its members to stop work in order to pressure employers to meet their demands for higher wages or improved factory safety. At first, laws were passed that made strikes illegal under any circumstances. In Great Britain, unions won the right to strike in the 1870s. By 1914, there were almost four million workers in British trade unions. In the rest of Europe, trade unions had varying degrees of success in helping workers achieve a better life.

✓ Reading Check  Summarizing How would you summarize Marx’s theory as expressed in The Communist Manifesto?
The Emergence of Mass Society

During the nineteenth century, a vast number of people migrated to cities. The increasing urban population led governments to improve public health and sanitation services. Women began to advocate for their rights, leisure time increased, and many Western governments financed public education.

The New Urban Environment

As workers migrated to cities, local governments had to solve urgent public health problems; and their solutions allowed cities to grow even more.

HISTORY & YOU When you attend a crowded event, what kinds of problems arise from having so many people in one place? Read about the problems of over-crowded cities of the late 1800s.

By the end of the nineteenth century, the new industrial world had led to the emergence of a mass society in which the condition of the majority—the lower classes—was demanding some governmental attention. Governments now had to consider how to appeal to the masses, rather than just to the wealthier citizens. Housing was one area of great concern. Crowded quarters could easily spread disease. An even bigger threat to health was public sanitation.

Growth of Urban Populations

With few jobs available in the countryside, people from rural areas migrated to cities to find work in the factories or, later, in blue-collar industries. As a result of this vast migration, more and more people lived in cities. In the 1850s, urban dwellers made up about 40 percent of the English population, 15 percent in France, 10 percent in Prussia (Prussia was the largest German state), and 5 percent in Russia. By 1890, urban dwellers had increased to about 60 percent in England, 25 percent in France, 30 percent in Prussia, and 10 percent in Russia. In industrialized nations, cities grew tremendously. Between 1800 and 1900, the population in London grew from 960,000 to 6,500,000.

Improvements in Public Health and Sanitation

Cities also grew faster in the second half of the nineteenth century because of improvements in public health and sanitation. Thus, more people could survive living close together. Improvements came only after reformers in the 1840s urged local governments to do something about the filthy living conditions that caused disease. For example, cholera had ravaged Europe in the early 1830s and 1840s. Contaminated water in the overcrowded cities had spread the deadly disease.
On the advice of reformers, city governments created boards of health to improve housing quality. Medical officers and building inspectors inspected dwellings for public health hazards. Building regulations required running water and internal drainage systems for new buildings.

Clean water and an effective sewage system were critical to public health. The need for freshwater was met by a system of dams and reservoirs that stored the water. Aqueducts and tunnels then carried water from the countryside to the city and into homes. Gas heaters, and later electric heaters, made regular hot baths possible.

The treatment of sewage was improved by building underground pipes that carried raw sewage far from the city for disposal. A public campaign in Frankfurt, Germany featured the slogan “from the toilet to the river in half an hour.”

Reading Check  
Explaining Why did cities grow so quickly in the 1800s?
Social Structure

European society comprised three broad social classes—upper, middle, and lower.

HISTORY & YOU Do you think of yourself as middle class? Learn how your great-great-grandparents might have viewed themselves.

After 1871, most people enjoyed a higher standard of living. Still, great poverty remained in Western society. Between the few who were rich and the many who were poor existed several middle-class groups.

The New Elite

At the top of European society stood a wealthy elite. This group made up only 5 percent of the population but controlled from 30 to 40 percent of the wealth. During the 1800s, the most successful industrialists, bankers, and merchants—the wealthy upper-middle class—had joined with the landed aristocracy to form this new elite. Whether aristocratic or upper-middle class in background, members of the elite became leaders in the government and military.

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

The Middle Classes

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

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

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

The European middle classes believed in hard work, which was open to everyone and guaranteed to have positive results. Outward appearances were also very important to the middle classes. The etiquette book *The Habits of Good Society* was a best-seller.

The Working Classes

Below the middle classes on the social scale were the working classes—also referred to as the lower classes—which made up almost 80 percent of the European population. These classes included landholding peasants, farm laborers, and sharecroppers, especially in eastern Europe.

The urban working class consisted of many different groups. They might be skilled artisans or semiskilled laborers, but many were unskilled day laborers or domestic servants. In Britain in 1900, one out of every seven employed persons was a domestic servant. Most servants were women.

After 1870, urban workers began to live more comfortably. Reforms created better living conditions in cities. In addition, a rise in wages, along with a decline in many consumer costs, made it possible for workers to buy more than just food and housing. Workers now had money to buy extra clothes or pay to entertain themselves in their few leisure hours. Because workers had organized and conducted strikes, they had won the 10-hour workday with a Saturday afternoon off.

