

1750-1914

Revolutions and parliamentary governments

Trend towards popular government

Issues of nationalism and unification of nation-states

Industrialization

Economic causes and issues of production

Economic results and impacts

New types of jobs and roles of family and women

Various stages

Various types of industrialization

Labor issues and migration

New Economic philosophies

Diffusion of impact of technological developments

Imperialism

Stages

Different types

Colonialism and Anti-colonialism

Developing systems of alliances

1750- 1914
Revolutions and Reactions
Victorian Era, Industrial Revolution and Imperialism

1. Understand the economic and ideological **causes** of the American, the French, and the Haitian Revolutions.
2. Discuss and compare the course of the American, the French, and the Haitian revolutions and analyze the reasons for and significance of the different outcomes of these three revolutions.
3. Understand the successes and the shortcomings of the conservative reaction to the French Revolution as seen in the actions of the Congress of Vienna and the Holy Alliance.
4. Understand the concept of nationalism and be able to give concrete examples of the development and uses of nationalism in Europe.
5. Describe the causes and results of agitation for the extension of democratic rights and national self-determination in Europe and the United States of America in the nineteenth century up to the 1870s.
6. Regarding the Industrial Revolution, explain the transformative effects on and differential timing in different societies; mutual relation of industrial and scientific developments; and commonalities.
 - a. Understand the causes of the Industrial Revolution in England, Europe, and the United States.
 - b. Describe the technological innovations that spurred industrialization.
 - c. Outline changes in global commerce, communications, and technology.
 - d. Discuss the debates over the causes of European/British technological innovation versus development in Asia/China.
7. Describe the economic, and environmental impact of the Industrial Revolution and to make connections between the impact of the Industrial Revolution and the ideological and political responses.
8. Describe changes in social and gender structure, especially the Industrial Revolution, commercial and demographic developments, emancipation of serfs and slaves, tension between work patterns and ideas about gender, new forms of labor systems
 - a. Explain and give concrete examples of how abolitionism, the movement for women's rights, and immigration changed the nations of the Western Hemisphere.
9. Understand the relationship between the industrialized world and the nonindustrialized world as demonstrated in the cases of Russia, Egypt, and India.
10. Explain the rise of nationalism, nation-states, and movements of political reform.
11. Compare the political challenges faced by Latin American and English-speaking North American nations in the nineteenth century.
12. Understand the causes and the process by which the Latin American states gained independence.
13. Explain the rise of democracy and its limitations, especially reform, women, and racism.
 - a. Describe the manner in which parliamentarianism evolves into ministerialism.
14. Outline the rise of Western dominance (economic, military, political, social, cultural, and artistic), including patterns of expansion, imperialism, colonialism, and neocolonialism.
15. Describe different cultural and political reactions to the rise of Western dominance (dissent, reform, resistance, rebellion, racism, and nationalism), including the impact of changing European ideologies on colonial administrations.
16. Analyze patterns of cultural and artistic interactions among societies in different parts of the world, especially African and Asian influences on European art, and the cultural policies of Meiji Japan.
17. Understand the relationship between industrialization, new technologies, economic growth, and the environment in the Western Hemisphere.
18. Describe the development of new states and secondary empires in Africa and understand the relationship between these new states and secondary empires and the role of Europeans in the decline of the slave trade and the rise of the "legitimate trade" from 1750 to 1870.
19. Understand the development of British rule in India, the contradictory policies (social reform vs. support of tradition) of the raj, and the significance of the Sepoy Rebellion.
20. Understand the roles of technological change and market demand in the development of the "New British Empire."
21. Describe and give concrete examples of the ways in which African, Asian, and Pacific peoples demonstrated the continued vitality of local cultures during this period.
22. Describe and to analyze the reasons for and the results of reform in the Ottoman Empire.

