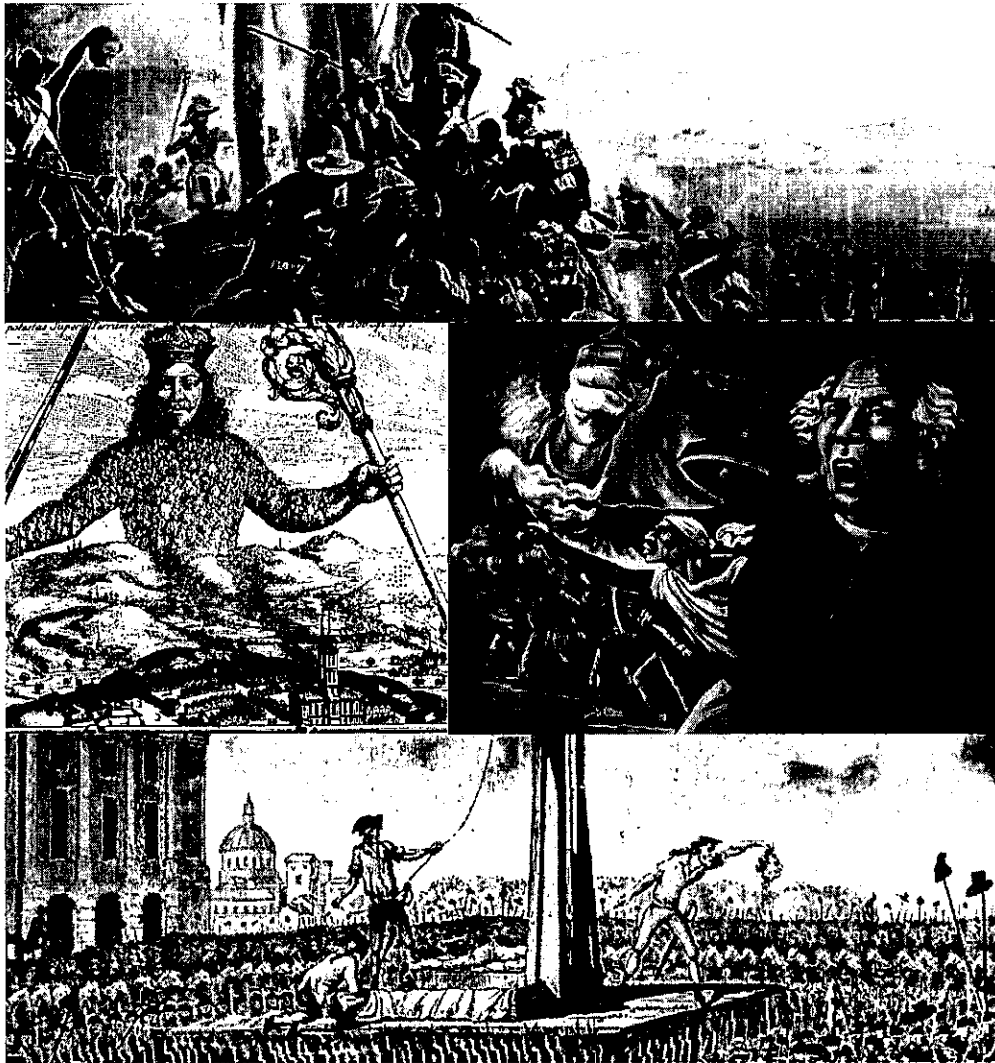


UNIT 4: THE MODERN ERA 1750-1900

The Enlightenment, Revolutions, and Imperialism



*The Age of Reason;
French Revolution, Haitian Revolution, Mexican
Revolution, and South American Revolutions;
European Imperialism*

Reading Calendar for Unit 4: Modern Era, 1750-1900 Enlightenment, Revolutions, Imperialism

Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
10		12 Section 1: The Enlightenment p 1-4	13 Section 1: The Enlightenment p 5-6	14 Section 2: Political Revolutions and Their Legacies p 7
17 No school ☺	18 <i>No school for students!</i> Section 2: Political Revolutions and Their Legacies p 8-10	19 Section 3: Napoleon Forges an Empire p 11-15	20 Section 4: Latin American Peoples Win Independence p 16-21	21
24 Recipe of a revolution project →	25 Recipe of a revolution project → <i>Half day: testing; pds 1-4 in afternoon</i>	26 Recipe of a revolution project →	27 Recipe of a revolution project →	28 DUE: RECIPE OF A REVOLUTION DUE: FOOD EXTRA CREDIT
2 QUIZ: REVOLUTIONS DUE: NOTES Chapter 2: The Industrial Revolution p 22-23	3 Section 2: Industrialization Case Study: Manchester p 24-28	4 Section 3: Impact of Industrialization + Impact of IR p 29-31 and 31.2	5 Section 4: Impact of Industrialization on Global Revolutions p 32-37	6 <u>Chapter 3: Imperialism</u> Section 1: Pressures for Expansion p 38-40
9 Section 2: The Partition of Africa p 41-46 <i>*no notes, just read – but you must know boxed vocab words*</i>	10 Section 3: The Division of Asia p 47-49 <i>*no notes, just read – but you must know boxed vocab words*</i>	11 Review	12 TEST: WRITING PORTION, MODERN ERA, 1750-1900 (ENLIGHTENMENT, REVOLUTIONS, IMPERIALISM)	13 TEST: MULTIPLE CHOICE, MODERN ERA, 1750-1900 (ENLIGHTENMENT, REVOLUTIONS, IMPERIALISM)
<p>March 16 - 20</p> <p>Spring Break! ☺</p>				

Please read and take notes on the assigned pages that night for homework. Try out some new notetaking styles this time. As always, you at least need:

- chapter title
- section title
- defined vocabulary words
- at least a few general summaries of what was read

Or, feel free to use the guided notes that I offer. You should use those as a review, at least!

Your notes are due on the day of the test.

SECTION 1:

The Enlightenment in Europe

MAIN IDEA

POWER AND AUTHORITY A revolution in intellectual activity changed Europeans' view of government and society.

WHY IT MATTERS NOW

The various freedoms enjoyed in many countries today are a result of Enlightenment thinking.

TERMS & NAMES

- Enlightenment
- social contract
- John Locke
- philosophe
- Voltaire
- Montesquieu
- Rousseau
- Mary Wollstonecraft

SETTING THE STAGE In the wake of the Scientific Revolution, and the new ways of thinking it prompted, scholars and philosophers began to reevaluate old notions about other aspects of society. They sought new insight into the underlying beliefs regarding government, religion, economics, and education. Their efforts spurred the **Enlightenment**, a new intellectual movement that stressed reason and thought and the power of individuals to solve problems. Known also as the Age of Reason, the movement reached its height in the mid-1700s and brought great change to many aspects of Western civilization.

Two Views on Government

The Enlightenment started from some key ideas put forth by two English political thinkers of the 1600s, Thomas Hobbes and John Locke. Both men experienced the political turmoil of England early in that century. However, they came to very different conclusions about government and human nature.

Hobbes's Social Contract Thomas Hobbes expressed his views in a work called *Leviathan* (1651). The horrors of the English Civil War convinced him that all humans were naturally selfish and wicked. Without governments to keep order, Hobbes said, there would be "war . . . of every man against every man," and life would be "solitary, poor, nasty, brutish, and short."

Hobbes argued that to escape such a bleak life, people had to hand over their rights to a strong ruler. In exchange, they gained law and order. Hobbes called this agreement by which people created a government the **social contract**. Because people acted in their own self-interest, Hobbes said, the ruler needed total power to keep citizens under control. The best government was one that had the awesome power of a leviathan (sea monster). In Hobbes's view, such a government was an absolute monarchy, which could impose order and demand obedience.

TAKING NOTES

Outlining Use an outline to organize main ideas and details.

Enlightenment in Europe

I. *Two Views on Government*

A.

B.

II. *The Philosophes Advocate Reason*

A.

B.

Changing Idea: The Right to Govern


Old Idea

A monarch's rule is justified by divine right.

New Idea


A government's power comes from the consent of the governed.

Locke's Natural Rights The philosopher **John Locke** held a different, more positive, view of human nature. He believed that people could learn from experience and improve themselves. As reasonable beings, they had the natural ability to govern their own affairs and to look after the welfare of society. Locke criticized absolute monarchy and favored the idea of self-government.

According to Locke, all people are born free and equal, with three natural rights—life, liberty, and property. The purpose of government, said Locke, is to protect these rights. If a government fails to do so, citizens have a right to overthrow it. Locke's theory had a deep influence on modern political thinking. His belief that a government's power comes from the consent of the people is the foundation of modern democracy. The ideas of government by popular consent and the right to rebel against unjust rulers helped inspire struggles for liberty in Europe and the Americas. 

MAIN IDEA

Contrasting

 How does Locke's view of human nature differ from that of Hobbes?

The Philosophes Advocate Reason

The Enlightenment reached its height in France in the mid-1700s. Paris became the meeting place for people who wanted to discuss politics and ideas. The social critics of this period in France were known as **philosophes** (FIHL•uh•SAHFS), the French word for philosophers. The philosophes believed that people could apply reason to all aspects of life, just as Isaac Newton had applied reason to science. Five concepts formed the core of their beliefs:

1. **Reason** Enlightened thinkers believed truth could be discovered through reason or logical thinking.
2. **Nature** The philosophes believed that what was natural was also good and reasonable.
3. **Happiness** The philosophes rejected the medieval notion that people should find joy in the hereafter and urged people to seek well-being on earth.
4. **Progress** The philosophes stressed that society and humankind could improve.
5. **Liberty** The philosophes called for the liberties that the English people had won in their Glorious Revolution and Bill of Rights.

Voltaire Combats Intolerance Probably the most brilliant and influential of the philosophes was François Marie Arouet. Using the pen name **Voltaire**, he published more than 70 books of political essays, philosophy, and drama.

Voltaire often used satire against his opponents. He made frequent targets of the clergy, the aristocracy, and the government. His sharp tongue made him enemies at the French court, and twice he was sent to prison. After his second jail term, Voltaire was exiled to England for more than two years.

Although he made powerful enemies, Voltaire never stopped fighting for tolerance, reason, freedom of religious belief, and freedom of speech. He used his quill pen as if it were a deadly weapon in a thinker's war against humanity's worst enemies—intolerance, prejudice, and superstition. He summed up his staunch defense of liberty in one of his most famous quotes: "I do not agree with a word you say but will defend to the death your right to say it."

Vocabulary

Satire is the use of irony, sarcasm, or wit to attack folly, vice, or stupidity.

History Makers



Voltaire
1694–1778

Voltaire befriended several European monarchs and nobles. Among them was the Prussian king Frederick II. The two men seemed like ideal companions. Both were witty and preferred to dress in shabby, rumpled clothes.

Their relationship eventually soured, however. Voltaire disliked editing Frederick's mediocre poetry, while Frederick suspected Voltaire of shady business dealings. Voltaire eventually described the Prussian king as "a nasty monkey, perfidious friend, [and] wretched poet." Frederick in turn called Voltaire a "miser, dirty rogue, [and] coward."

INTEGRATED TECHNOLOGY

RESEARCH LINKS For more on Voltaire, go to classzone.com

Montesquieu and the Separation of Powers Another influential French writer, the Baron de **Montesquieu** (MAHN•tuh•SKYOO), devoted himself to the study of political liberty. Montesquieu believed that Britain was the best-governed and most politically balanced country of his own day. The British king and his ministers held executive power. They carried out the laws of the state. The members of Parliament held legislative power. They made the laws. The judges of the English courts held judicial power. They interpreted the laws to see how each applied to a specific case. Montesquieu called this division of power among different branches separation of powers.

Montesquieu oversimplified the British system. It did not actually separate powers this way. His idea, however, became a part of his most famous book, *On the Spirit of Laws* (1748). In his book, Montesquieu proposed that separation of powers would keep any individual or group from gaining total control of the government. "Power," he wrote, "should be a check to power." This idea later would be called checks and balances.

MAIN IDEAS

Analyzing Issues

Ⓐ What advantages did Montesquieu see in the separation of powers?

Montesquieu's book was admired by political leaders in the British colonies of North America. His ideas about separation of powers and checks and balances became the basis for the United States Constitution. Ⓑ

Rousseau: Champion of Freedom A third great philosophe, Jean Jacques **Rousseau** (roo•SOH), was passionately committed to individual freedom. The son of a poor Swiss watchmaker, Rousseau won recognition as a writer of essays. A strange, brilliant, and controversial figure, Rousseau strongly disagreed with other

> Analyzing Primary Sources

Laws Protect Freedom

Both Montesquieu and Rousseau believed firmly that fair and just laws—not monarchs or unrestrained mobs—should govern society. Here, Rousseau argues that laws established by and for the people are the hallmark of a free society.

PRIMARY SOURCE

I . . . therefore give the name "Republic" to every state that is governed by laws, no matter what the form of its administration may be: for only in such a case does the public interest govern, and the *res publica* rank as a reality. . . . Laws are, properly speaking, only the conditions of civil association. The people, being subject to the laws, ought to be their author: the conditions of the society ought to be regulated . . . by those who come together to form it.

JEAN JACQUES ROUSSEAU, *The Social Contract*



Laws Ensure Security

While laws work to protect citizens from abusive rulers, Montesquieu argues that they also guard against anarchy and mob rule.

PRIMARY SOURCE

It is true that in democracies the people seem to act as they please; but political liberty does not consist in an unlimited freedom. . . . We must have continually present to our minds the difference between independence and liberty. Liberty is a right of doing whatever the laws permit, and if a citizen could do what they [the laws] forbid he would be no longer possessed of liberty, because all his fellow-citizens would have the same power.

BARON DE MONTESQUIEU, *The Spirit of Laws*



DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTIONS

1. **Analyzing Issues** Why should citizens be the authors of society's laws, according to Rousseau?
2. **Making Inferences** Why does Montesquieu believe that disobeying laws leads to a loss of liberty?

Enlightenment thinkers on many matters. Most philosophes believed that reason, science, and art would improve life for all people. Rousseau, however, argued that civilization corrupted people's natural goodness. "Man is born free, and everywhere he is in chains," he wrote.

Rousseau believed that the only good government was one that was freely formed by the people and guided by the "general will" of society—a direct democracy. Under such a government, people agree to give up some of their freedom in favor of the common good. In 1762, he explained his political philosophy in a book called *The Social Contract*.

Rousseau's view of the social contract differed greatly from that of Hobbes. For Hobbes, the social contract was an agreement between a society and its government. For Rousseau, it was an agreement among free individuals to create a society and a government.

Like Locke, Rousseau argued that legitimate government came from the consent of the governed. However, Rousseau believed in a much broader democracy than Locke had promoted. He argued that all people were equal and that titles of nobility should be abolished. Rousseau's ideas inspired many of the leaders of the French Revolution who overthrew the monarchy in 1789.

Beccaria Promotes Criminal Justice An Italian philosophe named Cesare Bonesana Beccaria (BAYK•uh•REE•ah) turned his thoughts to the justice system. He believed that laws existed to preserve social order, not to avenge crimes. Beccaria regularly criticized common abuses of justice. They included torturing of witnesses and suspects, irregular proceedings in trials, and punishments that were arbitrary or cruel. He argued that a person accused of a crime should receive a speedy trial, and that torture should never be used. Moreover, he said, the degree of punishment should be based on the seriousness of the crime. He also believed that capital punishment should be abolished.

Beccaria based his ideas about justice on the principle that governments should seek the greatest good for the greatest number of people. His ideas influenced criminal law reformers in Europe and North America.

Major Ideas of the Enlightenment

Idea	Thinker	Impact
Natural rights—life, liberty, property	Locke	Fundamental to U.S. Declaration of Independence
Separation of powers	Montesquieu	France, United States, and Latin American nations use separation of powers in new constitutions
Freedom of thought and expression	Voltaire	Guaranteed in U.S. Bill of Rights and French Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen; European monarchs reduce or eliminate censorship
Abolishment of torture	Beccaria	Guaranteed in U.S. Bill of Rights; torture outlawed or reduced in nations of Europe and the Americas
Religious freedom	Voltaire	Guaranteed in U.S. Bill of Rights and French Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen; European monarchs reduce persecution
Women's equality	Wollstonecraft	Women's rights groups form in Europe and North America

*
THIS
IS
HELPFUL!

SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Charts

1. **Analyzing Issues** What important documents reflect the influence of Enlightenment ideas?
2. **Forming Opinions** Which are the two most important Enlightenment ideas? Support your answer with reasons.

4

Women and the Enlightenment

The philosophes challenged many assumptions about government and society. But they often took a traditional view toward women. Rousseau, for example, developed many progressive ideas about education. However, he believed that a girl's education should mainly teach her how to be a helpful wife and mother. Other male social critics scolded women for reading novels because they thought it encouraged idleness and wickedness. Still, some male writers argued for more education for women and for women's equality in marriage.

Women writers also tried to improve the status of women. In 1694, the English writer Mary Astell published *A Serious Proposal to the Ladies*. Her book addressed the lack of educational opportunities for women. In later writings, she used Enlightenment arguments about government to criticize the unequal relationship between men and women in marriage. She wrote, "If absolute sovereignty be not necessary in a state, how comes it to be so in a family? . . . If all men are born free, how is it that all women are born slaves?"

During the 1700s, other women picked up these themes. Among the most persuasive was **Mary Wollstonecraft** who published an essay called *A Vindication of the Rights of Woman* in 1792. In the essay, she disagreed with Rousseau that women's education should be secondary to men's. Rather, she argued that women, like men, need education to become virtuous and useful. Wollstonecraft also urged women to enter the male-dominated fields of medicine and politics.

Women made important contributions to the Enlightenment in other ways. In Paris and other European cities, wealthy women helped spread Enlightenment ideas through social gatherings called salons, which you will read about later in this chapter.

One woman fortunate enough to receive an education in the sciences was Emilie du Châtelet (shah-tlay). Du Châtelet was an aristocrat trained as a mathematician and physicist. By translating Newton's work from Latin into French, she helped stimulate interest in science in France.

Legacy of the Enlightenment

Over a span of a few decades, Enlightenment writers challenged long-held ideas about society. They examined such principles as the divine right of monarchs, the union of church and state, and the existence of unequal social classes. They held these beliefs up to the light of reason and found them in need of reform.

The philosophes mainly lived in the world of ideas. They formed and popularized new theories. Although they encouraged reform, they were not active revolutionaries. However, their theories eventually inspired the American and French revolutions and other revolutionary movements in the 1800s. Enlightenment thinking produced three other long-term effects that helped shape Western civilization.

Belief in Progress The first effect was a belief in progress. Pioneers such as Galileo and Newton had discovered the key for unlocking the mysteries of nature in the 1500s and 1600s. With the door thus opened, the growth of scientific knowledge

History Makers



Mary Wollstonecraft
1759–1797

A strong advocate of education for women, Wollstonecraft herself received little formal schooling. She and her two sisters taught themselves by studying books at home. With her sisters, she briefly ran a school. These experiences shaped much of her thoughts about education.

Wollstonecraft eventually took a job with a London publisher. There, she met many leading radicals of the day. One of them was her future husband, the writer William Godwin. Wollstonecraft died at age 38, after giving birth to their daughter, Mary. This child, whose married name was Mary Wollstonecraft Shelley, went on to write the classic novel *Frankenstein*.