✓ Reading Check 

**Identifying** Name the major groups in the social structure of the late nineteenth century.
Women’s Experiences

MAIN IDEA Attitudes toward women changed as they moved into white-collar jobs, received more education, and began campaigning for the right to vote.

HISTORY & YOU Do you think of any jobs as “women’s work”? Read to learn how women started to expand their options in the late 1800s.

In 1800 women were mainly defined by their family and household roles. The vast majority of women throughout Europe and the United States had no legal identity apart from their husbands. Married women could not be a party in a lawsuit, could not sit on a jury, could not hold property in their own names, and could not write a will.

Women in the early nineteenth century remained legally inferior and economically dependent on men. In the course of the nineteenth century and during the Second Industrial Revolution, women struggled to change their status.

New Job Opportunities

During much of the nineteenth century, working-class groups maintained the belief that women should remain at home to bear and nurture children and should not be allowed in the industrial workforce.

The Second Industrial Revolution, however, opened the door to new jobs for women. There were not enough men to fill the relatively low-paid, white-collar jobs being created, so employers began to hire women. Both industrial plants and retail shops needed clerks, typists, secretaries, file clerks, and salesclerks.

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

The Marriage Ideal

Many people in the nineteenth century believed in the ideal expressed in Lord Tennyson’s *The Princess*, published in 1847:

**Primary Source**

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

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

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

The Family Ideal

The family was the central institution of middle-class life. With fewer children in the family, mothers could devote more time to child care and domestic leisure. The middle-class family fostered an ideal of togetherness. The Victorians created the family Christmas with its Yule log, tree, songs, and exchange of gifts. By the 1850s, Fourth of July celebrations in the United States had changed from wild celebrations to family picnics.

The lives of working-class women were different from those of their middle-class counterparts. Most working-class women had to earn money to help support their families. While their earnings averaged only a small percentage of their husbands’ earnings, the contributions of working-class women made a big difference in the economic survival of their families. Daughters in working-class families were expected to work until they married. After marriage, many women often did small jobs at home to support the family.

For working-class women who worked away from the home, child care was a concern. Older siblings, other relatives, or neighbors often provided child care while the mothers worked. Some mothers sent their children to dame schools in which other women provided in-home child care, as well as some basic literacy instruction.

For the children of the working classes, childhood was over by the age of 9 or 10. By this age, children often became apprentices or were employed in odd jobs.

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

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

Women’s Rights

Modern feminism, or the movement for women’s rights, had its beginnings during the Enlightenment. At this time, some women advocated equality for women based on the doctrine of natural rights.

In the 1830s, a number of women in the United States and Europe argued for the right of women to own property and to divorce. By law, a husband had almost complete control over his wife’s property. These early efforts were not very successful, however. Married women in Great Britain did not win the right to own some property until 1870.

The fight for property rights was only the beginning of the women’s movement. Some middle- and upper-middle-class
1. **Explaining** Why did the Great Reform Act of 1832 fail to satisfy the suffragists?

2. **Analyzing Primary Sources** Based on the quote, why did the Women’s Social and Political Union turn to destructive tactics?

Britain’s Great Reform Act of 1832 was meant to extend voting rights, but it used the word “male” instead of “people,” excluding women. In response, women’s suffrage societies sprouted across Britain. Yet by the early 1900s, they had made little progress. In 1903, Emmeline Pankhurst and her daughters founded the Women’s Social and Political Union, and the struggle took a militant turn.

Pankhurst and other suffragists were jailed repeatedly. As further protest, many went on hunger strikes in jail. This led to violent forced-feeding through a nostril tube.

When Britain entered World War I in 1914, the suffragists put their campaign on hold to support the war effort. The British government finally granted full voting rights to women in 1918.

Britain’s Suffragists

Women fought for and gained access to universities. Others sought entry into occupations dominated by men.

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

By the 1840s and 1850s, the movement for women’s rights expanded as women called for equal political rights. They believed that **suffrage**, the right to vote, was the key to improving their overall position. Members of the women’s movement, called suffragists, had one basic aim: the right of women to full citizenship in the nation-state.

The British women’s movement was the most active in Europe. The Women’s Social and Political Union, founded in 1903 by **Emmeline Pankhurst** and her daughters, used unusual publicity stunts to call attention to its demands. Its members pelted government officials with eggs, chained themselves to lampposts, burned railroad cars, and smashed the windows of fashionable department stores. British police answered with arrests and brutal treatment of leading activists.

Before World War I, demands for women’s rights echoed throughout Europe and the United States. Before 1914, however, women had the right to vote in only a few nations, such as Norway and Finland, along with some American states. It took the upheaval of World War I to make male-dominated governments give in on this basic issue.