23. Understand the external and internal challenges that weakened the Qing Empire in the nineteenth century.
24. Explain how the Russian Empire maintained its status as both a European Power and a Great Asian land empire.
25. Compare and to offer explanations for the differences and similarities between the Ottoman, the Qing, and the Russian Empires in the nineteenth century.
 - a. Compare reaction to foreign interference in the Ottoman Empire, China, India, Southeast Asia, and Japan.
 - b. Compare nationalism in the following pairs: China and Japan, Egypt and Italy, Pan Africanism and the Indian Congress Movement.
26. Explain forms of Western intervention in Latin America, Africa, and Southeast Asia
27. Describe the development of new technologies and the world economy from 1850 to 1900 and to make connections between these developments and social change in the industrialized nations.
28. Describe the roles and weaknesses of the major nations of Europe from 1850 to 1900.
29. Understand and be able to explain the emergence of Japan as a great power and be able to compare this newly emerging power with the European powers and with China.
30. Understand the concepts of “New Imperialism” and “colonialism” and be able to analyze them in terms of motives, their methods, and their place in the development of the world economy and the global environment.
31. Understand the “Scramble for Africa” and be able to use concrete examples to illustrate the process of colonization and reactions to colonization in Africa.
32. Understand and be able to analyze the causes and significance of free-trade imperialism in Latin America.
33. Understand the process by which Central and Southeast Asia and the Pacific islands were brought under the domination of the great powers.

"liberty, equality, and fraternity"
 "no taxation without representation"
 A Vindication of the Rights of Women
 Alexander I
 American Revolution
 Belgian Revolution of 1830
 Castlereagh, Robert
 Stewart, Viscount
 Charles (Stuart) I
 Concert of Europe
 Congress of Vienna of 1815
 Conscriptio
 Continental Congress
 Continental System
 Courbert, Gustave
 Declaration of the Rights of Woman and the Female Citizen
 Elba
 Elizabeth Cady Stanton
 Francois-Dominique Toussaint
 Frederick William III
 French Revolution
 Gens de couleur
 George Washington
 guillotine
 Gustave Courbert
 Haiti Revolution
 Hanovers
 Hardenburg, Prince Karl
 August von
 Hegemony
 Huguenots
 Jean-Jacques Rousseau
 John Locke
 liberalism
 Marie Antoinette
 Mexican Revolution
 Miguel de Hidalgo
 Moderate
 Olympe de Gouges
 Peace of Paris (1783)
Philosophes
 Popular Sovereignty
 Prince Klemens von Metternich
 Revolutions of 1848
 Russification
 Sans-culottes
 Sovereignty
 St. Helena
The Social Contract
 Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo (1848)
 Universal Male Suffrage
 Voltaire
 Waterloo
 Yorktown

"social question"
 "yellow peril"
 "blood and iron"
 "Dictatorship of the proletariat"
 "Great Game"
 "mission civilisatrice"
 "railroad time"
 "terra nullius"
 "tierra y libertad"
 Abd al-Hamid II
 Abdul Hamid
 Abraham Lincoln
 Adam Smith
 Adela Zamudio
 Ahmad Orabi
 al-Afghani and Muhammad Abduh
 Albert Einstein
 Alexander II
 Alexander III
 American Civil War (1861-1865)
 American exceptionalism
 anarchists
 Anatolia
 Andrés Santa Cruz
 Antonio López de Santa Ana
 Argentina
 Argentine Republic
 Assembly line
 Augustín Iturbide
 Balkan nationalism
 Belgium
 Benito Juárez
 Benjamin Disraeli
 Berlin Conference
 Bessemer converter
 Boer republics
 Boer War (1899-1902)
 Bolsheviks
 Bombay
 Botany Bay
 Boxer Rebellion
 Brazil
 Buenos Aires
 Calcutta
 Calico Acts
 California
 California Gold Rush
 Camillo di Cavour
 Canada
 Capitulations
 Capitalism
 Captain James Cook
 Caudillos
 Cawnpore Massacre
 Cecil Rhodes
 centralists
 Charles Cornwallis
 Charles Darwin