INTEGRATED TECHNOLOGY

RESEARCH LINKS For more on Mary Wollstonecraft, go to classzone.com

MAIN IDEAS

Drawing Conclusions

Why do you think the issue of education was important to both Astell and Wollstonecraft?

seemed to quicken in the 1700s. Scientists made key new discoveries in chemistry, physics, biology, and mechanics. The successes of the Scientific Revolution gave people the confidence that human reason could solve social problems. Philosophes and reformers urged an end to the practice of slavery and argued for greater social equality, as well as a more democratic style of government.

A More Secular Outlook A second outcome was the rise of a more secular, or non-religious, outlook. During the Enlightenment, people began to question openly their religious beliefs and the teachings of the church. Before the Scientific Revolution, people accepted the mysteries of the universe as the workings of God. One by one, scientists discovered that these mysteries could be explained mathematically. Newton himself was a deeply religious man, and he sought to reveal God's majesty through his work. However, his findings often caused people to change the way they thought about God.

Meanwhile, Voltaire and other critics attacked some of the beliefs and practices of organized Christianity. They wanted to rid religious faith of superstition and fear and promote tolerance of all religions.

Importance of the Individual Faith in science and in progress produced a third outcome, the rise of individualism. As people began to turn away from the church and royalty for guidance, they looked to themselves instead.

The philosophes encouraged people to use their own ability to reason in order to judge what was right or wrong. They also emphasized the importance of the individual in society. Government, they argued, was formed by individuals to promote their welfare. The British thinker Adam Smith extended the emphasis on the individual to economic thinking. He believed that individuals acting in their own self-interest created economic progress. Smith's theory is discussed in detail in Chapter 25.

During the Enlightenment, reason took center stage. The greatest minds of Europe followed each other's work with interest and often met to discuss their ideas. Some of the kings and queens of Europe were also very interested. As you will learn in Section 3, they sought to apply some of the philosophes' ideas to create progress in their countries.

↳

SECTION

2

ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

• Enlightenment • social contract • John Locke • philosophe • Voltaire • Montesquieu • Rousseau • Mary Wollstonecraft

Predict: how will the Enlightenment impact society?

Whose philosophy do you agree most with, + why?

SECTION 2:

Political Revolutions and Their Legacies

How were political revolutions during the 1700s and 1800s similar and different?

Introduction

Towards the end of the 1600s, England experienced a revolution that would act as a catalyst for the rest of the Western world. This revolution, called the Glorious Revolution, created the first constitutional monarchy, whereby a king's power was constrained not just by laws, but also by a legislative body.

During or shortly after the Glorious Revolution, English philosopher John Locke wrote a treatise describing his model for how and why governments are created. In this treatise, titled *The Second Treatise on Government*, Locke described a "state of nature" where man is completely free, but is therefore also free to cause conflict. To mitigate any possible danger, humans gave up some of their freedoms and created a society with government, laws, and rulers.

This government was not without constraints, however. Laws, Locke believed, had to agree with the will of the people and protect people's rights. If the government failed to protect these rights, or simply violated them, people had the right to defend themselves, even against the government. "Self-defense is a part of the law of nature," wrote Locke, "nor can it be denied the community, even against the king himself."

Locke believed that the government was created by its citizens, so the government was thus required to protect them. He stated, "the people have a right to act as supreme, and continue the legislative in themselves; or erect a new form, or under the old form place it in new hands, as they think good."

◀ This statue of Thomas Paine in Thetford, England, casts the revolutionary writer in a heroic light.

Vocabulary

Constitutional Monarchy a system of government in which the powers of the monarch are limited by a written or unwritten constitution

English Bill of Rights an Act of the Parliament of England that sets out certain basic civil rights and clarifies who would be next to inherit the Crown.

Common Sense a pamphlet written by Thomas Paine in 1776 that made an influential argument for American independence

Declaration of Independence the document approved in 1776 by the Second Continental Congress declaring that the 13 former colonies were free and independent states

Great Compromise the compromise reached during the Constitutional Convention on representation in Congress, with each state represented equally in the Senate and with representation in the House based on state population

Reign of Terror a violent period at the end of the French Revolution in which the monarchy was replaced by a republic

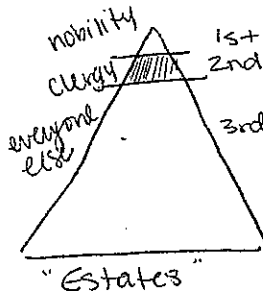
Napoleonic Code Napoleon's code of law that safeguarded ideals of citizens' equality, individual liberty, and protection of property rights

Haitian Revolution a combined slave rebellion and anti-colonial uprising led in part by Toussaint L'Ouverture

4. Revolutions in France

While American delegates were gathered at the Constitutional Convention in Philadelphia, the seeds of another revolution were being planted across the Atlantic Ocean. Like the American Revolution, the **French Revolution** was inspired by Enlightenment philosophers and a dedication to the ideals of liberty and equality.

Exorbitantly high taxes, national debt, and a mostly apathetic monarch pushed the French working class and peasantry to demand changes. When these demands were not met, radicals chose instead to dissolve the government and form an entirely new one. The French Revolution was a radical assault on France's traditional institutions—the monarchy, the Church, feudalism—and thoroughly transformed French society.



Social Divisions and Financial Problems French society in the 1700s was very socially divided. The nobles and the clergy, or officials of the Roman Catholic Church, represented the top two **estates**, or legal categories of citizen. To be a noble or a member of the clergy, a person had to meet specific legal requirements. Everyone else, from merchants to peasants, belonged to the **Third Estate**. This commoner class made up some 95 percent of the population.

Many commoners resented certain feudal privileges granted to the landowning nobles and clergy. Noble landlords had an exclusive right to carry weapons, hunt, and demand work from the peasants. They could levy taxes, but were themselves exempt from most taxes. Of the third estate, merchants and government officials paid a limited amount in taxes. The tax burden fell largely on the peasants, most of whom were poor and unable to pay these taxes.

For France, the 1700s was a century of continual warfare. To pay for their military ventures, including support of the colonists in the American Revolution, French kings had to borrow more and more money. By 1788, **King Louis XVI** faced severe financial problems. In fact, France hovered on the verge of bankruptcy.

Louis considered a set of reforms for resolving the economic crisis. This included raising taxes. The peasants, however, could not afford to pay any more than they already did. The rich, on the other hand, were protected from new taxes by their exemptions and traditional rights.

To move forward with reforms, the king decided that he needed the approval of the **Estates-General**. This assembly of representatives from all three estates had not met since 1614. However, the king's decision to summon the Estates-General proved disastrous for the monarchy. It gave the commoners access to power. They used that power in ways that led, through a complex series of events, to a political revolution.

Most French peasants lived in crushing poverty. This 1788 French engraving depicts King Louis XVI handing out alms to the needy. However, charity was not enough to alleviate the suffering of the peasantry, and it could not prevent bitter feelings towards the nobility and clergy.



A Radical Revolution On May 5, 1789, the Estates-General met at Versailles, the king's palace, some 10 miles outside Paris. Delegates to the meeting brought grievances to discuss with the group. Many also brought their Enlightenment ideas about liberty and a government based on natural laws. Most representatives of the Third Estate had legal backgrounds. On June 17, they declared themselves to be a National Assembly with the power to govern France. With this power, they started designing a constitution.

The king took steps to stop the Assembly from meeting, which roused the people of Paris. On July 14, a mob destroyed the Bastille, a fortress and prison that symbolized royal power. The revolution had moved into the streets. In the weeks that followed, it also spread through the countryside.

The French Revolution did not begin with a sharply defined goal, such as the abolition of monarchy. Instead, it was a broad-based war about class divisions powered by Enlightenment ideas. The Assembly expanded the voting population and established civil equality, at least in name. Like American revolutionaries, they also tried to build a government with Montesquieu's separation of powers, although they initially hoped to have a constitutional monarchy. Louis XVI, however, was reluctant to let go of absolute control, leading to his imprisonment and the dissolution of the monarchy.

The National Assembly kept control only for a few years. But by 1791, it had transformed France. It had adopted the Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen, a document that defined the individual and collective rights of all three estates as equal and universal. It had turned the country into a constitutional monarchy. It had forced the French Catholic Church to cut its ties with Rome. It had abolished feudalism, the system of privileges held by the nobles and clergy. All French citizens were now equal under the law. As the *Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen*—the preamble to the constitution—stated, "Men are born free and remain equal in rights."

Women also played a role in the revolution, but frequently faced opposition from men. These men argued that women were, "by nature," unfit to take a political role. The political activist Olympe de Gouges reacted by writing a Declaration of the Rights of Woman and of the Citizen. She wrote, "Woman is born free and lives equal to man in her rights."



As the French Revolution spread from Paris to the countryside, some peasants lashed out against the elite. In this image, French peasants destroy the feudal documents that recorded how much they owed their landlords.



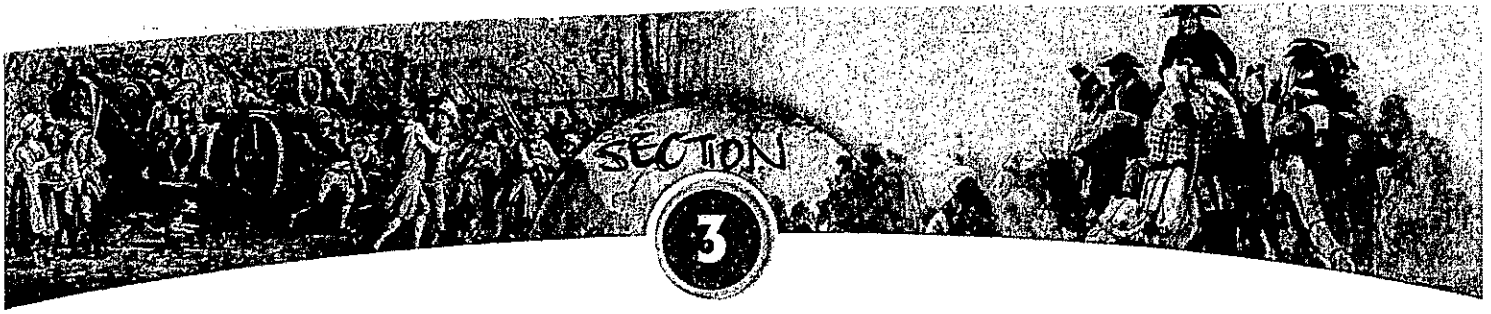
On October 5, 1789, French women of the Third Estate organized a march on the palace of Versailles.

Still, many women did join the French Revolution. They took part in protests and joined political clubs. Others actively opposed the revolution. Many of these defended priests, who were often mistreated, and tried to ward off attacks on the Catholic Church.

After 1791, the French Revolution took a turn toward violence. Fearing a foreign plot to undermine its progress, France declared war on Austria and Prussia in 1792. It also replaced the National Assembly with a body known as the Convention, which would govern until 1796.

Extremist politicians gained control of this new assembly. They encouraged a thirst for blood among the people, and their rule became a Reign of Terror. In 1793, they beheaded King Louis XVI and Queen Marie Antoinette and replaced the monarchy with a republic. Their quest for absolute unity and loyalty led to the deaths of tens of thousands more citizens in the next year and a half. Many were executed, as the king had been, by guillotine. Many more were killed in clashes with opponents of the revolution throughout the country.

Moderates in the Convention took charge in 1794. They executed the main agent of the Terror, Maximilien Robespierre. If this did not mark the end of the French Revolution, it certainly came five years later with the rise to power of a shrewd and power-hungry French general, Napoleon Bonaparte.



Napoleon Forges an Empire

MAIN IDEA

POWER AND AUTHORITY

Napoleon Bonaparte, a military genius, seized power in France and made himself emperor.

WHY IT MATTERS NOW

In times of political turmoil, military dictators often seize control of nations.

TERMS & NAMES

- Napoleon Bonaparte
- coup d'état
- plebiscite
- lycée
- concordat
- Napoleonic Code
- Battle of Trafalgar

SETTING THE STAGE Napoleon Bonaparte was quite a short man—just five feet three inches tall. However, he cast a long shadow over the history of modern times. He would come to be recognized as one of the world's greatest military geniuses, along with Alexander the Great of Macedonia, Hannibal of Carthage, and Julius Caesar of Rome. In only four years, from 1795 to 1799, Napoleon rose from a relatively obscure position as an officer in the French army to become master of France.

Napoleon Seizes Power

Napoleon Bonaparte was born in 1769 on the Mediterranean island of Corsica. When he was nine years old, his parents sent him to a military school. In 1785, at the age of 16, he finished school and became a lieutenant in the artillery. When the Revolution broke out, Napoleon joined the army of the new government.

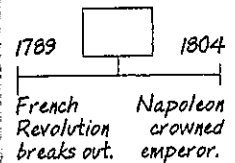
Hero of the Hour In October 1795, fate handed the young officer a chance for glory. When royalist rebels marched on the National Convention, a government official told Napoleon to defend the delegates. Napoleon and his gunners greeted the thousands of royalists with a cannonade. Within minutes, the attackers fled in panic and confusion. Napoleon Bonaparte became the hero of the hour and was hailed throughout Paris as the savior of the French republic.

In 1796, the Directory appointed Napoleon to lead a French army against the forces of Austria and the Kingdom of Sardinia. Crossing the Alps, the young general swept into Italy and won a series of remarkable victories. Next, in an attempt to protect French trade interests and to disrupt British trade with India, Napoleon led an expedition to Egypt. But he was unable to repeat the successes he had achieved in Europe. His army was pinned down in Egypt, and the British admiral Horatio Nelson defeated his naval forces. However, Napoleon managed to keep stories about his setbacks out of the newspapers and thereby remained a great hero to the people of France.

Coup d'État By 1799, the Directory had lost control of the political situation and the confidence of the French people. When Napoleon returned from Egypt, his friends urged him to seize political power. Napoleon took action in early November 1799. Troops under his command surrounded the national legislature and drove out most of its members. The lawmakers who remained then voted to

TAKING NOTES

Following Chronological Order On a time line, note the events that led to Napoleon's crowning as emperor of France.



History Makers



Napoleon Bonaparte
1769–1821

Because of his small stature and thick Corsican accent, Napoleon was mocked by his fellow students at military school. Haughty and proud, Napoleon refused to grace his tormentors' behavior with any kind of response. He simply ignored them, preferring to lose himself in his studies. He showed a particular passion for three subjects—classical history, geography, and mathematics.

In 1784, Napoleon was recommended for a career in the army and he transferred to the *Ecole Militaire* (the French equivalent of West Point) in Paris. There, he proved to be a fairly poor soldier, except when it came to artillery. His artillery instructor quickly noticed Napoleon's abilities: "He is most proud, ambitious, aspiring to everything. This young man merits our attention."

dissolve the Directory. In its place, they established a group of three consuls, one of whom was Napoleon. Napoleon quickly took the title of first consul and assumed the powers of a dictator. A sudden seizure of power like Napoleon's is known as a *coup*—from the French phrase **coup d'état** (koo day•TAH), or "blow to the state." **A**)

At the time of Napoleon's coup, France was still at war. In 1799, Britain, Austria, and Russia joined forces with one goal in mind, to drive Napoleon from power. Once again, Napoleon rode from Paris at the head of his troops. Eventually, as a result of war and diplomacy, all three nations signed peace agreements with France. By 1802, Europe was at peace for the first time in ten years. Napoleon was free to focus his energies on restoring order in France.

Napoleon Rules France

At first, Napoleon pretended to be the constitutionally chosen leader of a free republic. In 1800, a **plebiscite** (PLEHB•ih•SYT), or vote of the people, was held to approve a new constitution. Desperate for strong leadership, the people voted overwhelmingly in favor of the constitution. This gave all real power to Napoleon as first consul.

Restoring Order at Home Napoleon did not try to return the nation to the days of Louis XVI. Rather, he kept many of the changes that had come with the Revolution. In general, he supported laws that would both strengthen the central government and achieve some of the goals of the Revolution.

His first task was to get the economy on a solid footing. Napoleon set up an efficient method of tax collection and established a national banking system. In addition to ensuring the government a steady supply of tax money, these actions promoted sound financial management and better control of the economy. Napoleon also took steps to end corruption and inefficiency in government. He dismissed

corrupt officials and, in order to provide the government with trained officials, set up **lycées**, or government-run public schools. These lycées were open to male students of all backgrounds. Graduates were appointed to public office on the basis of merit rather than family connections.

One area where Napoleon disregarded changes introduced by the Revolution was religion. Both the clergy and many peasants wanted to restore the position of the Church in France. Responding to their wishes, Napoleon signed a **concordat**, or agreement, with Pope Pius VII. This established a new relationship between church and state. The government recognized the influence of the Church, but rejected Church control in national affairs. The concordat gained Napoleon the support of the organized Church as well as the majority of the French people.

Napoleon thought that his greatest work was his comprehensive system of laws, known as the **Napoleonic Code**. This gave the country a uniform set of laws and eliminated many injustices. However, it actually limited liberty and promoted order and authority over individual rights. For example, freedom of speech and of the press, established during the Revolution, were restricted under the code. The code also restored slavery in the French colonies of the Caribbean.

MAIN IDEA

Analyzing Motives

Ⓔ Why do you think Napoleon crowned himself emperor?

Napoleon Crowned as Emperor In 1804, Napoleon decided to make himself emperor, and the French voters supported him. On December 2, 1804, dressed in a splendid robe of purple velvet, Napoleon walked down the long aisle of Notre Dame Cathedral in Paris. The pope waited for him with a glittering crown. As thousands watched, the new emperor took the crown from the pope and placed it on his own head. With this gesture, Napoleon signaled that he was more powerful than the Church, which had traditionally crowned the rulers of France. Ⓔ

Napoleon Creates an Empire

Napoleon was not content simply to be master of France. He wanted to control the rest of Europe and to reassert French power in the Americas. He envisioned his western empire including Louisiana, Florida, French Guiana, and the French West Indies. He knew that the key to this area was the sugar-producing colony of Saint Domingue (now called Haiti) on the island of Hispaniola.

Loss of American Territories In 1789, when the ideas of the Revolution reached the planters in Saint Domingue, they demanded that the National Assembly give them the same privileges as the people of France. Eventually, enslaved Africans in the colony demanded their rights too—in other words, their freedom. A civil war erupted, and enslaved Africans under the leadership of Toussaint L'Ouverture seized control of the colony. In 1801, Napoleon decided to take back the colony and restore its productive sugar industry. However, the French forces were devastated by disease. And the rebels proved to be fierce fighters.

After the failure of the expedition to Saint Domingue, Napoleon decided to cut his losses in the Americas. He offered to sell all of the Louisiana Territory to the United States, and in 1803 President Jefferson's administration agreed to purchase the land for \$15 million. Napoleon saw a twofold benefit to the sale. First, he would gain money to finance operations in Europe. Second, he would punish the British. "The sale assures forever the power of the United States," he observed, "and I have given England a rival who, sooner or later, will humble her pride." Ⓕ

MAIN IDEA

Recognizing Effects

Ⓕ What effects did Napoleon intend the sale of Louisiana to have on France? on the United States? on Britain?

Conquering Europe Having abandoned his imperial ambitions in the New World, Napoleon turned his attention to Europe. He had already annexed the Austrian Netherlands and parts of Italy to France and set up a puppet government in Switzerland. Now he looked to expand his influence further. Fearful of his ambitions, the British persuaded Russia, Austria, and Sweden to join them against France.