**✓ Reading Check** **Identifying** What was the basic aim of the suffragists?
Education and Leisure

**MAIN IDEA** As a result of industrialization, the levels of education rose. People’s lives became more clearly divided into periods of work and leisure.

**HISTORY & YOU** How would our society change if a college education was required? Read about the era when an elementary education became required by law.

Universal education was a product of the mass society of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Before that time, education was reserved mostly for the elite and the wealthier middle class. Between 1870 and 1914, however, most Western governments began to finance a system of primary education. Boys and girls between the ages of 6 and 12 were required to attend these schools. States also took responsibility for training teachers by setting up teacher-training schools.

**Public Education**

Why did Western nations make this commitment to public education? One reason was industrialization. In the first Industrial Revolution, unskilled labor (workers without training or experience) was able to meet factory needs. The new firms of the Second Industrial Revolution, however, needed trained, skilled workers. Boys and girls with an elementary education now had new job possibilities beyond their villages or small towns. These included white-collar jobs in railways, post offices, schools, and hospitals.

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

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**HISTORY & ARTS**

**Primary Source**

**Leisure**

Coney Island’s amusement parks, beach, and leisure activities provided affordable relaxation and entertainment for working people. Attendance at baseball games grew as mass spectator sports became big business in the late 1800s.

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**DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTIONS**

1. **Analyzing** Why did leisure activities become such big business?
2. **Making Generalizations** What does the popularity of these leisure activities tell you about life in America at the turn of the century?
Compulsory elementary education created a demand for teachers, and most of them were women. Many men saw teaching as a part of women’s “natural role” as nurturers of children. Women were also paid lower salaries than men, which in itself was a strong incentive for states to set up teacher-training schools for women. The first women’s colleges were really teacher-training schools.

The most immediate result of public education was an increase in literacy, or the ability to read. In Western and central Europe most adults could read by 1900. In contrast, the story was very different where governments did not promote education. For example, only about 20 percent of adults in Serbia and Russia could read.

Once literacy expanded, a mass media developed. Newspapers sprang up to appeal to this new reading public. In London, papers such as the Evening News (1881) and the Daily Mail (1896) sold millions of copies each day. These newspapers were all written in an easily understood style. They were also sensationalistic—that is, they provided gossip and gruesome details of crimes.

### New Forms of Leisure

People read this new kind of newspaper in their leisure time. There were other new forms of leisure, too. Amusement parks, dance halls, and organized team sports, for example, became enjoyable ways for people to spend their leisure hours.

These forms of leisure were new in several ways. First, leisure was now seen as what people did for fun after work. In an older era, work and leisure time were not so clearly defined. During the era of cottage industries, family members might chat or laugh while they worked on cloth in their homes. Now free time was more closely scheduled and more often confined to evening hours, weekends, and perhaps a week in the summer.

Second, the new forms of leisure tended to be passive, not participatory. Instead of doing a folk dance on the town square, a young woman sat in a Ferris wheel and was twirled around by a huge machine. Instead of playing a game of tug-of-war at the town fair, a young man sat on the sidelines at a cricket match and cheered his favorite team to victory.

A third change in leisure during this era was that people more often paid for many of their leisure activities. It cost money to ride a merry-go-round or Ferris wheel at Coney Island. This change was perhaps the most dramatic of all. Business entrepreneurs created amusement parks and professional sports teams in order to make a profit. Whatever would sell, they would promote.
At Home in London, 1890

By 1890, London was becoming a modern industrial city. Aggressive rebuilding programs had made workers’ slums into working-class neighborhoods. Class differences, marked by how industrialists and laborers lived, remained clear. However, modern city services allowed everyone to live in a safer, cleaner environment.

Improvements for Workers

Working-class life remained dirty and difficult for many Londoners. Substance abuse, crime, and poverty remained serious problems. Rickety and filthy tenements were still home to people who failed to find decent wages or work at all. Other homes were well-built and offered water and sewer service. For workers with steady jobs and permanent homes, the Second Industrial Revolution offered a stable and improving life.
The owners of successful mills and industrial works enjoyed a luxurious lifestyle in the best neighborhoods of London. Their homes featured every modern convenience. The nobility’s old stigma against the capitalist class had relaxed somewhat. Industrialists and nobles intermarried. The captains of industry sought social status. The aristocracy sought cash reserves and the opportunity to become leaders in the new economy.
During the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, democracy expanded in Western Europe, while the old order preserved authoritarianism in central and eastern Europe. During this time, the United States recovered from the Civil War and became the world’s richest nation. Meanwhile, international rivalries began to set the stage for World War I.

Western Europe and Political Democracy

Growing prosperity after 1850 contributed to the expansion of democracy in Western Europe.

HISTORY & YOU Which political party does your family support? Read about political parties in Western Europe in the late 1800s.