Charles Fourier
 Chartist Movement
 Chile
 científicos
 Cixi
 Colombia
Communist Manifesto
 compradors
 Congo
 Congress of Berlin
 Cort, Henry
 Cottage industry
 Cotton gin
 Count Camillo di Cavour
 Count Joseph Arthur de Gobineau
 Count Witte
 Crimean War (1854 -1856)
 Crompton's "mule"
 Crystal Palace Exhibit
 Cuba
 David Livingstone
 Decembrist rising
 Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen
 Democratic Socialism
 dependency theory
 Diet
 Direct rule (colony)
 Disraeli, Benjamin
 Doctrine of limited sovereignty
 Domingo F. Sarmiento
 Domingo Faustino Sarmiento
 Duma
 Dutch Studies
 Dyminos
 Ecuador
 Edmund Cartwright
 Edo
 Eli Whitney
 Emancipation of the serfs
 Emancipation Proclamation
 Emiliano Zapata
 Emilio Aguinaldo
 Enclosure movement
 Factory Act of 1833
 factory system
 fazendas
 federalists
 feminist movements
 First Opium War
 Flying shuttle
 France
 Francisco Villa
 French Indochina
 French Revolution of 1830
 French Revolution of 1848
 Friedrich Engels
 Fukuzawa Yukichi
 gauchos
 Gauchos
 George Stephenson

Germany
 Giuseppe Garibaldi
 Gladstone, William
 Gran Colombia
 Grand Canal
 Great Britain
 Great Mahele
 Great Trek
 Greece
 Greek revolution
 Guang Xu (Zaitian)1875-1908
 guano
 Giuseppe Mazzini
 Hawai`i
 Henry Bessemer
 Henry Cort
 Henry Ford
 Henry Stanley
 Herbert Spencer
 Holy Alliance
 Hong Xiuquan
 Imperialism
 Indentured Labor
 Indirect rule (colony)
 Industrial capitalism
 intelligentsia
 Intelligentsia
 Isandhlwana (1879)
 Ito Hirobumi
 James Cook
 James Watt
 Japan
 Jewel of India
 João VI
 John A. Macdonald
 John D. Rockefeller
 John Kay
 John Speke
 José de San Martín
 José Hernandez
 José Rodríguez de Francia
 Josiah Wedgwood
 Juan Manuel de Rosas
 Kamehameha
 Kang Youwei
 Kangxi
 Karl Marx
 Khalifa Abdallahi
 Khedives
 King Leopold II
 Kingdom of Mataram
 Korea
 kulaks
 La Reforma
 Laissez-faire (capitalism)
 Land and Freedom Party
 Liang Qichao
 Lin Zexu
 Little Big Horn
 Louis Pasteur
 Louis Riel
 Louisiana purchase

Luddites	Nicholas II	Reconstruction	St. Petersburg
Machismo	Northwest Rebellion	Red Cross	Stolypin reforms
Madras	Northwest Territories	Reform Bill of 1832	Suez Canal
Mahdi	Nurhaci	<i>Resorgimento</i>	Tahiti
Mahmud II	Okinawa	revisionism	Taiping Rebellion
Maji Maji Rebellion	Omdurman	Revolution of 1905	Tanzimat
Malthus, Thomas	Ontario	Revolutions of 1848	Tanzimat reforms
Mamluks	Operachniks	Rhodesia	terakoya
Manifest Destiny	Opium War	Richard Burton	Texas
<i>Manifesto of the Communist Party</i>	Otto von Bismarck	Robert Clive	The National Policy
Marxism	Panama Canal	Robert Owen	Theodor Herzl
mask of Ferdinand	Pedro I	<i>Rocket</i>	Theodore Roosevelt
mass leisure culture	Peru	Romanticism	Thomas Raffles
Matthew Perry	Philippines	Rudyard Kipling	Tokugawa bakufu
Maximilian von Habsburg	Planned economies	Russia	Toussaint L'Overture
Maximilien Robespierre	Plassey (1757)	Russian Revolution of 1905	Trail of Tears
Mehmed V Rashid	Plebiscite	Russo-Japanese War	transformismo
Meiji Restoration	Pogoms	Samarkand	Trans-Siberian railroad
Métis	population revolution	Samuel Crompton	Treaty of Nanjing
Mexican-American War	Porfirio Díaz	Self-Strengthening Movement	Treaty of Waitangi
Miguel de Hidalgo	Port Arthur	Selim II	tropical dependencies
Mines Act of 1842	positivism	Seneca Falls Convention	United States
Mizuno Tadakuni	Power loom	Sepoy Uprising	Utopian socialism
modernization theory	Presidencies	sepoys	Volksggeist
Moderninity	Princely States	Serbia	Walt Whitman
Mongkut King of Siam	proletariat	Sergei Witte	White Dominions
Monroe Doctrine	protoindustrialization	Settler colonies	White Man's Burden
Monroe Doctrine	Psychoanalysis	Shaka Zulu	white racial supremacy
Moscow	Puerto Rico	Sigmund Freud	Witte, Count of Russia (1892-1903)
Mrs. John Sandford	Putting-out system	Simon Bolívar	<i>Woman in Her Social and Domestic Character</i>
Mughal	Puyi	Singapore	Wounded Knee
Muhammad Ali	Qing dynasty	Sino/Sina	Zaibatsu
Mutsuhito	Quebec	Sino-Japanese War (1894-1895)	Zamindar
nabobs	Queen Lili'uokalani	Social Darwinsim	Zamindari System
Nanjing	Queen Victoria	socialism	Zemstvos
Napoleon Bonaparte	Queue	Society of Righteous and Harmonious Fists	Zionism
nationalism	radicals	Spanish American War	
New Lanark	Raj	Spheres of Influence	
New South Wales	Ram, Raja Mohan Roy		
New Zealand	Realism		
	<i>Realpolitik</i>		