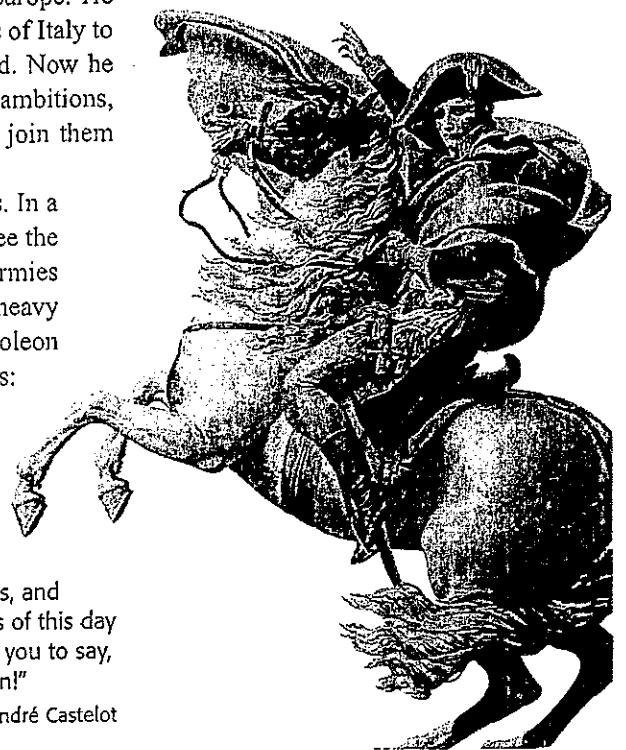
Napoleon met this challenge with his usual boldness. In a series of brilliant battles, he crushed the opposition. (See the map on page 666.) The commanders of the enemy armies could never predict his next move and often took heavy losses. After the Battle of Austerlitz in 1805, Napoleon issued a proclamation expressing his pride in his troops:

PRIMARY SOURCE

Soldiers! I am pleased with you. On the day of Austerlitz, you justified everything that I was expecting of [you]. . . . In less than four hours, an army of 100,000 men, commanded by the emperors of Russia and Austria, was cut up and dispersed. . . . 120 pieces of artillery, 20 generals, and more than 30,000 men taken prisoner—such are the results of this day which will forever be famous. . . . And it will be enough for you to say, "I was at Austerlitz," to hear the reply: "There is a brave man!"

NAPOLEON, quoted in *Napoleon* by André Castelot

▼ This painting by Jacques Louis David shows Napoleon in a heroic pose.

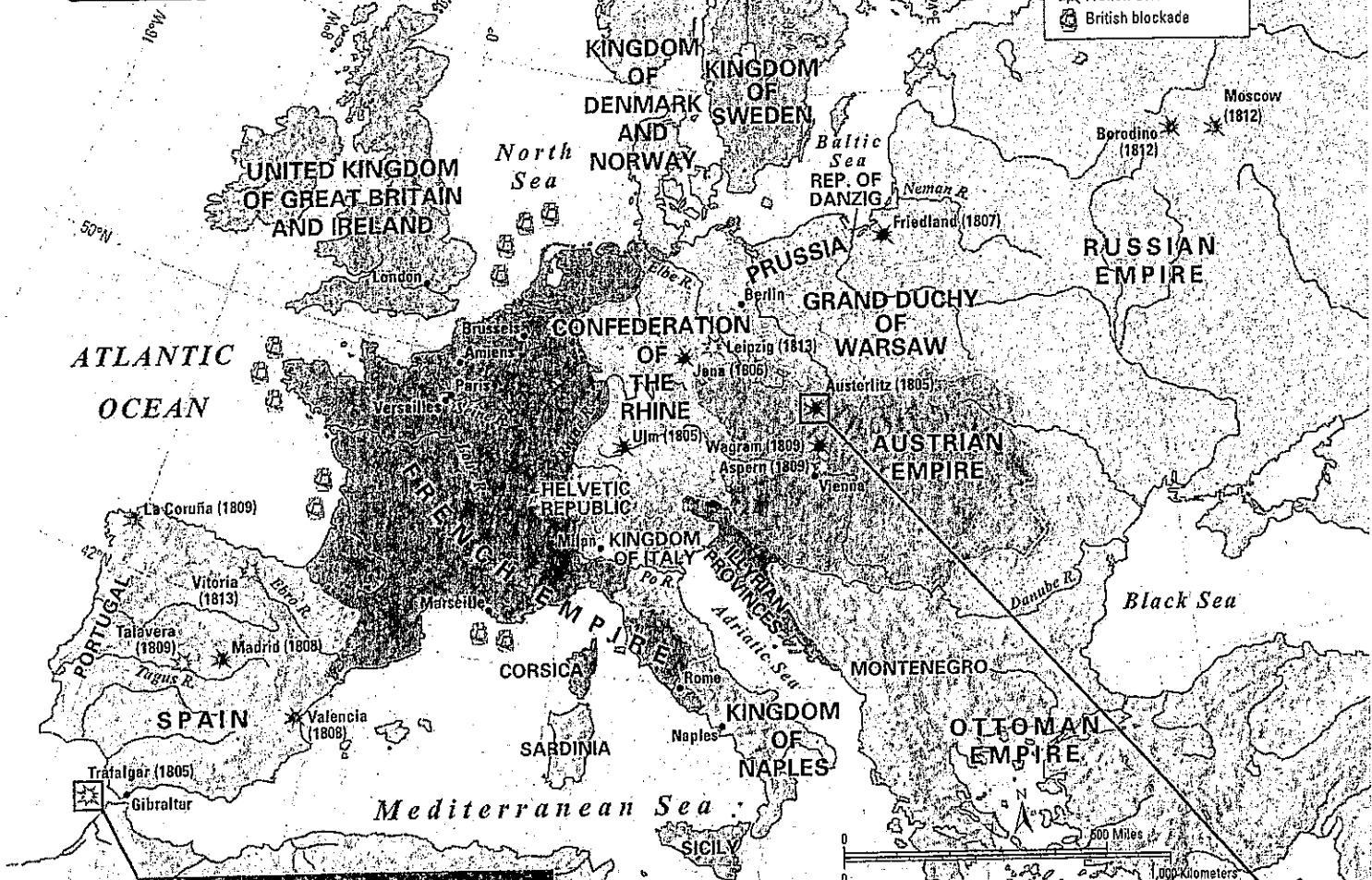


War in Europe, 1805-1813

INTERACTIVE

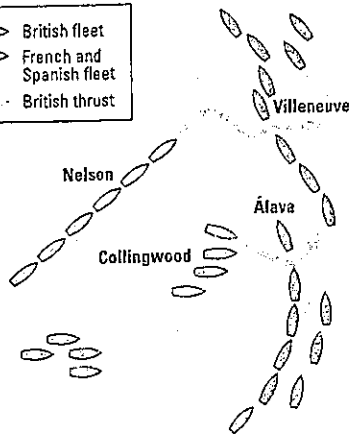
Interactive Feature

- French Empire
- Controlled by Napoleon
- French victory
- French defeat
- British blockade



Battle of Trafalgar, Oct. 21, 1805

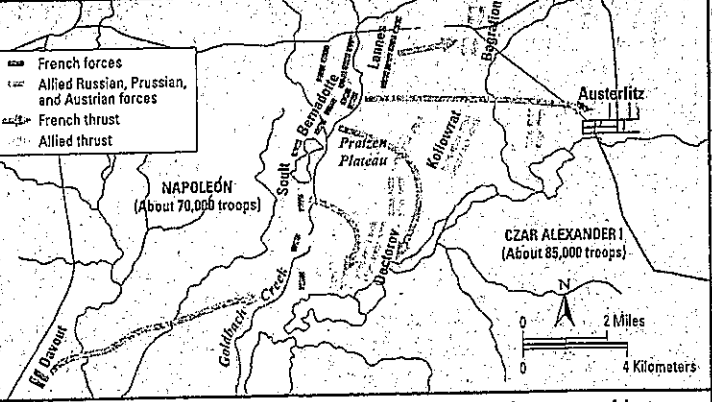
- British fleet
- French and Spanish fleet
- British thrust



By dividing Villeneuve's formation, Admiral Nelson captured nearly two-thirds of the enemy fleet.

Battle of Austerlitz, Dec. 2, 1805

- French forces
- Allied Russian, Prussian, and Austrian forces
- French thrust
- Allied thrust



By drawing an Allied attack on his right flank, Napoleon was able to split the Allied line at its center.

GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Maps

1. **Region** What was the extent of the lands under Napoleon's control?
2. **Location** Where was the Battle of Trafalgar fought? What tactic did Nelson use in the battle, and why was it successful?

In time, Napoleon's battlefield successes forced the rulers of Austria, Prussia, and Russia to sign peace treaties. These successes also enabled him to build the largest European empire since that of the Romans. France's only major enemy left undefeated was the great naval power, Britain.

The Battle of Trafalgar In his drive for a European empire, Napoleon lost only one major battle, the **Battle of Trafalgar** (truh•FAL•guhr). This naval defeat, however, was more important than all of his victories on land. The battle took place in 1805 off the southwest coast of Spain. The British commander, Horatio Nelson, was as brilliant in warfare at sea as Napoleon was in warfare on land. In a bold maneuver, he split the larger French fleet, capturing many ships. (See the map inset on the opposite page.)

The destruction of the French fleet had two major results. First, it ensured the supremacy of the British navy for the next 100 years. Second, it forced Napoleon to give up his plans of invading Britain. He had to look for another way to control his powerful enemy across the English Channel. Eventually, Napoleon's extravagant efforts to crush Britain would lead to his own undoing.

The French Empire During the first decade of the 1800s, Napoleon's victories had given him mastery over most of Europe. By 1812, the only areas of Europe free from Napoleon's control were Britain, Portugal, Sweden, and the Ottoman Empire. In addition to the lands of the French Empire, Napoleon also controlled numerous supposedly independent countries. (See the map on the opposite page.) These included Spain, the Grand Duchy of Warsaw, and a number of German kingdoms in Central Europe. The rulers of these countries were Napoleon's puppets; some, in fact, were members of his family. Furthermore, the powerful countries of Russia, Prussia, and Austria were loosely attached to Napoleon's empire through alliances. Although not totally under Napoleon's control, they were easily manipulated by threats of military action. ☺

The French Empire was huge but unstable. Napoleon was able to maintain it at its greatest extent for only five years—from 1807 to 1812. Then it quickly fell to pieces. Its sudden collapse was caused in part by Napoleon's actions.

MAIN IDEA

Drawing Conclusions

☺ By 1805, how successful had Napoleon been in his efforts to build an empire?

15

* To what extent was the French Revolution successful?

SECTION
46

Latin American Peoples Win Independence

MAIN IDEA

REVOLUTION Spurred by discontent and Enlightenment ideas, peoples in Latin America fought colonial rule.

WHY IT MATTERS NOW

Sixteen of today's Latin American nations gained their independence at this time.

TERMS & NAMES

- *peninsulare*
- creole
- mulatto
- Simón Bolívar
- José de San Martín
- Miguel Hidalgo
- José María Morelos

SETTING THE STAGE The successful American Revolution, the French Revolution, and the Enlightenment changed ideas about who should control government. Ideas of liberty, equality, and democratic rule found their way across the seas to European colonies. In Latin America, most of the population resented the domination of European colonial powers. The time seemed right for the people who lived there to sweep away old colonial masters and gain control of the land.

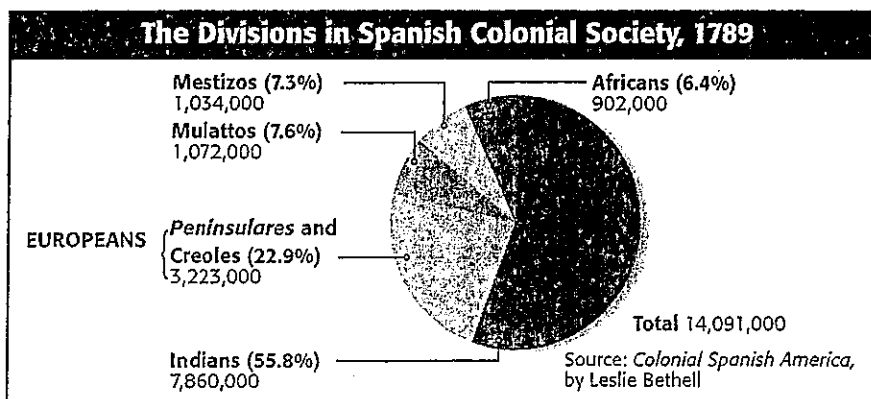
Colonial Society Divided

In Latin American colonial society, class dictated people's place in society and jobs. At the top of Spanish-American society were the peninsulares (peh•neen•soo•LAH•rehs), people who had been born in Spain, which is on the Iberian peninsula. They formed a tiny percentage of the population. Only *peninsulares* could hold high office in Spanish colonial government. Creoles, Spaniards born in Latin America, were below the *peninsulares* in rank. Creoles could not hold high-level political office, but they could rise as officers in

TAKING NOTES

Clarifying Identify details about Latin American independence movements.

Who	Where
When	Why



SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Graphs

- Clarifying** Which two groups made up the vast majority of the population in Spanish America?
- Making Inferences** Of the Europeans, which group—peninsulares or creoles—probably made up a larger percentage?

14

Spanish colonial armies. Together these two groups controlled land, wealth, and power in the Spanish colonies.

Below the *peninsulares* and creoles came the *mestizos*, persons of mixed European and Indian ancestry. Next were the **mulattos**, persons of mixed European and African ancestry, and enslaved Africans. Indians were at the bottom of the social ladder.

Revolutions in the Americas

By the late 1700s, colonists in Latin America, already aware of Enlightenment ideas, were electrified by the news of the American and French Revolutions. The success of the American Revolution encouraged them to try to gain freedom from their European masters.

Revolution in Haiti The French colony called Saint Domingue was the first Latin American territory to free itself from European rule. The colony, now known as Haiti, occupied the western third of the island of Hispaniola in the Caribbean Sea.

Nearly 500,000 enslaved Africans worked on French plantations, and they outnumbered their masters dramatically. White masters used brutal methods to terrorize them and keep them powerless.

While the French Revolution was taking place, oppressed people in the French colony of Haiti rose up against their French masters. In August 1791, 100,000 enslaved Africans rose in revolt. A leader soon emerged, **Toussaint L'Ouverture** (too•SAN loo•vair•TOOR). Formerly enslaved, Toussaint was unfamiliar with military and diplomatic matters. Even so, he rose to become a skilled general and diplomat. By 1801, Toussaint had taken control of the entire island and freed all the enslaved Africans.

In January 1802, 30,000 French troops landed in Saint Domingue to remove Toussaint from power. In May, Toussaint agreed to halt the revolution if the French would end slavery. Despite the agreement, the French soon accused him of planning another uprising. They seized him and sent him to a prison in the French Alps, where he died in April 1803.

Haiti's Independence Toussaint's lieutenant, Jean-Jacques Dessalines (zhahn•ZHAIHK day•sah•LEEN), took up the fight for freedom. On January 1, 1804, General Dessalines declared the colony an independent country. It was the first black colony to free itself from European control. Dessalines called the country Haiti, which in the language of the Arawak natives meant "mountainous land."

Creoles Lead Independence

Even though they could not hold high public office, creoles were the least oppressed of those born in Latin America. They were also the best educated. In fact, many wealthy young creoles traveled to Europe for their education. In Europe, they read about and adopted Enlightenment ideas. When they returned to Latin America, they brought ideas of revolution with them.

Napoleon's conquest of Spain in 1808 triggered revolts in the Spanish colonies. Removing Spain's King Ferdinand VII, Napoleon made his brother Joseph king of Spain. Many creoles might have supported a Spanish king. However, they felt no loyalty to a king imposed by the French. Creoles, recalling Locke's idea of the consent of the governed, argued that when the real king was removed, power shifted to the people. In 1810, rebellion broke out in several parts of Latin America. The drive toward independence had begun. A

MAIN IDEA

Recognizing Effects

A How did the French Revolution affect the colonists in the Americas?

▼ Toussaint L'Ouverture led enslaved Africans in a revolt against the French that ended slavery and resulted in the new nation of Haiti.



History Makers



Simón Bolívar
1783-1830

Called *Libertador* (Liberator), Bolívar was a brilliant general, a visionary, a writer, and a fighter. He is called the "George Washington of South America." Bolívar planned to unite the Spanish colonies of South America into a single country called Gran Colombia. The area of upper Peru was renamed Bolivia in his honor.

Discouraged by political disputes that tore the new Latin American nations apart, he is reported to have said, "America is ungovernable. Those who have served the revolution have ploughed the sea."

José de San Martín
1778-1850

Unlike the dashing Bolívar, San Martín was a modest man. Though born in Argentina, he spent much of his youth in Spain as a career military officer. He fought with Spanish forces against Napoleon. He returned to Latin America to be a part of its liberation from Spain. Fighting for 10 years, he became the liberator of Argentina, Chile, and Peru.

Discouraged by political infighting, San Martín sailed for Europe. He died, almost forgotten, on French soil in 1850.



The South American wars of independence rested on the achievements of two brilliant creole generals. One was **Simón Bolívar** (see •MAWN boh•LEE•vahr), a wealthy Venezuelan creole. The other great liberator was **José de San Martín** (hoh•SAY day san mahr•TEEN), an Argentinian.

Bolívar's Route to Victory Simón Bolívar's native Venezuela declared its independence from Spain in 1811. But the struggle for independence had only begun. Bolívar's volunteer army of revolutionaries suffered numerous defeats. Twice Bolívar had to go into exile. A turning point came in August 1819. Bolívar led over 2,000 soldiers on a daring march through the Andes into what is now Colombia. (See the 1830 map on page 685.) Coming from this direction, he took the Spanish army in Bogotá completely by surprise and won a decisive victory.

By 1821, Bolívar had won Venezuela's independence. He then marched south into Ecuador. In Ecuador, Bolívar finally met José de San Martín. Together they would decide the future of the Latin American revolutionary movement.

San Martín Leads Southern Liberation Forces San Martín's Argentina had declared its independence in 1816. However, Spanish forces in nearby Chile and Peru still posed a threat. In 1817, San Martín led an army on a grueling march across the Andes to Chile. He was joined there by forces led by Bernardo O'Higgins, son of a former viceroy of Peru. With O'Higgins's help, San Martín finally freed Chile.

In 1821, San Martín planned to drive the remaining Spanish forces out of Lima, Peru. But to do so, he needed a much larger force. San Martín and Bolívar discussed this problem when they met at Guayaquil, Ecuador, in 1822.