By the late nineteenth century, especially in Western Europe, there were many signs that political democracy was expanding. First, universal male suffrage laws were passed. Second, the prime minister was responsible to the popularly elected legislative body, not to the king or president. This principle is called ministerial responsibility, which is crucial for democracy. Third, mass political parties formed. As more men, and later women, could vote, parties created larger organizations and found ways to appeal to many who were now part of the political process.

Great Britain

Before 1871 Great Britain had a working two-party parliamentary system. These two parties—the Liberals and Conservatives—competed to pass laws that expanded the right to vote. Reform acts in 1867 and 1884 increased the number of adult male voters. With political democracy established, social reforms for the working class soon followed. The working class in Great Britain supported the Liberal Party. Two developments made Liberals fear losing this support. First, the trade unions grew, and they favored a more radical change of the economic system. Second, in 1900, the Labour Party emerged and dedicated itself to the interests of workers. To retain the workers’ support, the Liberals voted for social reforms, such as unemployment benefits and old age pensions.

France

In France, the collapse of Louis-Napoleon’s Second Empire left the country in confusion. Finally, in 1875, the Third Republic gained a republican constitution. The new government had a
1. **Location** Which three empires extend beyond the area shown on this map?

2. **Human-Environment Interaction** Which empire do you think would be most likely to have to invade another empire to expand its own boundaries? Explain.

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**Italy**

Italy had emerged by 1870 as a united national state. However, there was little national unity because of the great gulf between the poverty-stricken south and the industrialized north. Constant turmoil between labor and industry weakened the social fabric of the nation. Even universal male suffrage, granted in 1912, did little to halt the widespread government corruption and weakness.

**Reading Check** Summarizing What is the principle of ministerial responsibility?
Central and Eastern Europe: The Old Order

Central and eastern Europe had more conservative governments than did Western Europe. Germany, the Austro-Hungarian Empire, and Russia were less industrialized, and education was not widely available. It was easier, then, for the old ruling groups to continue to dominate politics.

Germany
The constitution of the new imperial Germany that Otto von Bismarck began in 1871 set up a two-house legislature. The lower house, the Reichstag, was elected on the basis of universal male suffrage.

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

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

Conservative forces—especially the landowning nobility and big industrialists—tried to thwart the movement for democracy by supporting a strong foreign policy. They believed that expansion abroad would increase their profits and would also divert people from pursuing democratic reforms.

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

The empire remained troubled by conflicts among its ethnic groups. A German minority governed Austria but felt increasingly threatened by Czechs, Poles, and other Slavic groups within the empire. Representatives of these groups in the parliament agitated for their freedom, which encouraged the emperor to ignore the parliament and govern by imperial decrees.

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

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

By 1900, Russia had become the fourth-largest producer of steel. With industrialization came factories, an industrial working class, and pitiful working and living conditions. Socialist parties developed, including the Marxist Social Democratic Party, but government repression forced them underground.

Growing discontent and opposition to the czarist regime finally exploded. On January 22, 1905, a massive procession of workers went to the Winter Palace in St. Petersburg to present a petition of grievances to the czar. Troops opened fire on the peaceful demonstration, killing hundreds. This “Bloody Sunday” caused workers throughout Russia to call strikes.

Nicholas II was eventually forced to grant civil liberties and to create a legislative assembly, called the Duma. By 1907, however, the czar had already curtailed the power of the Duma and again used the army and bureaucracy to rule Russia.
The United States

In the United States, the Second Industrial Revolution produced wealth that was more concentrated than it was in Europe.

HISTORY & YOU Can you name territories that are part of the United States today but are not states? Read how the United States acquired territories in the late 1800s.

Civil war had not destroyed the national unity of the United States. Between 1870 and 1914, the country became an industrial power with an empire.

Aftermath of the Civil War

Four years of bloody civil war had preserved the American nation. However, the old South had been destroyed.

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

Economy

Between 1860 and 1914, the United States shifted from a farm-based economy to an industrial economy. American steel and iron production was the best in the world in 1900. Carnegie Steel Company alone produced more steel than all of Great Britain. As in Europe, industrialization in the United States led to urbanization. By 1900, the United States had three cities with populations over 1 million, with New York reaching 4 million.

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

Expansion Abroad

In the late 1800s, the United States began to expand abroad. The Samoan Islands in the Pacific were the first important U.S. colony. By 1887, Americans controlled the sugar industry on the Hawaiian Islands.

As more Americans settled in Hawaii, they wanted political power. When Queen Liliuokalani tried to strengthen the monarchy to keep the islands under her people’s control, the United States sent military forces to the islands. The queen was deposed and the United States annexed Hawaii in 1898.