1750- 1914

- I. Prelude to Revolution: The Eighteenth-Century Crisis
 - A. Colonial Wars and Fiscal Crises
 1. Rivalry among the European powers intensified in the early 1600s as the Dutch attacked Spanish and Portuguese possessions in the Americas and in Asia. In the 1600s and 1700s the British then checked Dutch commercial and colonial ambitions and went on to defeat France in the Seven Years War (1756–1763) and take over French colonial possessions in the Americas and in India.
 2. The unprecedented costs of the wars of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries drove European governments to seek new sources of revenue at a time when the intellectual environment of the Enlightenment inspired people to question and to protest the state's attempts to introduce new ways of collecting revenue.
 - B. The Enlightenment and the Old Order
 1. The Enlightenment thinkers sought to apply the methods and questions of the Scientific Revolution to the study of human society. One way of doing so was to classify and systematize knowledge; another way was to search for natural laws that were thought to underlie human affairs and to devise scientific techniques of government and social regulation.
 2. John Locke argued that governments were created to protect the people; he emphasized the importance of individual rights. Jean Jacques Rousseau asserted that the will of the people was sacred; he believed that people would act collectively on the basis of their shared historical experience.
 3. Not all Enlightenment thinkers were radicals or atheists. Many, like Voltaire, believed that monarchs could be agents of change.
 4. Some members of the European nobility (e.g. Catherine the Great of Russia, Frederick the Great of Prussia) patronized Enlightenment thinkers and used Enlightenment ideas as they reformed their bureaucracies, legal systems, tax systems, and economies. At the same time, these monarchs suppressed or banned radical ideas that promoted republicanism or attacked religion.
 5. Many of the major intellectuals of the Enlightenment communicated with each other and with political leaders. Women were instrumental in the dissemination of their ideas, purchasing and discussing the writings of the Enlightenment thinkers and, in the case of wealthy Parisian women, making their homes available for salons at which Enlightenment thinkers gathered.
 6. The new ideas of the Enlightenment were particularly attractive to the expanding middle class in Europe and in the Western Hemisphere. Many European intellectuals saw the Americas as a new, uncorrupted place in which material and social progress would come more quickly than in Europe.
 7. Benjamin Franklin came to symbolize the natural genius and the vast potential of America. Franklin's success in business, his intellectual and scientific accomplishments, and his political career offered proof that in America, where society was free of the chains of inherited privilege, genius could thrive.
 - C. Folk Cultures and Popular Protest
 1. Most people in Western society did not share in the ideas of the Enlightenment; common people remained loyal to cultural values grounded in the preindustrial past. These cultural values prescribed a set of traditionally accepted mutual rights and obligations that connected the people to their rulers.
 2. When eighteenth century monarchs tried to increase their authority and to centralize power by introducing more efficient systems of tax collection and public administration, the people regarded these changes as violations of sacred customs and sometimes expressed their outrage in violent protests. Such protests aimed to restore custom and precedent, not to achieve revolutionary change. Rationalist Enlightenment reformers also sparked popular opposition when they sought to replace popular festivals with rational civic rituals.
 3. Spontaneous popular uprisings had revolutionary potential only when they coincided with conflicts within the elite.
- II. The American Revolution, 1775–1800
 - A. Frontiers and Taxes
 1. After 1763, the British government faced two problems in its North American colonies: the danger of war with the Amerindians as colonists pushed west across the Appalachians, and the need to raise more taxes from the colonists in order to pay the increasing costs of colonial administration and defense. British attempts to impose new taxes or to prevent further westward settlement provoked protests in the colonies.
 2. In the Great Lakes region, British policies undermined the Amerindian economy and provoked a series of Amerindian raids on the settled areas of Pennsylvania and Virginia. The Amerindian alliance that carried out these raids was defeated within a year. Fear of more violence led the British to establish a western limit for settlement in the Proclamation of 1763 and to slow down settlement of the regions north of the Ohio and east of the Mississippi in the Quebec Act of 1774.
 3. The British government tried to raise new revenue from the American colonies through a series of fiscal reforms and new taxes including a number of new commercial regulations, including the Stamp Act of