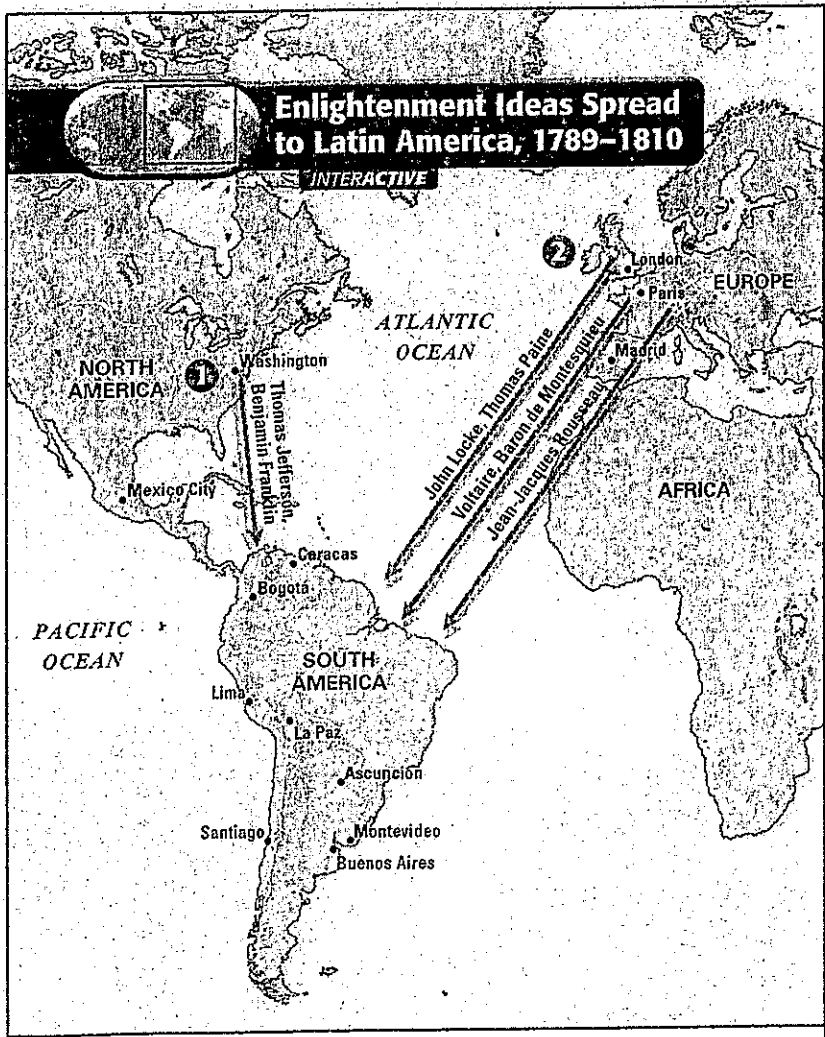
No one knows how the two men reached an agreement. But San Martín left his army for Bolívar to command. With unified revolutionary forces, Bolívar's army went on to defeat the Spanish at the Battle of Ayacucho (Peru) on December 9, 1824. In this last major battle of the war for independence, the Spanish colonies in Latin America won their freedom. The future countries of Venezuela, Colombia, Panama, and Ecuador were united into a country called Gran Colombia.

Global Impact: Struggling Toward Democracy

Struggling Toward Democracy

Revolutions are as much a matter of ideas as they are of weapons. Simón Bolívar, the hero of Latin American independence, was both a thinker and a fighter. By 1800, Enlightenment ideas spread widely across the Latin American colonies. Bolívar combined Enlightenment political ideas, ideas from Greece and Rome, and his own original thinking. The result was a system of democratic ideas that would help spark revolutions throughout Latin America.

Interactive Feature



After winning South American independence, Simón Bolívar realized his dream of Gran Colombia, a sort of United States of South America.

Patterns of Interaction

Struggling Toward Democracy: Revolutions in Latin America and South Africa

The Latin American independence movement is one example of how the Enlightenment spread democratic ideals throughout the world. Democratic ideals continue to inspire people to struggle for political independence and to overthrow oppressive governments.

Connect to Today

- 1. Making Inferences** How are Enlightenment thought and the successes of the American and French Revolutions reflected in Bolívar's thinking?
 See Skillbuilder Handbook, page R10.
- 2. Comparing** What recent events in today's world are similar to Simón Bolívar's movement for Latin American independence?

Mexico Ends Spanish Rule

In most Latin American countries, creoles led the revolutionary movements. But in Mexico, ethnic and racial groups mixed more freely. There, Indians and mestizos played the leading role.

A Cry for Freedom In 1810, Padre **Miguel Hidalgo** (mee•GEHL ee•THAHL•goh), a priest in the small village of Dolores, took the first step toward independence. Hidalgo was a poor but well-educated man. He firmly believed in Enlightenment ideals. On September 16, 1810, he rang the bells of his village church. When the peasants gathered in the church, he issued a call for rebellion against the Spanish. Today, that call is known as the *grito de Dolores* (the cry of Dolores).

The very next day, Hidalgo's Indian and mestizo followers began a march toward Mexico City. This unruly army soon numbered 80,000 men. The uprising of the lower classes alarmed the Spanish army and creoles, who feared the loss of their property, control of the land, and their lives. The army defeated Hidalgo in 1811. The rebels then rallied around another strong leader, Padre **José María Morelos** (moh•RAY•loh). Morelos led the revolution for four years. However, in 1815, a creole officer, Agustín de Iturbide (ah•goos•TEEN day ee•toor•BEE•day), defeated him.

Mexico's Independence Events in Mexico took yet another turn in 1820 when a revolution in Spain put a liberal group in power there. Mexico's creoles feared the loss of their privileges in the Spanish-controlled colony. So they united in support of Mexico's independence from Spain. Ironically, Agustín de Iturbide—the man who had defeated the rebel Padre Morelos—proclaimed independence in 1821.



GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Maps

1. **Region** What two European countries held the largest colonial empires in Latin America in 1800?
2. **Region** Comparing the two maps, which independent countries had emerged by 1830 from Spanish territory in the Americas?

20

Before the Mexican revolution, Central America was part of the viceroyalty of New Spain. It had been governed by the Spanish from the seat of colonial government in Mexico. In 1821, several Central American states declared their independence from Spain—and from Mexico as well. However, Iturbide (who had declared himself emperor), refused to recognize the declarations of independence. Iturbide was finally overthrown in 1823. Central America then declared its absolute independence from Mexico. It took the name the United Provinces of Central America. The future countries of Nicaragua, Guatemala, Honduras, El Salvador, and Costa Rica would develop in this region.

Brazil's Royal Liberator

Brazil's quest for independence was unique in this period of Latin American history because it occurred without violent upheavals or widespread bloodshed. In fact, a member of the Portuguese royal family actually played a key role in freeing Brazil from Portugal.

In 1807, Napoleon's armies invaded both Spain and Portugal. Napoleon's aim was to close the ports of these countries to British shipping. As French troops approached Lisbon, the Portuguese capital, Prince John (later King John VI) and the royal family boarded ships to escape capture. They took their court and royal treasury to Portugal's largest colony, Brazil. Rio de Janeiro became the capital of the Portuguese empire. For 14 years, the Portuguese ran their empire from Brazil. After Napoleon's defeat in 1815, King John and the Portuguese government returned to Portugal six years later. Dom Pedro, King John's son, stayed behind in Brazil.

King John planned to make Brazil a colony again. However, many Brazilians could not accept a return to colonial status. In 1822, creoles demanded Brazil's independence from Portugal. Eight thousand Brazilians signed a petition asking Dom Pedro to rule. He agreed. On September 7, 1822, he officially declared Brazil's independence. Brazil had won its independence in a bloodless revolution. **B)**

Meanwhile, the ideas of the French Revolution and the aftermath of the Napoleonic Wars were causing upheaval in Europe, as you will learn in Section 2.

Lesson Summary

In this lesson, you read about the political revolutions that occurred throughout the world in the 1700s and 1800s. Many of these revolutions were influenced by the democratic ideals of the Enlightenment.

Cultural Interaction Political revolutionaries in the Americas and Europe based many of their actions on ideas formulated in Europe during the Enlightenment. Those ideas later appeared in the constitutions put in place by newly formed nations.

Political Structures The revolutions that took place from the late 1700s to the early 1900s sought to replace monarchies with representative political systems. The French Revolution encouraged the spread of nationalism and, along with the American Revolution, inspired political upheavals elsewhere.

Economic Structures Many Enlightenment thinkers called for individual economic freedom and the protection of private property. These ideas appealed to not just to the poor, but also wealthy and middle-class citizens, and helped bring about revolutionary political change in the West.

Social Structures Tensions among social classes in France played a key role in the French Revolution, which transformed French society. The social structure in Haiti was changed by a slave rebellion that turned into a political revolution. During the revolutions in Latin America, society was split along racial and class lines.

CHAPTER 2

The Industrial Revolution

What was so revolutionary about the Industrial Revolution?

Introduction

In the 1700s, metalworkers used large amounts of coal, which burned with the intense heat needed for making iron. Coal suppliers, however, had a problem. Coal mines, dug deep in the ground, tended to fill with water. A British inventor named Thomas Newcomen designed an engine to pump water out of the mines. His engine burned wood or coal to boil water and produce steam. It converted the steam's heat energy into mechanical energy to drive the pump. The Newcomen engine worked, but not very efficiently. The engine required a constant cycle of heating and cooling of the main piston cylinder to work, which wasted the energy from the fuel.

In 1764, James Watt had the job of repairing a Newcomen engine. Watt made scientific instruments for a living, and he had an inventor's mind. He knew he could make an engine that did not waste so much of the potential energy of the fuel. The solution eluded him for months. But then, one day, while strolling through Glasgow, Scotland, the answer suddenly came to him. Watt set to work right away building a model, and in 1769 he won a patent for his much more efficient steam engine. By creating another cylinder that was insulated, all parts of the engine were able to maintain the correct temperatures and therefore not waste energy switching back and forth.

Watt spent the next two decades perfecting his steam engine. By 1790, he had turned his steam engine into a sturdy, practical, powerful machine. It would be put to use not only in coal mines, but also in steamboats, locomotives, and factories. The steam engine would power the Industrial Revolution.

Many scholars are reluctant to call this period of industrialization a "revolution" because they say it took place over too long a period. Yet the changes brought on by this shift from muscle power to machine power were enormous and revolutionary in their scope. This lesson explores the Industrial Revolution, starting where it all began: Great Britain.

◀ This historical steam engine-powered train still operates on a preserved railway in Britain.

Vocabulary

productivity the amount of goods or services that result for each unit of required resources used (output per unit of input)

interchangeable parts parts that can be swapped for one another in the assembling of a product, because they have been precisely cut and shaped to be identical

Bessemer process a relatively inexpensive method for converting iron to steel by using a blast of air to remove carbon from molten iron

domestic system a pre-industrial system of manufacturing in which workers crafted products in their homes using raw materials supplied by merchants

factory system an industrial system of manufacturing in which workers, raw materials, and machinery are gathered under the same roof

mass production the high-volume, low-cost manufacture of identical items through the use of specialization and interchangeable parts

enclosure the repossession and fencing-in by landowners of formerly common lands, often for the purpose of commercial farming

monopoly complete control by one firm of the production and/or the supply of a good

SECTION 1: CAUSES OF THE INDUSTRIAL REV.

1. Great Britain Leads the Way

The Industrial Revolution, led by Great Britain, completely transformed how work was done. By the mid-1800s, British manufactures far exceeded those of any other country. Industrialization happened so quickly in Great Britain that it earned the nickname "workshop of the world." Why did the revolution start in this small, European island nation?

Factors of Industrialization Great Britain became the first nation to industrialize because it had all of the necessary factors:

Political Stability Britain had a stable government that supported individual political freedom, property rights, and equality of opportunity. Because of these traits, entrepreneurs were encouraged to take risks in pursuit of profit.

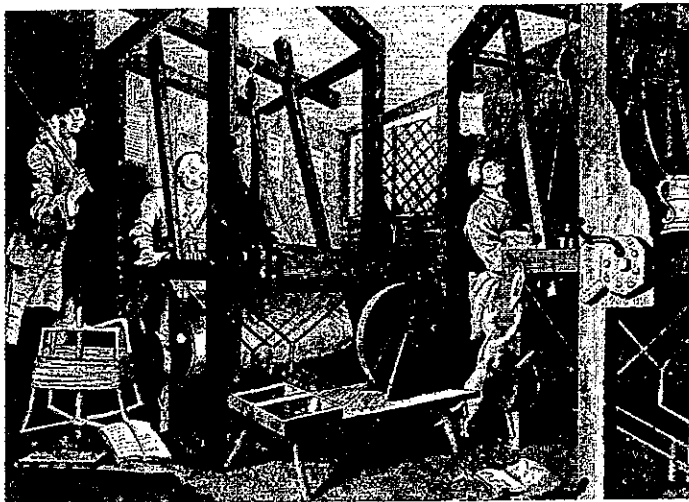
Labor Britain had plenty of people available for work. British farmers produced so much food that many of its people were freed to do different kinds of work. Many of those people went to work in industry.

Raw Materials Britain had plentiful supplies of the raw materials needed in industry, such as coal for fuel or wool for textiles.

Banking System Britain's banks provided loans to entrepreneurs to finance large projects, such as factories, railroads, and coal mines.

Transportation System Britain had a network of navigable rivers and seaside ports. It built a nationwide system of canals. Later, it developed a railroad network, making the transportation of goods and raw materials cheaper and faster than ever before.

As textile making became mechanized, it required larger and more expensive equipment. This eventually shifted the site of fabric production from individual homes to factories.



Innovation in Textiles The first industry to be transformed in Great Britain was textile production. Before industrialization, every step of cloth making had to be done by hand. The raw fiber, like wool and cotton, had to be cleaned and untangled. The fibers had to be twisted into

thread. Then the threads had to be woven into cloth. Each step was laborious and time-consuming. Skilled artisans used simple tools and equipment to make cloth at home.

In the mid-1700s, English inventors created machines to speed up the cloth-making process. In 1733, John Kay invented the flying shuttle to automate the weaving process. Now weaving was faster, but spinners could not spin thread fast enough to keep up. James Hargreaves invented the spinning jenny in 1764 to allow one person to spin dozens of threads at the same time.

SECTION
2

Industrialization

CASE STUDY: Manchester

MAIN IDEA

ECONOMICS The factory system changed the way people lived and worked, introducing a variety of problems.

WHY IT MATTERS NOW

Many less-developed countries are undergoing the difficult process of industrialization today.

TERMS & NAMES

- urbanization
- middle class

SETTING THE STAGE The Industrial Revolution affected every part of life in Great Britain, but proved to be a mixed blessing. Eventually, industrialization led to a better quality of life for most people. But the change to machine production initially caused human suffering. Rapid industrialization brought plentiful jobs, but it also caused unhealthy working conditions, air and water pollution, and the ills of child labor. It also led to rising class tensions, especially between the working class and the middle class.

Industrialization Changes Life

The pace of industrialization accelerated rapidly in Britain. By the 1800s, people could earn higher wages in factories than on farms. With this money, more people could afford to heat their homes with coal from Wales and dine on Scottish beef. They wore better clothing, too, woven on power looms in England's industrial cities. Cities swelled with waves of job seekers.

Industrial Cities Rise For centuries, most Europeans had lived in rural areas. After 1800, the balance shifted toward cities. This shift was caused by the growth of the factory system, where the manufacturing of goods was concentrated in a central location. Between 1800 and 1850, the number of European cities boasting more than 100,000 inhabitants rose from 22 to 47. Most of Europe's urban areas at least doubled in population; some even quadrupled. This period was one of **urbanization**—city building and the movement of people to cities.

TAKING NOTES

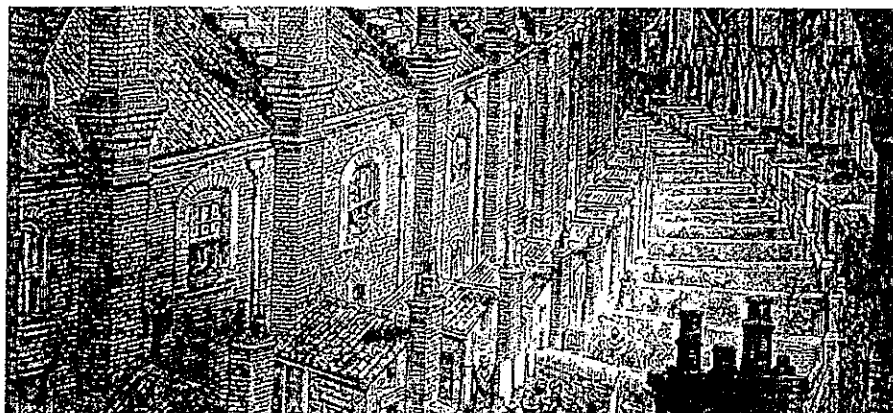
Outlining Organize main ideas and details.

I. *Industrialization Changes Life*

A.

B.

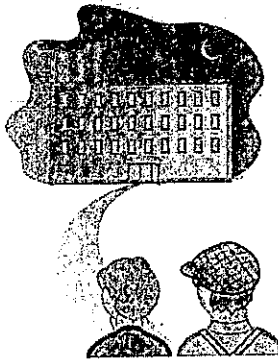
II. *Class Tensions Grow*



◀ As cities grew, people crowded into tenements and row houses such as these in London.

The Day of a Child Laborer William Cooper

William Cooper began working in a textile factory at the age of ten. He had a sister who worked upstairs in the same factory. In 1832, Cooper was called to testify before a parliamentary committee about the conditions among child laborers in the textile industry. The following sketch of his day is based upon his testimony.



5 A.M. The workday began. Cooper and his sister rose as early as 4:00 or 4:30 in order to get to the factory by 5:00. Children usually ate their breakfast on the run.



12 NOON The children were given a 40-minute break for lunch. This was the only break they received all day.



Factories developed in clusters because entrepreneurs built them near sources of energy, such as water and coal. Major new industrial centers sprang up between the coal-rich area of southern Wales and the Clyde River valley in Scotland. But the biggest of these centers developed in England. (See map on page 715.)

Britain's capital, London, was the country's most important city. It had a population of about one million people by 1800. During the 1800s, its population exploded, providing a vast labor pool and market for new industry. London became Europe's largest city, with twice as many people as its closest rival (Paris). Newer cities challenged London's industrial leadership. Birmingham and Sheffield became iron-smelting centers. Leeds and Manchester dominated textile manufacturing. Along with the port of Liverpool, Manchester formed the center of Britain's bustling cotton industry. During the 1800s, Manchester experienced rapid growth from around 45,000 in 1760 to 300,000 by 1850.

Living Conditions Because England's cities grew rapidly, they had no development plans, sanitary codes, or building codes. Moreover, they lacked adequate housing, education, and police protection for the people who poured in from the countryside to seek jobs. Most of the unpaved streets had no drains, and garbage collected in heaps on them. Workers lived in dark, dirty shelters, with whole families crowding into one bedroom. Sickness was widespread. Epidemics of the deadly disease cholera regularly swept through the slums of Great Britain's industrial cities. In 1842, a British government study showed an average life span to be 17 years for working-class people in one large city, compared with 38 years in a nearby rural area.

Elizabeth Gaskell's *Mary Barton* (1848) is a work of fiction. But it presents a startlingly accurate portrayal of urban life experienced by many at the time. Gaskell provides a realistic description of the dank cellar dwelling of one family in a Manchester slum:

▼ Elizabeth Gaskell (1810–1865) was a British writer whose novels show a sympathy for the working class.



PRIMARY SOURCE A)

You went down one step even from the foul area into the cellar in which a family of human beings lived. It was very dark inside. The window-panes many of them were broken and stuffed with rags . . . the smell was so fetid [foul] as almost to knock the two men down. . . they began to penetrate the thick darkness of the place, and to see three or four little children rolling on the damp, nay wet brick floor, through which the stagnant, filthy moisture of the street oozed up.

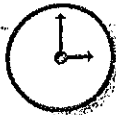
ELIZABETH GASKELL, *Mary Barton*

But not everyone in urban areas lived miserably. Well-to-do merchants and factory owners often built luxurious homes in the suburbs.