In 1898 the United States defeated Spain in the Spanish-American War. As a result, the United States acquired the former Spanish possessions of Puerto Rico, Guam, and the Philippines. By the beginning of the twentieth century, the United States, the world’s richest nation, had an empire.

✓ Reading Check  Identifying Name the territories that the United States acquired in 1898.

People in History

Queen Liliuokalani
1838–1917 Hawaiian Queen

Nearly everyone who has ever seen an old movie about Hawaii knows the melody. Sung with steel guitars, “Aloha Oe” is as typically Hawaiian as swaying palm trees and hula dancers. But the song, one of 160 written by Hawaii’s last monarch, is more than an ode to parting lovers. Translated as “Farewell to Thee,” the song also mourns the passing of a way of life. Queen Liliuokalani struggled bravely to preserve the Hawaiian language, customs, and way of life in the face of increasing Westernization in the late 1800s. In the end, however, she was dethroned by powerful American business interests and unable to prevent the annexation of her beloved islands by the United States. What was Liliuokalani’s most famous song?
International Rivalries

**Main Idea**

The German emperor pursued aggressive foreign policies that divided Europe into two hostile alliance systems.

**HISTORY & YOU**

Remember how the Great Powers acted together in the early 1800s? Read to learn how the Great Powers divided into two hostile camps after the 1890s.

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

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

**New Directions: William II**

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

One of the changes William made in foreign policy was to drop the treaty with Russia. Almost immediately, in 1894, France formed an alliance with Russia. Germany thus had a hostile power on her western border and on her eastern border—exactly the situation Bismarck had feared!

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

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

During the nineteenth century, the Ottoman Empire that had once been strong enough to threaten Europe began to fall apart. Most of its Balkan provinces were able to gain their freedom.

As this was happening, however, two Great Powers saw their chance to gain influence in the Balkans: Austria and Russia. Their rivalry over the Balkans was one of the causes of World War I.

By 1878, Greece, Serbia, Romania, and Montenegro had become independent. Bulgaria did not become totally independent but was allowed to operate autonomously under Russian protection. The Balkan territories of Bosnia and Herzegovina were placed under the protection of Austria-Hungary.

In 1908 Austria-Hungary took the drastic step of annexing Bosnia and Herzegovina. This step led to a controversy with international complications that threatened to end in a general European war. This controversy was known as the Bosnian Crisis.

Serbia was outraged. The annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, two Slavic-speaking territories, dashed the Serbs’ hopes of creating a large Serbian kingdom that would include most of the southern Slavs.

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

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

The Serbs blamed their inability to create a large Serbian kingdom on Austria-Hungary. At the same time, Austria-Hungary was convinced that Serbia and Serbian nationalism were mortal threats to its empire and must be crushed at some point.

As Serbia’s chief supporters, the Russians were angry and determined not to back down again in the event of another confrontation with Austria-Hungary or Germany in the Balkans. Finally, the allies of Austria-Hungary and Russia were determined to support their respective allies more strongly in another crisis. By the beginning of 1914, these countries viewed each other with suspicion. It would not take much to ignite the Balkan “powder keg.”

Reading Check

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

Vocabulary

1. Explain the significance of: ministerial responsibility, Otto von Bismarck, William II, Francis Joseph, Nicholas II, St. Petersburg, Duma, insecure, Queen Liliuokalani, Montenegro, controversy.

Main Ideas

2. Explain why France did not develop a strong parliamentary system.

3. List the series of events leading to unrest in Russia at the start of the 1900s. What were the results of “Bloody Sunday”?

4. Describe how the United States became an industrial power. What problems did industrialization cause in the United States, and how did people attempt to solve some of these problems?

5. Identify the effects of William II’s foreign policy by using a diagram like this one.

Critical Thinking

6. The BIG Idea Evaluating Which country do you think had a stronger democracy at the end of the nineteenth century, France or England? Why?

7. Comparing and Contrasting Use this chapter and Chapter 17 to compare and contrast the systems of government in France and the United States.

8. Analyzing Visuals Examine the political cartoon on page 672. Why do you think the cartoonist depicted William II as childlike?

Writing About History

9. Expository Writing Do some research about recent conflicts in the Balkans. Write one or two paragraphs comparing the causes of the recent conflicts with the causes of the conflicts between Balkan countries in the early 1900s.
Toward the Modern Consciousness

During the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, people moved toward a modern consciousness. Their changing worldview was expressed in innovative art movements. Developments in the sciences also changed how people saw themselves and their world. Some people took nationalism to the extreme. They advocated Social Darwinism to justify the dominance of Western nations.

The Culture of Modernity

Dramatic innovation occurred in literature, the visual arts, and music in the late 1800s.

HISTORY & YOU How can you tell that student artwork is from your era? Read to learn how artists express the society they know.