MAIN IDEA

Analyzing Primary Sources

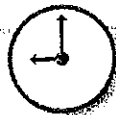
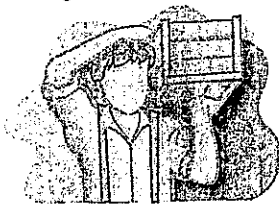
A) How does Gaskell indicate her sympathy for the working class in this passage?



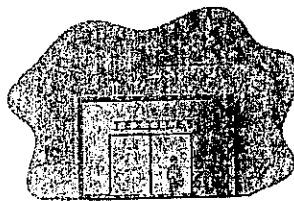
3 P.M. The children often became drowsy during the afternoon or evening hours. In order to keep them awake, adult overseers sometimes whipped the children.



6 P.M. There was no break allowed for an evening meal. Children again ate on the run.



9 P.M. William Cooper's day ended after an exhausting 16-hour shift at work.



11 P.M. Cooper's sister worked another two hours even though she had to be back at work at 5:00 the next morning.



Working Conditions To increase production, factory owners wanted to keep their machines running as many hours as possible. As a result, the average worker spent 14 hours a day at the job, 6 days a week. Work did not change with the seasons, as it did on the farm. Instead, work remained the same week after week, year after year.

Industry also posed new dangers for workers. Factories were seldom well lit or clean. Machines injured workers. A boiler might explode or a drive belt might catch an arm. And there was no government program to provide aid in case of injury. The most dangerous conditions of all were found in coal mines. Frequent accidents, damp conditions, and the constant breathing of coal dust made the average miner's life span ten years shorter than that of other workers. Many women and children were employed in the mining industry because they were the cheapest source of labor.

Class Tensions Grow

Though poverty gripped Britain's working classes, the Industrial Revolution created enormous amounts of wealth in the nation. Most of this new money belonged to factory owners, shippers, and merchants. These people were part of a growing **middle class**, a social class made up of skilled workers, professionals, businesspeople, and wealthy farmers.

The Middle Class The new middle class transformed the social structure of Great Britain. In the past, landowners and aristocrats had occupied the top position in British society. With most of the wealth, they wielded the social and political power. Now some factory owners, merchants, and bankers grew wealthier than the landowners and aristocrats. Yet important social distinctions divided the two wealthy classes. Landowners looked down on those who had made their fortunes in the "vulgar" business world. Not until late in the 1800s were rich entrepreneurs considered the social equals of the lords of the countryside.

Gradually, a larger middle class—neither rich nor poor—emerged. The upper middle class consisted of government employees, doctors, lawyers, and managers of factories, mines, and shops. The lower middle class included factory overseers and such skilled workers as toolmakers, mechanical drafters, and printers. These people enjoyed a comfortable standard of living. **B**

The Working Class During the years 1800 to 1850, however, laborers, or the working class, saw little improvement in their living and working conditions. They watched their livelihoods disappear as machines replaced them. In frustration, some smashed the machines they thought were putting them out of work.

MAIN IDEA

Summarizing

B Describe the social classes in Britain.

Connect to Today



Child Labor Today

To save on labor costs in the 1990s and 2000s, many corporations moved their manufacturing operations overseas to developing countries. There, in sweatshops, young children work long hours under wretched conditions. They are unprotected by child labor laws. For mere pennies per hour, children weave carpets, sort vegetables, or assemble expensive athletic shoes.

Several organizations are working to end child labor, including the Child Welfare League of America and the International Labor Rights Fund.

lunch and an hour for dinner. To keep the children awake, mill supervisors beat them. Tiny hands repaired broken threads in Manchester's spinning machines, replaced thread in the bobbins, or swept up cotton fluff. The dangerous machinery injured many children. The fluff filled their lungs and made them cough.

Until the first Factory Act passed in 1819, the British government exerted little control over child labor in Manchester and other factory cities. The act restricted working age and hours. For years after the act passed, young children still did heavy, dangerous work in Manchester's factories. ☹

Putting so much industry into one place polluted the natural environment. The coal that powered factories and warmed houses blackened the air. Textile dyes and other wastes poisoned Manchester's Irwell River. An eyewitness observer wrote the following description of the river in 1862:

PRIMARY SOURCE

Steam boilers discharge into it their seething contents, and drains and sewers their fetid impurities; till at length it rolls on—here between tall dingy walls, there under precipices of red sandstone—considerably less a river than a flood of liquid manure.

HUGH MILLER, "Old Red Sandstone"

Like other new industrial cities of the 19th century, Manchester produced consumer goods and created wealth on a grand scale. Yet, it also stood as a reminder of the ills of rapid and unplanned industrialization.

As you will learn in Section 3, the industrialization that began in Great Britain spread to the United States and to continental Europe in the 1800s.

MAIN IDEA

Drawing

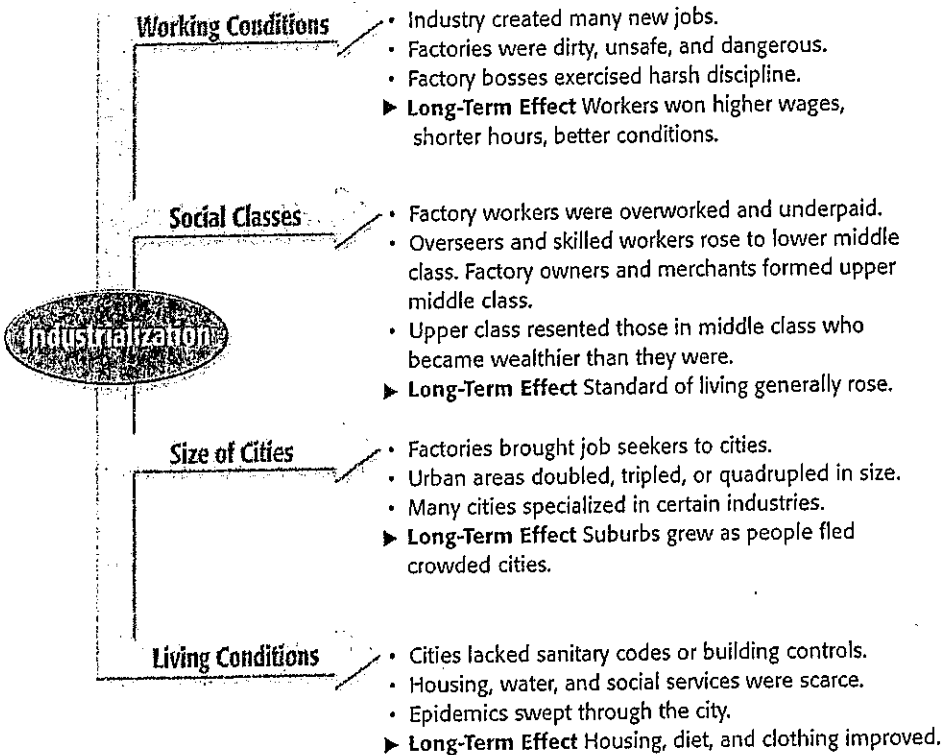
Conclusions

☹ Whose interests did child labor serve?

Industrialization

Industrialization is the process of developing industries that use machines to produce goods. This process not only revolutionizes a country's economy, it also transforms social conditions and class structures.

Effects of Industrialization

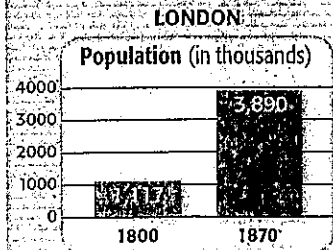
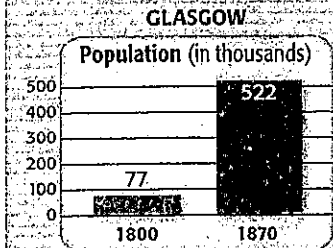
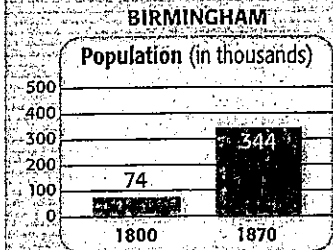
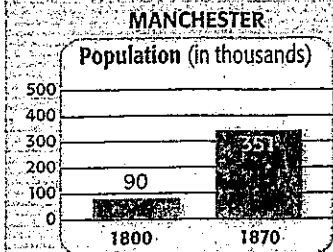


▼ This engraving shows urban growth and industrial pollution in Manchester.



> DATA FILE

GROWTH OF CITIES



Source: *European Historical Statistics, 1750-1975*

Connect to Today

- 1. Recognizing Effects** What were some advantages and disadvantages of industrialization?
 See Skillbuilder Handbook, page R6.
- 2. Making Inferences** Many nations around the world today are trying to industrialize. What do you think they hope to gain from that process?

SECTION 3:

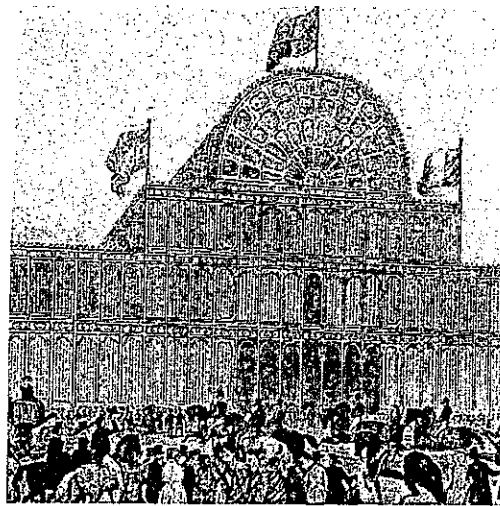
The Impact of Industrialization

The Industrial Revolution shifted the world balance of power. It increased competition between industrialized nations and poverty in less-developed nations.

Rise of Global Inequality Industrialization widened the wealth gap between industrialized and nonindustrialized countries, even while it strengthened their economic ties. To keep factories running and workers fed, industrialized countries required a steady supply of raw materials from less-developed lands. In turn, industrialized countries viewed poor countries as markets for their manufactured products.

Britain led in exploiting its overseas colonies for resources and markets. Soon other European countries, the United States, Russia, and Japan followed Britain's lead, seizing colonies for their economic resources. Imperialism, the policy of extending one country's rule over many other lands, gave even more power and wealth to these already wealthy nations. Imperialism was born out of the cycle of industrialization, the need for resources to supply the factories of Europe, and the development of new markets around the world. (See Chapter 27.) ☺

Transformation of Society Between 1700 and 1900, revolutions in agriculture, production, transportation, and communication changed the lives of people in Western Europe and the United States. Industrialization gave Europe tremendous economic power. In contrast, the economies of Asia and Africa were still based on agriculture and small workshops. Industrialization revolutionized every aspect of society, from daily life to life expectancy. Despite the hardships early urban workers suffered, population, health, and wealth eventually rose dramatically in all industrialized countries. The development of a middle class created great opportunities for education and democratic participation. Greater democratic participation, in turn, fueled a powerful movement for social reform.



▲ The Crystal Palace Exposition in London in 1851 (shown above) celebrated the "works of industry of all nations."

Positive Effects of the Industrial Revolution

Despite the problems that followed industrialization, the Industrial Revolution had a number of positive effects. It created jobs for workers. It contributed to the wealth of the nation. It fostered technological progress and invention. It greatly increased the production of goods and raised the standard of living. Perhaps most important, it provided the hope of improvement in people's lives.

The Industrial Revolution produced a number of other benefits as well. These included healthier diets, better housing, and cheaper, mass-produced clothing. Because the Industrial Revolution created a demand for engineers as well as clerical and professional workers, it expanded educational opportunities.

The middle and upper classes prospered immediately from the Industrial Revolution. For the workers it took longer, but their lives gradually improved during the 1800s. Laborers eventually won higher wages, shorter hours, and better working conditions after they joined together to form labor unions.

Long-Term Effects The long-term effects of the Industrial Revolution are still evident. Most people today in industrialized countries can afford consumer goods that would have been considered luxuries 50 or 60 years ago. In addition, their living and working conditions are much improved over those of workers in the 19th century. Also, profits derived from industrialization produced tax revenues. These funds have allowed local, state, and federal governments to invest in urban improvements and raise the standard of living of most city dwellers.

The economic successes of the Industrial Revolution, and also the problems created by it, were clearly evident in one of Britain's new industrial cities in the 1800s—Manchester.

3. A Worldwide Trend

Until the 1900s, industrialization was limited to a handful of Western countries, as well as Russia and Japan. But the desire for profits and the general wish to improve living standards led to a widespread push for industry. Also, as more and more peoples throughout the world have demanded a voice in government, liberal democracy has spread across the globe. Capitalism, with its doctrine of private property, has been closely tied to democratic government. Nations that industrialized often used their newfound wealth to strengthen their military. In the late 1800s, some of those nations exercised their power by establishing colonies in foreign lands. On that basis, they formed or expanded empires. This shift to industrialization had major impact around the world.

Environmental Impact of Industrialization The industrial revolution created a greater need for natural resources than ever before. Factories could produce large quantities of products, and they wanted to maximize their profits by increasing the number of goods they could make. This led to a search for resources that spread across the world. The extraction of the natural resources needed for the new industrialized world was damaging to the nations that undertook it. Disruption of the environment, particularly natural habitats such as forests and mountains, compromised and destroyed ecosystems. And the constant need for more and more resources has made it difficult for these habitats to recover.

New technology and sources of energy developed during the industrial revolution made the factory system practical. Coal and steam became essential parts of this factory system, increasing efficiency and decreasing cost of production.

But coal, and later the petroleum and natural gas that replaced it, has a widespread impact on the environment. Mining coal is incredibly dangerous and can destroy the natural environments around the mining site. The burning of coal pollutes the air with tiny particles of ash and soot, which causes respiratory and even neurological diseases in humans and other animals. It also produces gases, such as carbon dioxide, methane, and nitrous oxides.

These environmental issues impact the entire world, not just the nation that undertakes these practices. Water pollutants, such as oil spills, can spread easily across the ocean with currents and winds, as well as wildlife that it comes into contact with. Air pollutants join the atmosphere and surround our entire planet with harmful substances. These environmental impacts can last for years, and many are irreversible.

SECTION 4:

The Impact of Industrialization on Global Revolutions

How did the Industrial Revolution create the conditions for global revolutions?

Introduction

The Industrial Revolution radically changed the social, political, and economic landscape of Europe. Before the Industrial Revolution, regions of the same nation would mostly function as their own economies, their own social structures, and their own political entities. But with the increased use of railroads, people who had been confined to their own regions by the difficulty and cost of travel could now move about relatively easily. This growing connection brought the possibility of a national identity to Europe.

France in particular adopted a sense of national identity. Social and economic class had divided France for centuries. The nobles and clergy held most of the legal and economic power, although they made up less than five percent of the population. The rest of the people took on much of the financial burden of maintaining the sovereignty of the nation. Growing connections between the commoners allowed the French people to fight back against the economic disparity that divided the nation. The ensuing French Revolution replaced the monarchy with a representative government.

This did not last, however. The French military leader, Napoleon Bonaparte, took control. Despite ruling as a dictator, he supported industrialization and maintained the revolutionary ideas of equality and liberty. Industrialization created connections that further united France through the urbanization of workers, the creation of railroads, and the spread of print media. The Industrial Revolution allowed for the expansion and growth of nationalism, as well as the solidification of France's new national identity as a nation state governed by a unified people.

The Tennis Court Oath, shown here, was an important part of the French Revolution. The Third Estate took control of the government and swore to not disperse until a written constitution that would give equal political power to its citizens was created.

Vocabulary

centralized state a system where economic, political, and social systems are administered by a central governing body

liberal favoring individual political and economic freedom, with limits on state power

conservative favoring the maintenance of existing institutions and traditional values

zaibatsus a type of business organization distinct to Japan in which families control large monopolies within industries

Boxer Rebellion an anti-foreigner, Christian-led uprising against the Qing dynasty in China

SETTING THE STAGE European heads of government were looking to establish long-lasting peace and stability on the continent after the defeat of Napoleon. They had a goal of the new European order—one of collective security and stability for the entire continent. A series of meetings in Vienna, known as the **Congress of Vienna**, were called to set up policies to achieve this goal. Originally, the Congress of Vienna was scheduled to last for four weeks. Instead, it went on for eight months.

Metternich's Plan for Europe

Most of the decisions made in Vienna during the winter of 1814–1815 were made in secret among representatives of the five “great powers”—Russia, Prussia, Austria, Great Britain, and France. By far the most influential of these representatives was the foreign minister of Austria, Prince **Klemens von Metternich** (MEHT•uhr•nihk).

Metternich distrusted the democratic ideals of the French Revolution. Like most other European aristocrats, he felt that Napoleon's behavior had been a natural outcome of experiments with democracy. Metternich wanted to keep things as they were and remarked, “The first and greatest concern for the immense majority of every nation is the stability of laws—never their change.” Metternich had three goals at the Congress of Vienna. First, he wanted to prevent future French aggression by surrounding France with strong countries. Second, he wanted to restore a **balance of power**, so that no country would be a threat to others. Third, he wanted to restore Europe's royal families to the thrones they had held before Napoleon's conquests.

The Containment of France The Congress took the following steps to make the weak countries around France stronger:

- The former Austrian Netherlands and Dutch Republic were united to form the Kingdom of the Netherlands.
- A group of 39 German states were loosely joined as the newly created German Confederation, dominated by Austria.
- Switzerland was recognized as an independent nation.
- The Kingdom of Sardinia in Italy was strengthened by the addition of Genoa.

Long-Term Legacy The Congress of Vienna left a legacy that would influence world politics for the next 100 years. The continent-wide efforts to establish and maintain a balance of power diminished the size and the power of France. At the same time, the power of Britain and Prussia increased.

Nationalism began to spread in Italy, Germany, Greece, and to other areas that the Congress had put under foreign control. Eventually, the nationalistic feelings would explode into revolutions, and new nations would be formed. European colonies also responded to the power shift. Spanish colonies took advantage of the events in Europe to declare their independence and break away from Spain.

At the same time, ideas about the basis of power and authority had changed permanently as a result of the French Revolution. More and more, people saw democracy as the best way to ensure equality and justice for all. The French Revolution, then, changed the social attitudes and assumptions that had dominated Europe for centuries. A new era had begun. ☺

Connect to Today

Congress of Vienna and the United Nations

The Congress of Vienna and the Concert of Europe tried to keep the world safe from war. The modern equivalent of these agreements is the United Nations (UN), an international organization established in 1945 and continuing today, whose purpose is to promote world peace.

Like the Congress of Vienna, the United Nations was formed by major powers after a war—World War II. These powers agreed to cooperate to reduce tensions and bring greater harmony to international relations. Throughout its history, the United Nations has used diplomacy as its chief method of keeping the peace.

INTEGRATED TECHNOLOGY

INTERNET ACTIVITY Create a graphic organizer to show the major agencies and functions of the United Nations. Go to classzone.com for your research.

2. Revolutions in Italy and Germany

Until the 1800s, Italy and Germany were divided into many small city-states and principalities. Inhabitants of Italy and Germany, however, saw the benefits of living in a nation-state. They began to identify themselves as Italians and Germans, and started the process of unification.

Italian Unification Italy in the 1800s consisted of a mix of states ruled by various princes and the pope. The Austrian Empire controlled a large region in the northeast and dominated other states. The main goal of the unification movement was to gain independence from Austria, a struggle known as the *Risorgimento*, which means “Resurrection” or “Rising Again.”

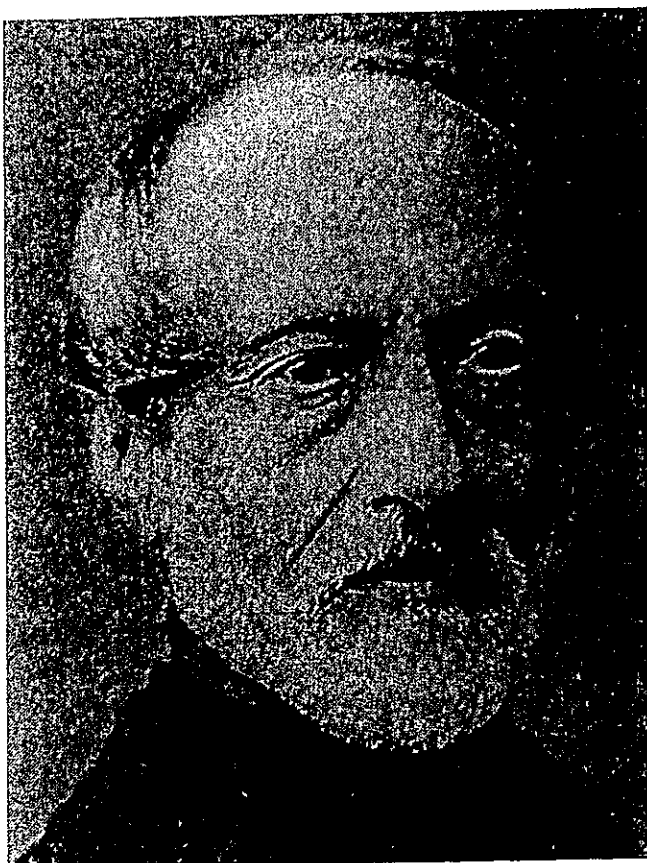
During the French Revolution and subsequent Napoleonic Wars, France took control of many Italian states from Austria. During this time, the Italian working class grew, and French ideas of nationalism spread into Italy. After Napoleon’s defeat, control of these states was returned to Austria. However, many Italians retained nationalistic ideas and wanted to free themselves from Austrian rule. Despite sharing a similar goal, there were disagreements over how a new unified Italy should be governed. Giuseppe Mazzini believed in a democratic society, where the working class felt a sense of nationalism and took control of the

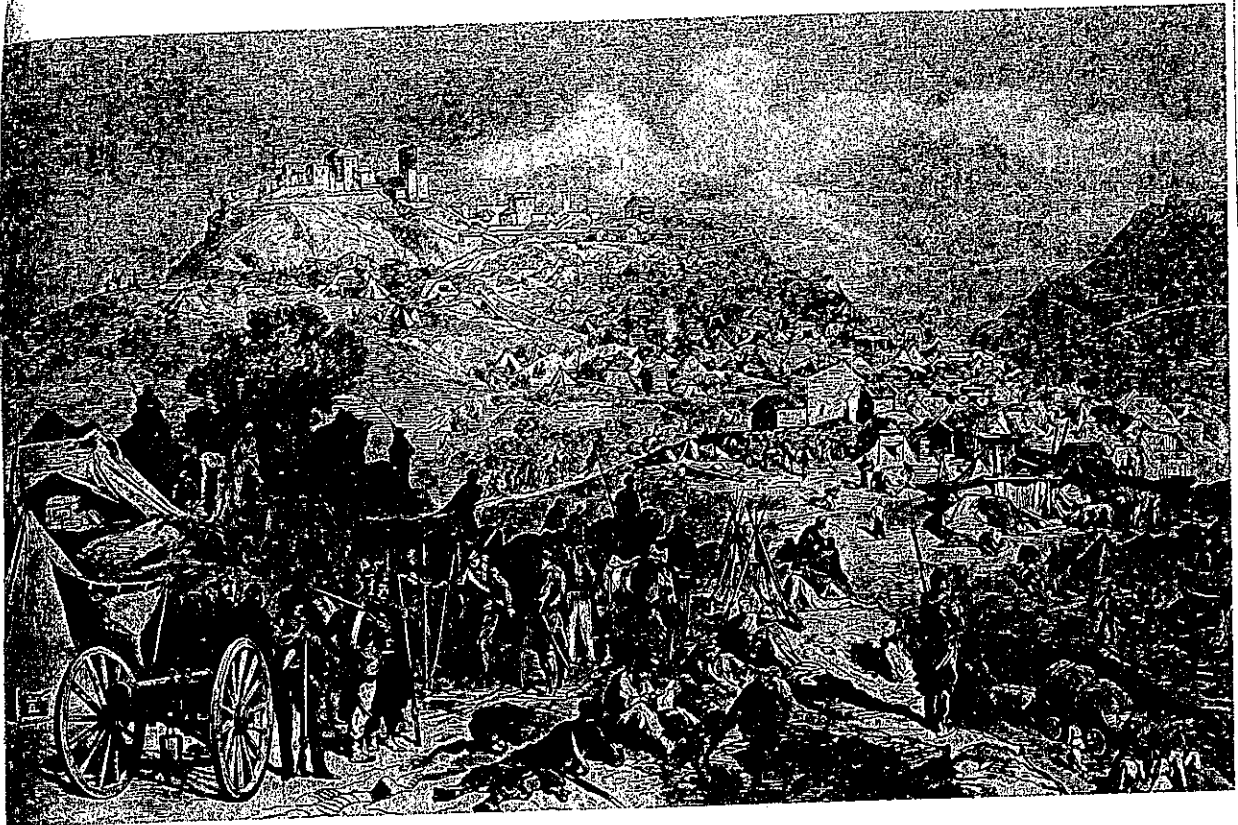
government. Others believed that the pope or the monarchs of Piedmont-Sardinia in northern Italy should assume control of a unified Italy.

In 1848, popular uprisings rocked major cities across much of Europe. In Italy, Mazzini and other republican reformers took over several states and announced the formation of a republic. Austrian armies, attempting to maintain control of Italy, and French armies, at the request of the pope, quickly moved in to extinguish the revolution. By 1850, Mazzini’s attempt at unifying Italy had failed.

After 1848, the Kingdom of Sardinia in northern Italy led the unification movement. It was the only constitutional monarchy in Italy. Its king, Victor Emmanuel II, and its prime minister, Camillo di Cavour, worked on a plan to oust Austria from Italy. In 1859, Sardinia secretly allied itself with France. It then provoked Austria, which threatened to take military action. France stepped in and, after three battles, secured a settlement with Austria—without consulting Cavour.

After Giuseppe Mazzini’s failed attempts at Italian unification, he exiled himself to avoid execution, a fate that many of his compatriots faced. He famously said, “Ideas ripen quickly when nourished by the blood of martyrs.”





The settlement left Austria in charge of the Italian state of Venetia. It also allowed rulers of states in central Italy to maintain their control. Sardinia moved to annex those states. It succeeded, but only after allowing their inhabitants to vote on the annexation. In 1860, the fighter and revolutionary Giuseppe Garibaldi led his army of red-shirted volunteers, known as the Thousand, into southern Italy. He conquered Naples and Sicily and, again after a vote, turned them over to Sardinia. Nearly all of Italy was now unified. In 1861, the first Italian parliament proclaimed Victor Emmanuel II the king of Italy. Complete unification came nine years later, after Venetia and papal Rome had been annexed.

German Unification German nationalists, too, sought greater unity after the 1848 revolutions that took place in major cities across Europe. They included a **liberal** middle class of business and factory owners—the bourgeoisie—who saw the need for a national market. Economic unity, however, would come only with political unity.

As in Italy, the Austrian Empire had long dominated the various German states. But Austria was growing weak. Prussia, the largest and strongest German state, which had once been constrained by the combined powers of Austria and other German states, took a leading role in the unification movement. Otto von Bismarck, Prussia's prime minister, wanted to expand Prussia's military influence and return it to a place of power in Europe.

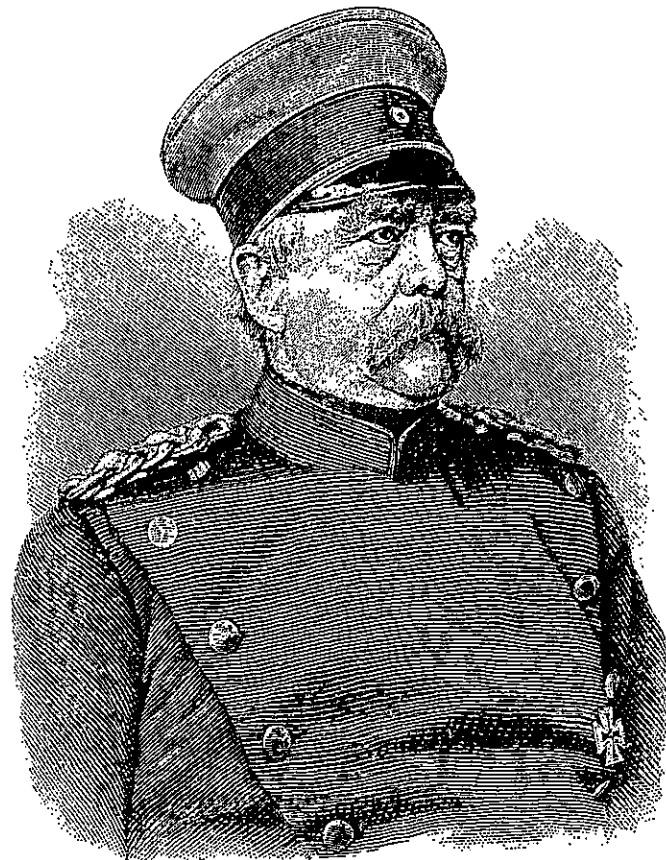
This drawing from 1860 shows the expedition of the Thousand in Sicily. This army of volunteers conquered the entire island of Sicily in less than three months.

In 1866, after defeating Austria in war, Prussia grew even larger and more powerful. By taking control of smaller German states that had joined Austria, Prussia was now in control of two-thirds of Germany's population and territory. In 1867, Prussia unified this territory as the North German Confederation.

Bismarck, although conservative, adopted the goal of national unification. To meet this goal, he needed a way to persuade the southern German states to unite with the northern states which were now under Prussian control. Bismarck believed that unification could only be achieved by "blood and iron."

Bismarck wanted to unify Germany through war, so he provoked France into declaring war on Prussia. By allowing France to declare war, Bismarck made France seem like the aggressors, which furthered the anti-French sentiments across northern and southern German states and ensured that other countries, such as Britain, would not interfere on behalf of France. The southern states joined with the North German Confederation in 1871. Together, they defeated France in the Franco-Prussian War after taking control of Paris. Bismarck gathered leaders of state from across Germany at the Palace of Versailles and established a unified German Empire, forever changing the balance of power in Europe.

Otto von Bismarck was the conservative and militaristic leader who led the movement for German national unification. He accomplished his goals using the might of his home state of Prussia.



3. Revolutions in East Asia

The late 1800s found two East Asian countries, China and Japan, moving in opposite directions. China, the traditional East Asian powerhouse, was steadily declining. Japan, on the other hand, was enjoying an economic and military revival. Japan owed its rise to a revolutionary restoration of the monarchy. China's political upheaval would come later, in the form of a republican revolution.

Meiji Japan In 1853, Japan received a "wake-up call" from the United States. It came in the form of a squadron of four warships, two powered by steam and two by the wind. The ships, commanded by Matthew Perry, arrived unannounced in a Japanese harbor. Their mission was to open Japan to trade and diplomatic relations. Perry completed his mission the following year, when Japan signed a treaty that allowed an American diplomat to reside in Japan and opened the door to trade. Other European powers began demanding similar privileges.

Perry's success revealed to the Japanese just how weak their country had become. The shogun—the dominant warlord and supreme ruler of Japan—lacked the military might to resist American demands. He could no longer preserve Japan's traditional isolation from the West (Europe and North America). That isolation may have helped keep Japan stable and peaceful, but it also prevented the country from moving forward into the modern age.

The shogun came under increasing pressure. Many Japanese blamed him for the unprecedented presence of "barbarian" diplomats and traders on Japanese soil. They also held him responsible for the woeful state of the Japanese military, especially its outmoded weaponry due to the industrial advances made in western countries. During the shogunate, Japan's emperor had remained a figurehead with only ceremonial power. Support for restoring imperial rule began to grow.

In 1867, rising contempt for the shogun boiled over into rebellion. The uprising succeeded in part because members of the main rebel group had learned how to make and use modern weapons. In 1868, the Meiji emperor officially ended the shogunate and took control of Japan. The return of power to the emperor, however, was just the start of a political revolution known as the Meiji Restoration.

Meiji reformers took steps to strengthen Japan using the West as a model. The reformers introduced Western technology, improved education, and modernized the economy. They embraced industrialization. They wrote a constitution, set up a representative government, and abolished the feudal system, which shifted power from local lords to the central government.



In 1853, four American warships commanded by Commodore Perry arrived in Japan. The mission succeeded in obtaining trading privileges from the traditionally isolationist Japanese. Many Japanese saw this as a sign of the weakness of their country. In this image, Commodore Perry is received by Japanese imperial representatives.

The new Meiji government adapted European military, bureaucratic, and educational techniques while also creating *zaibatsus*, a distinctly native form of business organization. *Zaibatsus* allowed large family-owned monopolies to control broad sectors of the economy.

Qing China Since ancient times, China had believed itself to be the center of the universe—the Middle Kingdom. Outsiders were considered “barbarians.” In the 1800s, however, China’s great civilization fell into decline. Foreign threats helped trigger internal clashes that threatened to tear the country apart.

In 1644, a non-Chinese people called the Manchus gained the Mandate of Heaven, or the divine right to rule, in China. They formed the Qing dynasty which maintained peace for nearly two centuries. During this time, China allowed European Christian missionaries to bring their religion into China. It also engaged in foreign trade through a single port, Guangzhou.

At Guangzhou, foreign merchants bought Chinese tea, silks, and porcelains. But China neither needed nor wanted much that the Europeans could offer—except opium. The British brought this highly addictive drug, grown in its colony in India, to China where Chinese smugglers snuck it into the country. In 1840, after China cracked down on the opium trade, the British sent warships to China. In the Opium Wars that followed, the British navy proved too powerful for the poorly armed Chinese forces. In 1842, Britain secured a treaty with China that opened several Chinese ports to trade. Soon, other European powers demanded and gained access to these treaty ports.

This 1858 print from a British newspaper shows a battle during the Opium Wars. British forces proved too powerful for the Chinese, and they conceded access to trading ports to the British.



The inability of the Qing dynasty to restrain foreign powers or to improve economic conditions led to an uprising known as the Taiping Rebellion. The Taiping movement, which arose in the south, was loosely based on Christian teachings. It called for the redistribution of land to the peasants, equality of the sexes, and other social changes that threatened to undermine Chinese tradition. Starting in 1853, thousands of peasants joined the rebellion and marched, as an army, northward.

The rebels captured several cities along the way, including the former capital of Nanjing, and added many more people to their cause. Fanatics in battle, they slaughtered all who opposed them. After more than a decade of fighting, the Manchus—with help from Europeans and their advanced arms—ended the rebellion. Tens of thousands of Taiping rebels were killed in the retaking of Nanjing in 1864.

Another peasant movement, this time in northern China, arose from a group calling itself the Righteous Harmonious Fists, known as the Boxers in the West. The goal of what became known as the **Boxer Rebellion** was to rid China of foreigners, especially Christian missionaries and their converts. The Qing government, frustrated by years of European abuse, encouraged the movement. Peasants, suffering from a long drought, swelled the Boxer ranks, and in June 1900, they marched on the capital, Beijing. Western troops moved in to protect their diplomats, and when the Qing threw its support behind the Boxers, eight foreign powers sent in a much larger military force. This small army ended the siege of the capital. Later, the Qing reversed course, helping the foreign powers end the rebellion.



The Boxer Rebellion was defeated by a combined force of eight foreign powers. In the print above, British and Japanese forces engage with the Boxer rebels.

After the Boxer Rebellion, the Manchus instituted some reforms. They supplied China's army with modern weapons. They built railroads and boosted industry. They also promised to move toward a constitutional government. For some Chinese, they did not move fast enough. At this point, China had been attempting to industrialize for decades, but with little success. China still relied on other nations to supply them with industrial technology. The lack of industrialization had been a factor in the earlier revolutions in China, and even now the Manchus seemed unable to move toward industry.

Lesson Summary

In this lesson, you read about the impact of the Industrial Revolution on global revolutions. The Industrial Revolution allowed for greater connections and the development of national identity among divided nations, sparking revolutions in Europe and Asia.

Cultural Interaction The Industrial Revolution created new connections, particularly between the working classes of Europe and Asia. Nationalist ideas of self-government and national identity spread across many nations, in part due to France's military actions. The ideals of the Industrial Revolution and nationalism helped spark revolutions in Italy, Germany, Japan, and China.

Political Structures A key ideal of the nationalist movement is self-government. Revolutions inspired by nationalism replaced monarchies with representative political systems. Another source of revolution was a lack of industrialization.

Social Structures Economic inequality increased with the Industrial Revolution, as the means of production became privately owned and too expensive for most workers. This led to rising tensions among social classes, and was a major factor for many political revolutions of the time.

CHAPTER 3: IMPERIALISM

SECTION 1:

Pressures for Expansion

Setting the Scene

- ▶ **Terms to Define**
imperialism, colony, protectorate, sphere of influence
- ▶ **People to Meet**
Cecil Rhodes, Rudyard Kipling
- ▶ **Places to Locate**
Algeria, Australia, New Zealand, Rhodesia (Zimbabwe)

Find Out What were the political, economic, and social causes of imperialism?

The Storyteller

In India, British schools taught English and required students to adopt Christianity. The wife of a British official described attending a graduation ceremony in the year 1886. "The proceedings began with a hymn. The children sang pretty well, though in a harsh voice.... Then a boy stood up, put his hands together, and repeated the Lord's Prayer. Others followed him, and then Mr.

Summers [the teacher] read a chapter from the Old Testament about Adam and Eve.... We could just tell he was speaking of the various nations—English, Parsee, [Muslim], Hindu, all came from Adam and Eve, we were all one family here."

—adapted from *An Indian Journal*, Nora Scott, 1994

Indians and British



The term imperialism is a Latin word from the days of the Roman Empire. **Imperialism** means one country's domination of the political, economic, and social life of another country. About 2,000 years ago, imperial Rome controlled most of the Mediterranean world. By the end of the 1800s, a handful of European countries, together with the United States, controlled nearly the entire world. Not surprisingly, the era between 1800 and 1914 has come to be known as the Age of Imperialism.

The imperialism of the 1800s resulted from three key factors. First, nationalism prompted rival European nations to build empires in their competitive quests for power. Second, the Industrial Revolution created a tremendous demand for raw materials and expanded markets, which prompted industrialized nations to seek new territories. Finally, both religious fervor and feelings of racial and cultural superiority inspired Europeans to impose their cultures on distant lands.

Political Rivalries

In the mid-1800s European countries saw themselves as actors on the world stage, and each country wanted to play a starring role. If Great Britain started a small colony in distant Asia or Africa, France had to start one too—and so did Belgium, Germany, Italy, Holland, Spain, Portugal, and Russia.