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

Literature

Western novelists and poets who followed the naturalist style felt that literature should be realistic and address social problems. Henrik Ibsen and Émile Zola, for example, explored the role of women in society, alcoholism, and the problems of urban slums in their work.

The symbolist writers had a different idea about what was real. Inspired by Sigmund Freud, they believed the external world, including art, was only a collection of symbols reflecting the true reality—the human mind. Art, the symbolists believed, should function for its own sake, not criticize or seek to understand society.

Painting

Since the Renaissance, Western artists had tried to represent reality as accurately as possible. By the late 1800s, artists were seeking new forms of expression to reflect their changing worldviews.

Impressionism was a movement that began in France in the 1870s, when a group of artists rejected traditional indoor studios and went to the countryside to paint nature directly. One important impressionist is Claude Monet (moh•NAY), who painted pictures that captured the interplay of light, water, and sky. Other impressionist painters include Pierre-Auguste Renoir (REHN•WAHR) and Berthe Morisot.
In the 1880s, a new movement, known as postimpressionism, arose in France and soon spread. Painters Paul Cezanne and Vincent van Gogh used color and structure to express a mood. For van Gogh, art was a spiritual experience. He was especially interested in color and believed that it could act as its own form of language. Van Gogh maintained that artists should paint what they feel.

By the early 1900s, artists were no longer convinced that their main goal was to represent reality. This was especially true in the visual arts. One reason for the decline of realism in painting was photography. Invented in the 1830s, photography gained wide popularity after George Eastman created the first Kodak camera in 1888.

Artists tended to focus less on mirroring reality, which the camera could do, and more on creating reality. Painters and sculptors, like the symbolist writers of the time, looked for meaning in individual consciousness. Between 1905 and 1914, this search for individual expression created modern art. One of the most outstanding features of modern art is the attempt of the artist to avoid “visual reality.”

By 1905, Pablo Picasso, an important figure in modern art was beginning his career. Picasso was a Spaniard who settled in Paris. He painted in a remarkable variety of styles, including the “cubist” styles, which reflected the influence of African sculpture and early medieval art.
of styles and even created a new style—cubism. Cubism used geometric designs to re-create reality in the viewer’s mind. In his paintings, Picasso attempted to view human form from many sides. In this aspect, he seems to have been influenced by Albert Einstein’s increasingly popular theory of relativity.

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

Architecture

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

The United States was a leader in the new architecture. The country’s rapid urban growth and lack of any architectural tradition allowed for new building methods. Architects, led by Louis H. Sullivan, used reinforced concrete, steel frames, and electric elevators to build skyscrapers virtually free of ornamentation. One of Sullivan’s pupils was Frank Lloyd Wright, who pioneered the building of American homes with long geometric lines and overhanging roofs.

Music

At the beginning of the twentieth century, developments in music paralleled those in painting. The music of the Russian composer Igor Stravinsky exploited expressive sounds and bold rhythms.

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

Uncertainty Grows

Scientific discoveries in this period had a profound impact on how people saw themselves and their world.

HISTORY & YOU Has someone you know had radiation treatment for cancer? Read about a discovery that led to this treatment.

Science was one of the chief pillars supporting the optimistic worldview that many Westerners shared in the 1800s. Science, supposedly based on hard facts and cold reason, offered a certainty of belief in nature’s orderliness. Many believed that by applying already known scientific laws, humans could completely understand the physical world and reality.

Curie and the Atom

Throughout much of the 1800s, Westerners believed in a mechanical conception of the universe that was based on the ideas of Isaac Newton. In this perspective, the universe was viewed as a giant machine. Time, space, and matter were objective realities existing independently of those observing them. Matter was thought to be made of solid material bodies called atoms.

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

Einstein and Relativity

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

According to this theory, neither space nor time has an existence independent of human experience. As Einstein later explained to a journalist, “It was formerly believed that if all material things disappeared out of the universe, time and space would be left. According to the relativity
theory, however, time and space disappear together with the things.” Moreover, matter and energy reflect the relativity of time and space. Einstein concluded that matter is just another form of energy. The vast energies contained within the atom were explained, and the Atomic Age began. To some, however, a relative universe—unlike Newton’s universe—was one without certainty.

Freud and Psychoanalysis

Sigmund Freud (FROYD), a doctor from Vienna, proposed theories regarding the nature of the human mind. Freud’s ideas, like the new physics, added to the uncertainties of the age. His major theories were published in 1900 in The Interpretation of Dreams. According to Freud, human behavior was strongly determined by past experiences and internal forces of which people were largely unaware. Repression of such experiences began in childhood, so he devised a method—known as psychoanalysis—by which a therapist and patient could probe deeply into the patient’s memory. In this way, they could retrace the chain of repressed thoughts all the way back to their childhood origins. If the patient’s conscious mind could be made aware of the unconscious and its repressed contents, the patient could be healed.