Once begun, the quest for colonies became a continuing enterprise that seemed to have no limits. Slow and difficult communication between remote territories and European capitals often enabled colonial governors and generals to take matters into their own hands. If a colony's borders did not provide military security, for instance, military officials



Visualizing History

In this cartoon Bismarck (representing Germany), John Bull (representing Great Britain), and Uncle Sam (representing the United States) decide the fate of Samoa. What phrase described Great Britain's vast overseas holdings?

based in the colony used their armies to expand the colony's borders. This strategy worked well enough until colonial governments started claiming the same territories. Then new conflicts arose, and European troops found themselves facing off on remote battlefields in Africa and Asia.

Desire for New Markets

The Industrial Revolution of the 1800s knew no borders. Factories in Europe and the United States consumed tons of raw materials and churned out thousands of manufactured goods. The owners and operators of these factories searched constantly for new sources of raw materials and new markets for their products. They hoped to find both in foreign lands.

Rubber, copper, and gold came from Africa, cotton and jute from India, and tin from Southeast Asia. These raw materials spurred the growth of European and American industries and financial markets, but they represented only the tip of the iceberg. Bananas, oranges, melons, and other exotic fruits made their way to European markets. People in Paris, London, and Berlin drank colonial tea, coffee, and cocoa with their meals and washed themselves with soap made from African palm oil.

The colonies also provided new markets for the finished products of the Industrial Revolution. Tools, weapons, and clothing flowed out of the factories and back to the colonies whose raw materials had made them possible.

Seeking New Opportunities

Imperialism involved more than just guns, battles, raw materials, and manufactured goods. Colonies needed people who were loyal to the imperialist country. Great Britain, France, and Germany needed British, French, and German citizens to run their newly acquired territories and keep them productive.

Throughout the 1800s European leaders urged their citizens to move to far-off colonies. Many of them responded. In the 1840s, for example, thousands of French citizens sailed across the Mediterranean Sea to Algeria, where they started farms and estates on lands seized from local Algerian farmers.

The British, meanwhile, emigrated to the far corners of the globe, hoping to find opportunities not available at home. Many rushed to Australia and New Zealand in the 1850s in search of gold. As the British government continued to acquire vast tracts of land in Africa, Asia, and the Pacific, the phrase "the sun never sets on the British Empire" became a popular way of describing Great Britain's vast holdings.

Strong-minded individuals saw emigration as a chance to strike it rich or make a name for themselves. Perhaps the most spectacular success story of the era belonged to Cecil Rhodes; a British adventurer who made a fortune from gold and diamond mining in southern Africa. Rhodes went on to found a colony that bore his name: Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe).

“Civilizing” Mission

Some emigrants had motives that went beyond mere personal glory and profit. Religious and humanitarian impulses inspired many individuals to leave their secure lives at home and head for the distant colonies. The desire to spread Western technology, religion, customs and traditions also fueled colonial expansion.

During the Age of Imperialism, growing numbers of Catholic and Protestant missionaries decided to bring the Christian message to the most remote corners of Africa and Asia. Over the decades they set up hundreds of Christian missions and preached to thousands of Africans and Asians throughout these two continents. Like many other Europeans and Americans of this period, these missionaries believed that Christianity and Western civilization together could benefit and transform the world.

The missionaries were not military conquerors, but they did try to change people’s beliefs and practices. They believed that, in order to become “civilized,” the people of Africa and Asia would have to reject their old religions and convert to Christianity. To achieve this goal, missionaries built churches and taught Christian doctrine. Missionaries often set up schools and hospitals as well.

Other Europeans also believed that Western civilization was superior to the civilizations of colonial peoples. As a result, colonial officials tried to impose Western customs and traditions on the people they conquered. These officials insisted that their colonial subjects learn European languages, and they encouraged Western lifestyles as well. They also discouraged colonial peoples from practicing traditional customs and rituals.

Some Europeans seized on the theory of social Darwinism as proof of their cultural superiority. This theory adapted Darwin’s ideas about the evolution of animals—particularly his notion of “the survival of the fittest”—to explain differences among human beings. Social Darwinists believed

that white Europeans were the “fittest” people in the world and that Western nations had a duty to spread Western ideas and traditions to “backward” peoples living overseas.

In 1899 the British writer **Rudyard Kipling** captured the essence of the imperialist attitude in his famous poem “The White Man’s Burden.” Kipling addressed the poem to the United States, which at this time had just begun to acquire and govern colonies of its own:

“Take up the White Man’s burden—
Send forth the best ye breed—
Go bind your sons to exile
To serve your captives’ need;
To wait in heavy harness
On fluttered folk and wild—
Your new-caught, sullen peoples,
Half-devil and half-child.”

Forms of Imperialism

Imperialist nations used a variety of means to gain new land. Sometimes they made treaties with the people who lived there. Sometimes they bought the land from another imperialist country. More often than not, however, they simply conquered the area with military force.

Imperialists used several types of territorial control. The first of these, a colony, was a territory that an imperialist power ruled directly. A protectorate had its own government, but officials of a foreign power guided its policies, particularly in foreign affairs. A sphere of influence was a region of a country in which an imperialist power held exclusive investment or trading rights.

The type of government an imperialist power chose for a region depended on the size of the area and the number of people living there. The main idea behind all three forms of imperialism was to give the imperialists firm control over the conquered territory.

SECTION I REVIEW

Recall

1. **Define** imperialism, colony, protectorate, sphere of influence.
2. **Identify** Cecil Rhodes, Rudyard Kipling.

3. **List** five raw materials that imperialists took from their colonies. What did they send to these colonies?

Critical Thinking

4. **Evaluate** What does the Kipling

poem reveal about his attitude toward Africans and Asians?

Understanding Themes

5. **Movement** Explain the main reasons for the growth of imperialism in the 1800s.

Section 2

The Partition of Africa

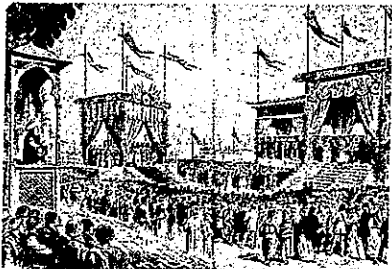
Setting the Scene

- ▶ **Terms to Define**
partition
- ▶ **People to Meet**
David Livingstone, Abd al-Qadir, Muhammad Ali, Samory Touré, Menelik II, the Afrikaners, Shaka
- ▶ **Places to Locate**
Morocco, Egypt, the Sudan, Liberia, Ethiopia, Union of South Africa

Find Out What effects did imperialism have on the continent of Africa?

The Storyteller

An eyewitness to the opening ceremonies for the Suez Canal reported: "Fireworks in front of the Viceroy's Palace. Open house everywhere.... Luxurious dinners, vintage wines, exquisite fish, partridges, wild duck. Seven or eight thousand people sitting down to dinner in the middle of the desert. It was like something out of the Arabian Nights.... At last I got back to my houseboat....



Opening of
Suez Canal

All through the night I could hear the noise of the fair—the sound of music, the banging of fireworks, and the shouting of happy revelers."

—adapted from *World Ditch, The Making of the Suez Canal*, John Marlowe, 1964

Until the 1800s Europeans knew little of Africa beyond its northern, western, and southern coasts. Then, in the mid-1800s, a few brave explorers began to venture into the African interior. The most famous of these was Scottish doctor and missionary David Livingstone, who first went to Africa in 1840. For the next 30 years, Livingstone explored wide tracts of central and eastern Africa, setting up Christian missions and sending back to Great Britain detailed reports of his discoveries.

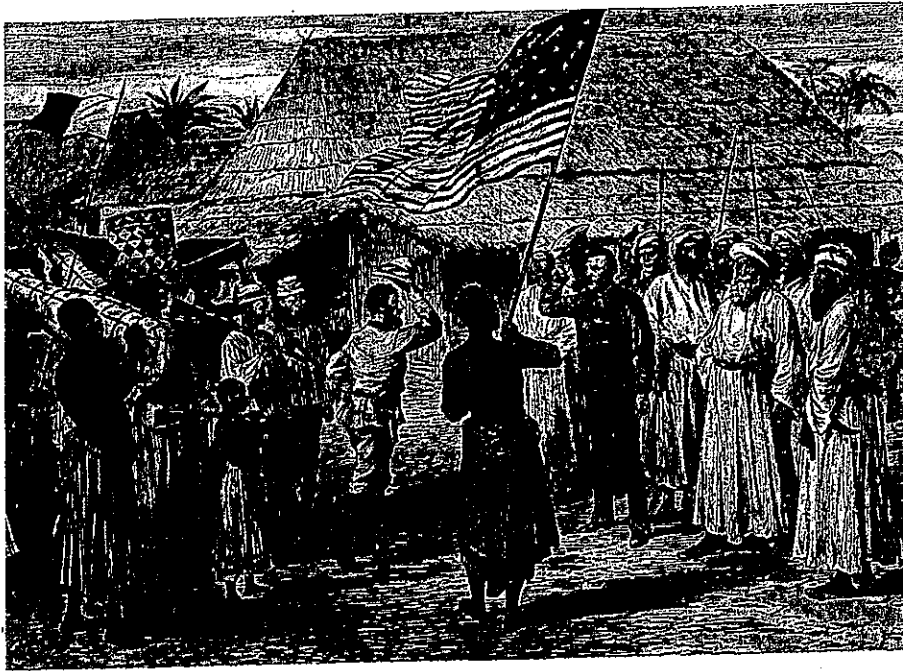
When Europeans temporarily lost touch with Livingstone late in the 1860s, the *New York Herald* hired a British journalist and explorer named Henry M. Stanley to track him down. Their famous meeting in 1871 is best remembered for Stanley's understated greeting, "Dr. Livingstone, I presume?" With help from European financial backers, Stanley went on to lead several major expeditions through central Africa himself.

The publicity surrounding the explorations of Livingstone and Stanley generated new interest in Africa throughout Europe. This interest swelled when subsequent explorers sent back excited reports about the continent's abundance of resources. Reports such as these helped set off a mad European scramble for Africa between 1880 and 1914. One European country after another laid claim to parts of Africa. In 1885, 14 nations met in Berlin, Germany, and agreed to **partition**, or divide, the prize King Leopold II of Belgium called "this magnificent African cake." By 1914 European nations controlled 90 percent of the continent.

↳ +called The Berlin Conference

North Africa

The world's largest desert—the Sahara—stretches across North Africa from the Atlantic



**Visualizing
History**

British explorer
Sir Henry

Morton Stanley finds missionary
David Livingstone in Africa. What
ended Britain's imperialist dispute
with France over the Sudan?

Ocean to the Red Sea. Most of the people in North Africa live on a thin strip of land located north of the Sahara along the Mediterranean coast. Here the land is fertile and the climate mild. In the early 1800s Muslim Arabs under the authority of the Ottoman ruler governed the large territories west of Egypt, which at that time were called Tripoli, Tunis, Algiers, and Morocco. Today Tripoli, Tunis, and Algiers are the North African countries of Libya, Tunisia, and Algeria.

The French in North Africa

In 1830 King Charles X of France ordered an invasion of Algiers with the aim of colonizing that country. French troops encountered stiff resistance from the native Algerians, whose leader was Abd al-Qadir (AB•duhl KAH•duhr). About 10 years passed before 100,000 French soldiers finally subdued the determined Algerians.

After conquering Algiers, the French went on to seize neighboring Tunis in 1881 and secured special rights in Morocco by 1905. About 1 million French people settled in North Africa during these years of struggle.

Britain and Egypt

During the early 1800s, Egypt was an independent kingdom under a ruler named Muhammad Ali. Hoping to build Egypt into a strong, modern state, Ali carried out many building projects with European assistance. Egypt's debts rose, however, and European political and economic influence in the country increased.

Between 1859 and 1869, a French company headed by Ferdinand de Lesseps built the Suez

Canal. Cutting through Egyptian territory to connect the Mediterranean Sea and the Red Sea, the canal was a vital shortcut between Europe and Asia. During the next 10 years, Egypt sold some of its holdings in the canal company to Great Britain to pay off its debts.

Egypt's worsening financial situation eventually provided Great Britain with an excuse to intervene militarily. In 1882 a British force moved into Egypt. It defeated an Egyptian army led by the nationalist leader Ahmed Arabi. After this victory, Egypt became a British protectorate.

Having subdued Egypt, the British looked southward to a region called the Sudan. In 1898 British forces defeated the Sudanese at the battle of Omdurman. No sooner was the battle over than the British learned of a rapidly advancing French force that also was laying claim to the Sudan. The two armies met at the Sudanese town of Fashoda, where for several weeks they stared at each other across the Nile. An imperialist dispute had brought Great Britain and France to the brink of war. In the end, the French withdrew their army and their Sudanese claim when the British recognized French control of Morocco.

Italy Seizes Libya

Libya lies between Egypt on the east and Algeria and Tunisia on the west. Known as Tripoli in the late 1800s, the country had almost no economic value, but it was coveted by Italy, the nearest European nation. Having entered the imperialist race late, however, Italy was eager to establish an African empire. After seeking guarantees of neutrality from several other European nations, Italy in 1911 declared war on the Ottoman Empire, which

controlled Tripoli. Italy easily defeated the Ottoman Turks and took Tripoli as a colony, renaming it Libya. Libya was the last country in North Africa to be conquered by Europeans.

Dividing Sub-Saharan Africa

Sub-Saharan Africa consists of all the land between the Sahara and the southern tip of the continent. It is an immensely varied land of mountains and plains, deserts and rain forests. In the 1800s it was home to dozens of kingdoms and states, each of which had its own rich and complicated history. The imperialist powers of Europe swallowed up most of these small countries in the late 1800s.

West Africa

As early as the 1400s, Portuguese sailors had explored the west coast of Africa. During the next hundred years, the Portuguese, Dutch, British, and French set up trading posts and forts along the coast. By the 1600s these outposts had become the center of a booming transatlantic slave trade.

Although the West African states traded salt, gold, and iron wares, they were also involved in the slave trade. Their economies declined rapidly when key European countries abolished the slave trade in the early 1800s. They then began to rely on cash crops such as cotton and cacao beans. They also exchanged natural products such as palm oil, ivory, and rubber for European manufactured goods.

In an effort to control this trade, and with the further aim of expanding their coastal possessions, European nations began to push inland in the 1870s. By 1900 the French had conquered a vast territory they called French West Africa. During this same period, the British acquired the Gold Coast, the kingdom of Ashanti, and parts of Nigeria. While Spain and Portugal expanded older claims, Germany staked out new colonies in the region.

European expansion in West Africa, however, did not go unchallenged. In the 1890s, Samory Touré (sah•MOHR•ree too•RAY), ruler of a kingdom centered in present-day Senegal, led armies against the French who had seized control of land. Another African ruler, King Behanzin of the coastal state of Dahomey, also battled French forces. In the Gold Coast, the Ashanti stubbornly resisted British expansion. All of these African efforts, however, were defeated by well-armed European forces. By the early 1900s, many West Africans had reluctantly accepted agreements with European powers that gave them some limited self-rule under European supervision.

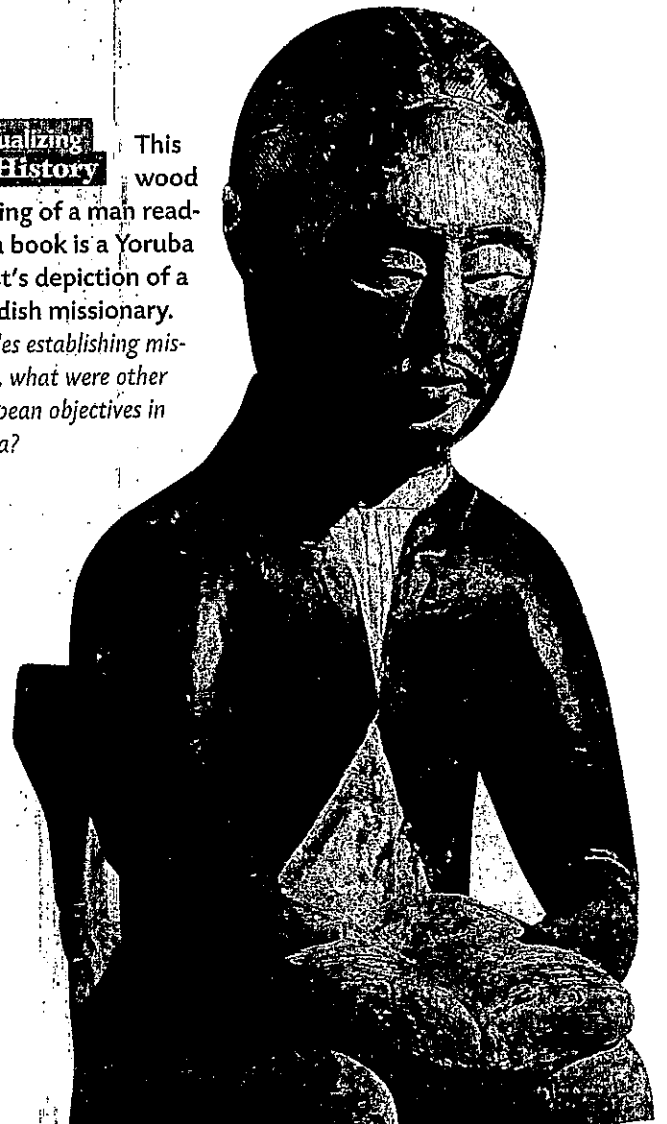
At this time, Liberia was the only remaining independent state in West Africa. Established in 1822 by freed Americans who were once enslaved, Liberia had become an independent republic in 1847. The support Liberia received from the United States discouraged European powers from attempting to seize it as a colony.

Central and East Africa

In 1877 the explorer Henry M. Stanley reached the mouth of the Congo River. He later described the river as a "grand highway of commerce to ... Central Africa." As a result of Stanley's exploration, Belgium's King Leopold II claimed the Congo region as his own private plantation. He enslaved the Congolese people and had them cut down forests for rubber trees and kill elephant herds for ivory tusks. In pursuing his ambitions, Leopold stripped the Congo of many people and resources.