✓ Reading Check  Summarizing  What is Freud’s theory of the human unconscious?

Rapid advances in science, psychology, and the arts caused people to question previous knowledge and created a culture of modernity. While scientists such as Marie Curie and Albert Einstein were reshaping people’s understanding of the external world, Sigmund Freud was shaping their perceptions of the internal world—the inner workings of the mind.

Freud believed that the mind has both conscious and unconscious parts, and that the unconscious controls many human behaviors. Painful memories from childhood become rooted, or repressed, in the unconscious, leading to mental illness. To help the person heal, these memories must be brought to conscious awareness. Freud believed that memories buried in the unconscious emerge in disguised form in dreams. One way to gain access to repressed memories, then, is to interpret dreams.

Freud’s ideas prompted a new way of looking at human behavior as the result of unconscious drives and the experiences that shape them. His theories form the basis of modern psychoanalysis, but his influence extends into many fields.
**Extreme Nationalism**

In the late 1800s, extreme nationalism was reflected in the movements of Social Darwinism and anti-Semitism.

**HISTORY & YOU** What do you think qualifies someone to be an American? Read to learn how some thinkers in the late 1800s felt national identity should be determined.

Nationalism became more intense in many countries in the late 1800s. For some Europeans, loyalty to their nation became an anchor, almost a religious faith. Preserving their nation’s status and their national traditions counted above everything else.

**Social Darwinism and Racism**

Social Darwinism was a theory used to justify the dominance of Western nations in the late nineteenth century. Certain thinkers claimed that it was valid science to apply Darwin’s theory of natural selection to modern human societies. In fact, this was not good science, but what today might be called “junk science,” or faulty science.

A British philosopher, Herbert Spencer, argued that social progress came from “the survival of the fittest”—that is, the strong advanced while the weak declined. This kind of thinking allowed some people to reject the idea that they should take care of the less fortunate.

Extreme nationalists also used Social Darwinism. They said that nations, too, were engaged in a “struggle for existence” in which only the fittest nations would survive. The German general Friedrich von Bernhardi argued in 1907: “War is a biological necessity of the first importance, . . . since without it an unhealthy development will follow, which excludes every advancement of the race, and therefore all real civilization. War is the father of all things.”

Perhaps nowhere was the combination of extreme nationalism and racism more evident than in Germany. One of the chief exponents of German racism was Houston Stewart Chamberlain, a Briton who became a German citizen and an extreme nationalist. Chamberlain believed that the ancestors of modern-day Germanic peoples were the Aryans, a tribal people from Central...
Asia who were thought to have migrated to northern India, Iran, and parts of Europe around 2000 B.C. Chamberlain thought the Aryans were the original creators of Western culture. He further believed that Jews were the enemy out to destroy the “superior” Aryans.

**Anti-Semitism and Zionism**

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

By the 1830s, the lives of many Jews had improved. They had legal equality in many European countries. They became bankers, lawyers, scientists, and scholars and were absorbed into the national culture. Old prejudices were still very much alive, though, and anti-Semitism grew stronger in the late 1800s.

The intensity of anti-Semitism was evident from the Dreyfus affair in France. In 1894, a military court found Dreyfus, a captain in the French general staff, guilty of selling army secrets. During the trial, angry right-wing mobs yelled anti-Semitic sayings such as “Death to the Jews.” After the trial, evidence emerged that proved Dreyfus innocent. A wave of public outcry finally forced the government to pardon Dreyfus in 1899.

In Germany and Austria-Hungary during the 1880s and 1890s, new parties arose that used anti-Semitism to win the votes of people affected by economic problems and blamed those problems on Jews. However, the worst treatment of Jews at the turn of the century occurred in Russia. Persecutions and pogroms, or organized massacres, were widespread.

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

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

Settlement in Palestine was difficult, however, because it was then part of the Ottoman Empire, which was opposed to Jewish immigration. Although 3,000 Jews went annually to Palestine between 1904 and 1914, the Zionist desire for a homeland in Palestine remained only a dream on the eve of World War I.

**Reading Check**

**Analyzing** Why did some Jews move to Palestine?
**ECONOMIC CAUSES AND EFFECTS of the Second Industrial Revolution**

- Steel, chemicals, electricity, and petroleum led a new wave of economic growth in the late 1800s.
- The introduction of assembly lines made mass production of goods more efficient.
- Industrialization raised the standard of living for many people in Europe.
- Harsh conditions caused many people to turn to socialism and trade unions.
- By the early 1900s, Europe dominated the world economy.

**SOCIAL EFFECTS of the Second Industrial Revolution**

- The rapid growth of cities forced local governments to improve public health and sanitation services.
- Europe’s small elite class controlled much of the wealth; the working classes made up around 80 percent of the European population.
- Women began to push for the right to vote.
- The work of Curie, Einstein, and Freud led many people, including artists, to question the nature of reality.

**INTERNATIONAL RIVALRIES Set the Stage for War**

- Democracy expanded in Western Europe, while Central and Eastern Europe remained authoritarian.
- Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy formed a defensive alliance called the Triple Alliance.
- France joined Britain and Russia in the Triple Entente.
- The rivalry between Austria and Russia for influence in the Balkans pushed a dangerously divided Europe toward war.
STANDARDIZED TEST PRACTICE

TEST-TAKING TIP
Look at each answer choice carefully. By eliminating answer choices that you know are incorrect, you can improve your chances of identifying the correct answer.

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

1. The practice of ______ responsibility is crucial for democracy.
   A administrative
   B judicial
   C ministerial
   D dictatorial

2. Karl Marx used the term ______ to mean the working class.
   A proletariat
   B bourgeoisie
   C suffrage
   D Zionist

3. ______ is a Jewish nationalist movement.
   A Liberalism
   B Modernism
   C Socialism
   D Zionism

4. The movement for women’s rights is known as modern ______.
   A socialism
   B feminism
   C suffrage
   D realism

Reviewing Main Ideas
Directions: Choose the best answers to the following questions.

Section 1 (pp. 652–657)
5. Who pioneered the assembly line?
   A Thomas Edison
   B Robert Fulton
   C Henry Ford
   D Clara Barton

6. What is the process used in negotiations between union representatives and employers?
   A Collective bargaining
   B Collective negotiating
   C Bartering
   D Selective hearing

Section 2 (pp. 658–665)
7. By 1890, urban dwellers in England had increased to about what percentage of the population?
   A 80 percent
   B 40 percent
   C 60 percent
   D 10 percent

8. Which social classes made up almost 80 percent of the European population in the late nineteenth century?
   A Upper-middle
   B Middle
   C Elite
   D Working

Need Extra Help?
If You Missed Questions . . . 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
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9. By the 1850s, what right did many women believe they had to win in order to improve the overall position of women?
   A Right to own property
   B Right to vote
   C Right to divorce
   D Right to work

Section 3 (pp. 668–673)
10. While ruling Great Britain from 1906 to 1914, what party passed social reforms to retain the support of the workers?
   A Liberal
   B Socialist
   C Labour
   D Conservative

11. What two territories did Austria-Hungary annex in 1908?
   A Bosnia and Romania
   B Bulgaria and Montenegro
   C Bosnia and Herzegovina
   D Serbia and Montenegro

Section 4 (pp. 674–679)
12. What new style of art did Pablo Picasso create?
   A Abstraction
   B Idealism
   C Baroque
   D Cubism

13. What theory did some people use to justify the dominance of Western nations?
   A Laissez-faire
   B Social Darwinism
   C Marxism
   D Zionism

Critical Thinking
Directions: Choose the best answers to the following questions.

Use the following graph to answer question 14.

14. Which of the following statements is supported by the information in the graph?
   A There were fewer urban dwellers in 1890 than in the 1850s.
   B In 1890 more people lived in English cities than in Prussian cities.
   C The number of Prussian and English urban dwellers each rose 20 percent between the 1850s and 1890.
   D The number of urban dwellers increased by a larger percentage in Russia than in England.

15. Why did many conservatives in Germany support a policy of expansion in the late nineteenth century?
   A To divert people from seeking democracy
   B To force Otto von Bismarck from power
   C To promote socialism in Germany
   D To preserve absolute power of the emperor

16. Why did governments back public education?
   A To gain public support for political parties
   B To create more jobs for teachers
   C To appease the working classes
   D To increase the number of literate voters
17. Why did the Balkans split into different factions during the late nineteenth century?
   A. Because the United States won the Spanish-American War
   B. Because the Ottoman Empire began to fall apart
   C. Because Serbia dominated the region
   D. Because Nicholas II of Russia was oppressive

   Base your answer to question 18 on the cartoon below and on your knowledge of world history.

18. What opinion is the cartoonist expressing?
   A. The women’s movement has no opposition to its petition for suffrage.
   B. Women have no right to force society to grant them suffrage.
   C. The suffrage movement has gained sufficient force to crush the opposition.
   D. Open-toe shoes show the immorality of the woman suffrage movement.

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

19. To what historical event is the demonstrator an eye witness?
20. What does the imagery of the emblems being scattered in the snow seem to say?

Extended Response
21. Advances in science can sometimes change how people view their world and their universe. Compare and contrast Einstein’s and Newton’s understandings of the universe. Explain how they differ and how they are related.