Leopold's brutal control of the Congo lasted about 20 years, despite the world's outrage. In 1908 he finally agreed to give his plantation to the Belgian government in return for a large loan. Thus,

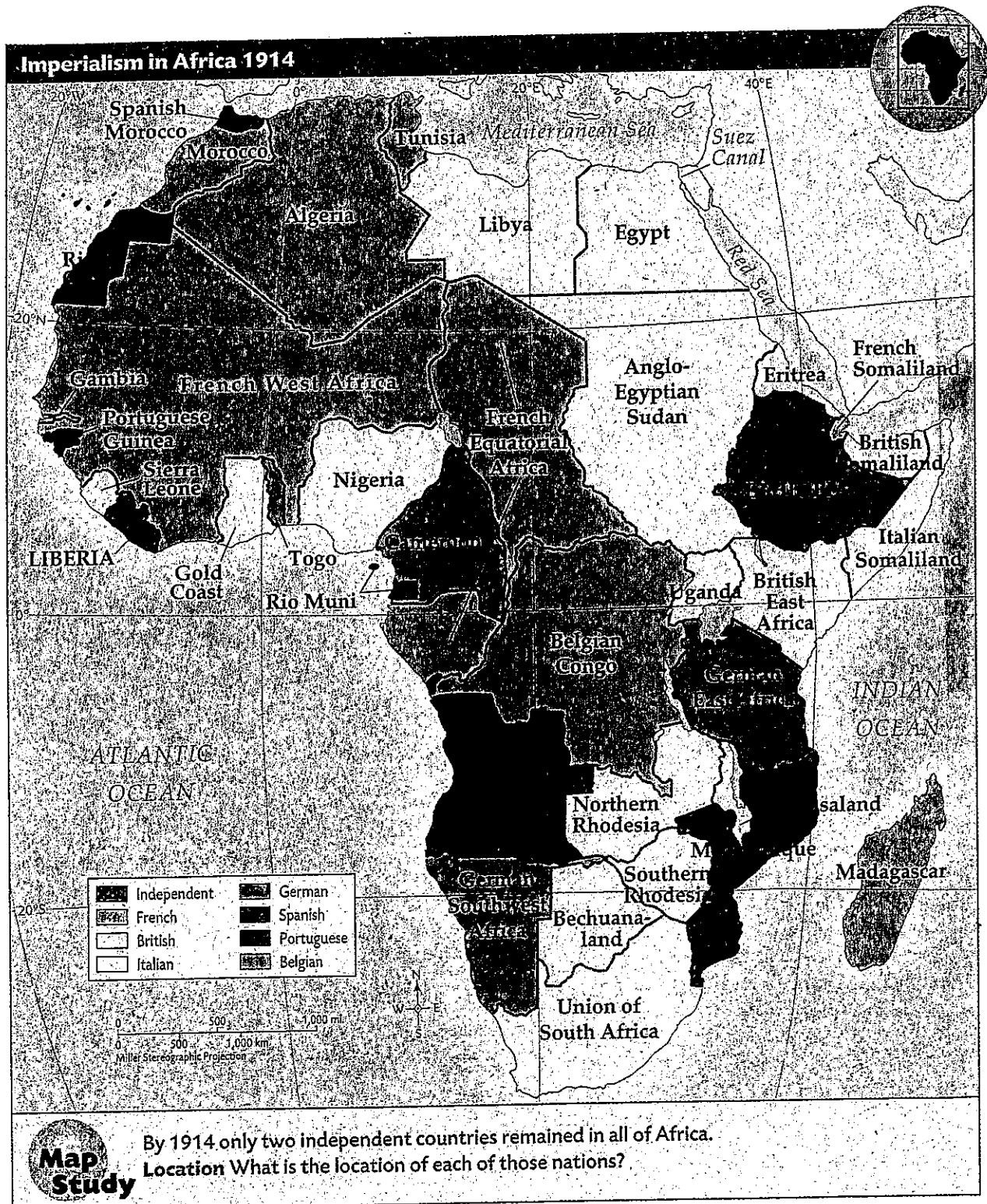
Visualizing History This wood carving of a man reading a book is a Yoruba artist's depiction of a Swedish missionary. Besides establishing missions, what were other European objectives in Africa?



in that year, the Congo region owned by Leopold became the Belgian Congo.

While the Belgians were claiming the Congo Basin, the British, the Germans, and the Italians were doing the same in East Africa. The only country in East Africa to remain independent during this period was Ethiopia, located in a remote region

known as the Horn of Africa. Beginning in the 1880s, Italy tried to conquer this country, but the Italians underestimated the determination of their opponent, Ethiopia's Emperor **Menelik II**. As emperor, Menelik had conquered many small kingdoms and succeeded in reunifying the Ethiopian Empire.





Vital History

King Menelik is shown here with his chiefs. How did Ethiopia's emperor prevent Italy and other nations from establishing imperialist control of Ethiopia?

When the Italians attacked Ethiopia in 1896, Menelik's well-trained forces crushed the invaders at the battle of Adowa. His victory was so devastating that no Europeans dared invade his country again during his lifetime. Ethiopia and Liberia were the only two African nations to escape European domination completely during the Age of Imperialism.

Southern Africa

Dutch settlers came to southern Africa in 1652 and established the port of Cape Town. For the next 150 years the Afrikaners, as these settlers came to be called, conquered the lands around the port. The lands they eventually acquired became known as Cape Colony.

Before construction of the Suez Canal, the quickest sea route to Asia from Europe was around the Cape of Good Hope at the southern tip of Africa. Sensing the strategic value of Cape Colony, the British seized it during the Napoleonic Wars in the early 1800s. The Afrikaners resented British rule, particularly laws that forbade the enslaving of black Africans. The white Afrikaners believed that they were superior to black Africans and that God had ordained slavery.

In the 1830s about 10,000 Afrikaners, whom the British called Boers (the Dutch word for "farmers"), decided to leave Cape Colony rather than live under British rule. In a move known as the Great Trek, the Afrikaners migrated northeast into the interior. Here they established two independent republics, the Transvaal and the Orange Free State. The constitution of the Transvaal stated, "There shall be no equality in State or Church between white and black."

The Afrikaners fought constantly with their neighbors. First they battled the powerful Zulu

nation for control of the land. Under their king Shaka, the Zulu in the early 1800s had conquered a large empire in southern Africa. The Zulu and Boers were unable to win a decisive victory. Finally, in 1879, the British became involved in battles with the Zulu. Under their king, Cetywayo, the Zulu first defeated British forces. With superior weapons and numbers, however, the British eventually destroyed the Zulu Empire.

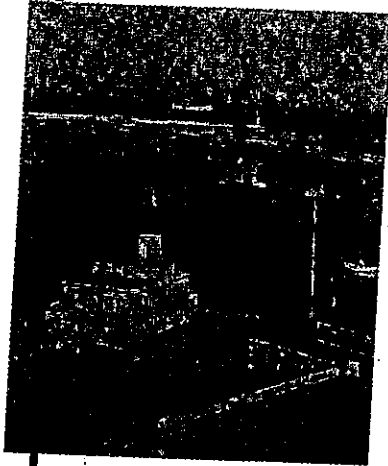
Conflict also developed between the British and the Boers. During the 1880s, British settlers moved into the Boer-ruled Transvaal in search of gold and diamonds. Eager to acquire this mineral wealth for Great Britain, Cecil Rhodes—now prime minister of Cape Colony—and some other British leaders wanted all of South Africa to come under British rule. They began pressuring the Boers to grant civil rights to the British settlers in the Transvaal. Growing hostility between the British and the Boers finally erupted in 1899 into the Anglo-Boer War, which the British won three years later.

In 1910 Great Britain united the Transvaal, the Orange Free State, Cape Colony, and Natal into the Union of South Africa. The constitution of this British dominion made it nearly impossible for nonwhites to win the right to vote. As one black African writer of the time said, "The Union is to be a Union of two races, namely the British and the Afrikaners—the African is to be excluded."

Racial equality became a dominant issue in South African affairs after the formation of the Union. Several nonwhite South African groups tried to advance their civil rights against the white minority government. Mohandas K. Gandhi, a lawyer from India, worked for equality for Indians in South Africa. He urged the Indians to disobey laws that discriminated against them. Gandhi's efforts brought some additional rights for the Indian community.

Coastal Trading Centers

West African Port



"The king of the white people wishes to find out a way by which we may bring our own merchandise to you and sell everything at a much cheaper rate," said British explorer Mungo Park to a West African king in 1805. Park was interested in the possibilities of trade on the Niger River.

Like the other great rivers of Africa—the Congo, the Nile, and the Zambezi—the Niger flows to the sea. To the European traders of the 1800s, few places were more important than the mouth of a river. These were the only places where the large trading ships could unload European manufactured goods in exchange for African raw materials.

At the mouth of the Niger in the late 1800s, trade centered on palm oil. The British used the oil for making soap. Barrels of the precious oil were floated down the Niger and collected at depots, or ports, with names like Calabar and Port Harcourt.

Today these ports are growing cities that draw people from all parts of Nigeria. Port Harcourt now has a population of 400,000 inhabitants, while Calabar has about 160,000. Both ports still provide oil to the world, but today it is crude oil, the lifeblood of the world's industries and transport.

MAKING THE CONNECTION

1. What was Mungo Park interested in doing in Africa?
2. Why did the mouths of African rivers become centers for trade with Europeans?

South Africa's black majority also was stirred into action against racial injustices. In 1912 black South Africans founded the South African Native National Congress (SANNC). The SANNC's goal was to work for black rights in South Africa. In 1923 the SANNC shortened its name to the African National Congress (ANC).

Effects of Imperialism

Imperialism had profound and lasting effects on the African continent. These effects varied from colony to colony, but they centered mainly on economic and social life.

The imperialists profited from the colonies by digging mines, starting plantations, and building factories and ports. They hired Africans at extremely low wages and imposed taxes that had to be paid in cash. Men were often housed in dormitories away from their families and subjected to brutal discipline.

Although schools were few, they taught Africans that European ways were best. Missionaries taught them to reject African customs and beliefs. Africans learned to read European books and to wear European clothes. Under some colonial governments, entire villages broke up, families came apart, and ancient traditions withered and disappeared.

SECTION 2 REVIEW

Recall

1. **Define** partition.
2. **Identify** David Livingstone, Abd al-Qadir, Muhammad Ali, Samory Touré, Menelik II, the Afrikaners, Shaka.
3. **Locate** the countries of North

Africa on the map on page 710. What geographical feature separates these countries from the rest of Africa?

Critical Thinking

4. **Analyzing Information** How did British attitudes toward

black Africans differ from those of the Afrikaners? Find evidence to support your answers.

Understanding Themes

5. **Change** What were the main causes and effects of the European partition of Africa?

Section 3

The Division of Asia

Setting the Scene

► Terms to Define

sepoj, viceroy, sphere of influence, culture system, westernization

► People to Meet

Ci Xi, Sun Yat-sen, Matthew C. Perry, Mutsuhito, Diponegoro

► Places to Locate

Beijing, the East Indies, the Philippines, Indochina

Find Out

How did the countries of Asia respond to imperialism?

The Storyteller

"Until the year 1924 I was the only foreigner privileged to witness and to participate in the great ceremonies...." So wrote Reginald Johnston, Professor of Chinese at the University of London, and witness to the end of an empire in the "Palace of Cloudless Heaven" within the Forbidden City. "It was not without difficulty that even the emperor was able to ... invite a few 'ocean-men' to witness the New Year ceremonial which took place on February 5, 1924. It turned out to be the last occasion on which the ceremony was performed.

Before another year had passed, the life of the Manchu court had come to an end."

—adapted from *Twilight in the Forbidden City*, Reginald F. Johnston, 1934



China's Forbidden City

In his book *Description of the World*, written in 1298, Italian explorer Marco Polo relates the many stories he heard about Zipangu, an East Asian island with a supposedly inexhaustible supply of gold. Polo never did visit Zipangu, now called Japan, but his description of its imagined treasures, and of the Asian riches he did see, inspired generations of Europeans. They looked eastward to Asia, dreaming of wealth.

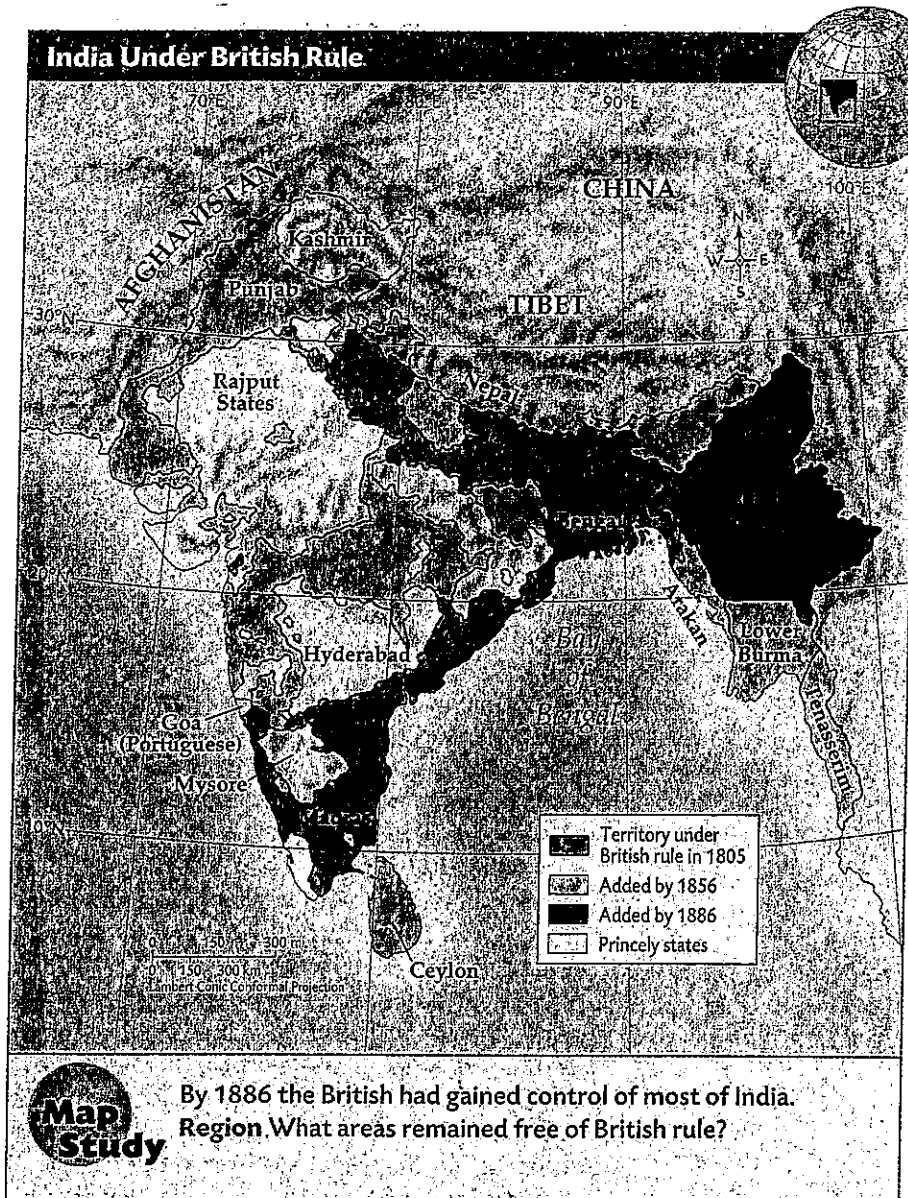
The British in India

European trade with Asia opened up in the 1500s as sea routes began to replace the difficult overland route Marco Polo had taken. British involvement in India dates back to this period, when English traders first sailed along India's coast. In 1600 some of these traders banded together and formed the East India Company. It later became one of the richest and most powerful trading companies the world has ever known.

After its founding the East India Company built trading posts and forts in strategic locations throughout India. The French East India Company did the same and challenged the British for control of the India trade. In 1757 the British defeated French-trained Indian forces at the battle of Plassey. During the next hundred years, the British expanded their territory in India through wars and commercial activity.

The Sepoy Rebellion

As a result of steady expansion, the East India Company came to control most of India by 1857. Their power was tested that year, however, when the **sepoys**, or Indian soldiers, rebelled against their British commanders. Long before the greased bullet rumor discussed at this chapter's beginning triggered the Indian Revolt of 1857, sepoj resentment had been growing over British attempts to impose Christianity and European customs on them.



telegraph lines and dug irrigation canals; and it established schools and universities.

At the same time, British colonial officials discriminated against Indians and forced them to change their ancient ways, often with tragic results. Indian farmers, for example, were told to grow cotton instead of wheat, because British textile mills needed cotton. The lack of wheat then led to severe food shortages that killed millions of Indians during the 1800s.

Outraged by the food shortages and other problems, many Indians demanded more power for Indian leaders. In 1885 some of them formed the Indian National Congress, a political group that eventually led the long struggle for Indian independence. Continued protests and scattered violence led to a few political reforms, but at the beginning of the 1900s Great Britain still held India firmly in its grasp.

The Indian Revolt of 1857 lasted for about a year. Although the uprising failed, it forced the British government to tighten its control of India. In 1858 the British Parliament dissolved the East India Company and sent a viceroy, or governor ruling as a royal representative, to take over the company's territory. A viceroy soon won the loyalty of the few remaining independent Indian states by signing agreements with their rulers. In 1877 British Prime Minister Disraeli conferred upon Queen Victoria the title "Empress of India."

Indian Nationalism

The British government tried to quell further unrest in India by spending vast amounts of money on India's economic development. It built paved roads and an extensive railway system; it installed

Southeast Asia

Southeast Asia consists of two distinct geographic areas. Island Southeast Asia is made of two archipelagos, or groups of islands: the **East Indies** and the **Philippines**. To the north and west lies mainland Southeast Asia. It includes all of the territories that occupy the Indochinese and Malay Peninsulas.

The growth of imperialism in these areas followed a familiar pattern. Beginning in the 1500s, imperialist powers came, saw, and conquered. Over the next 400 years Portugal, Spain, the Netherlands, Great Britain, France, and the United States all set up colonies in that region. They ranged in size from the huge Dutch East Indies that included thousands of islands to the tiny British settlements on the island of Singapore.

The Islands of Southeast Asia

For centuries, the island region of Southeast Asia had attracted foreign traders and colonizers. At the beginning of the 1800s, the Dutch controlled most of the East Indies and Spain controlled the Philippines.

The Dutch East Indies, present-day Indonesia, had many natural resources, including rich soil. Farmers grew coffee, pepper, cinnamon, sugar, indigo, and tea; miners dug for tin and copper; loggers cut down ebony, teak, and other hardwood trees. The Dutch government used a method of forced labor called the culture system to gather all these raw materials. The Dutch also discouraged westernization, or the spread of European civilization. The enormous profits the Dutch received from the East Indies made the colony the envy of the imperialist powers.

Diponegoro, a native prince from the East Indian island of Java, started a revolt against the Dutch in 1825. Although it lasted 10 years, this revolt eventually ended in failure, and the Dutch encountered little real opposition for the next 80 years. One of the Dutch governors put it this way: "We have ruled here for 300 years with the whip and the club and we shall still be doing it in another 300 years."

The Spanish rule of the Philippines resembled the Dutch rule of the Dutch East Indies. Native Filipinos worked for very low wages, if any, on tobacco and sugar plantations owned by wealthy Spaniard landowners. During the 1800s the Filipinos' resentment grew until it finally exploded into revolution in 1896.

When the United States declared war on Spain in 1898, the American government promised to

make the Philippines an independent country in return for the rebels' help against the Spanish. When the United States won the Spanish-American War later that year, however, it broke its promise and instead ruled the Philippines as a colony. The Filipinos then arose against American rule, but United States troops defeated them two years later.

Mainland Southeast Asia

The mainland region of Southeast Asia consisted of several large territories in the early 1800s, including Burma (Myanmar) and Malaya in the west, Vietnam in the east, and Siam (Thailand), Cambodia, and Laos in the middle. All through the 1800s, the British and French struggled for domination of the area, more for military than for economic reasons.

The British swept into Burma from India in the 1820s. Over the next 60 years, they took full control of Burma and neighboring Malaya. Meanwhile, the French were slowly conquering Indochina, the

region that includes present-day Vietnam, Cambodia, and Laos. They, too, established complete control in the 1880s.

Squeezed between the two growing blocks of British and French territory lay the kingdom of Siam. In 1893 the French invaded Siam, sending forces into Bangkok, the capital city. Great Britain and France avoided armed conflict, however, when they agreed to define their spheres of influence in Southeast Asia. As a result of the agreement, Siam remained independent.

Struggles between Europeans for control of economic resources brought much destruction and disturbance to mainland Southeast Asia. Western products and business practices also changed the traditional ways of life of the people who lived there. Colonial landowners and trading companies forced local farmers and workers to grow cash crops, usually rice. They also hired them to mine coal and cut teak trees. These raw materials and cash crops interested Western capitalists.

I used a lot of textbooks for this packet of reading! The various excerpts and sections come from the below sources ☺

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