1765 and other taxes and duties. In response to these actions, the colonists organized boycotts of British goods, staged violent protests, and attacked British officials.

4. Relations between the American colonists and the British authorities were further exacerbated by the killing of five civilians in the “Boston Massacre” (1770) and by the action of the British government in granting the East India Company a monopoly on the import of tea to the colonies. When colonists in Boston responded to the monopoly by dumping tea into Boston harbor, the British closed the port of Boston.
- B. The Course of Revolution, 1775–1783
1. Colonial governing bodies deposed British governors and established a Continental Congress that printed currency and organized an army. Ideological support for independence was given by the rhetoric of thousands of street-corner speakers, by Thomas Paine’s pamphlet *Common Sense*, and in the Declaration of Independence.
 2. The British sent a military force to pacify the colonies. The British force won most of its battles, but it was unable to control the countryside. The British were also unable to achieve a compromise political solution to the problems of the colonies.
 3. Amerindians served as allies to both sides. The Mohawk leader Joseph Brant led one of the most effective Amerindian forces in support of the British; when the war was over, he and his followers fled to Canada.
 4. France entered the war as an ally of the United States in 1778 and gave crucial assistance to the American forces, including naval support that enabled Washington to defeat Cornwallis at Yorktown, Virginia. Following this defeat, the British negotiators signed the Treaty of Paris (1783), giving unconditional independence to the former colonies.
- C. The Construction of Republican Institutions, to 1800
1. After independence each of the former colonies drafted written constitutions that were submitted to the voters for approval. The Articles of Confederation served as a constitution for the United States during and after the revolutionary war.
 2. In May 1787 a Constitutional Convention began to write a new constitution, which established a system of government that was democratic, but which gave the vote only to a minority of the adult male population and which protected slavery.
- III. The French Revolution, 1789–1815
- A. French Society and Fiscal Crisis
1. French society was divided into three groups: the First Estate (clergy), the Second Estate (hereditary nobility), and the Third Estate (everyone else). The clergy and the nobility controlled vast amounts of wealth, and the clergy was exempt from nearly all taxes.
 2. The Third Estate included the rapidly growing, wealthy middle class (bourgeoisie). While the bourgeoisie prospered, France’s peasants (80 percent of the population), its artisans, workers, and small shopkeepers, were suffering in the 1780s from economic depression caused by poor harvests. Urban poverty and rural suffering often led to violent protests, but these protests were not revolutionary.
 3. During the 1700s the expenses of wars drove France into debt and inspired the French kings to try to introduce new taxes and fiscal reforms in order to increase revenue. These attempts met with resistance in the Parlements and on the part of the high nobility.
- B. Protest Turns to Revolution, 1789–1792
1. The king called a meeting of the Estates General in order to get approval of new taxes. The representatives of the Third Estate and some members of the First Estate declared themselves to be a National Assembly and pledged to write a constitution that would incorporate the idea of popular sovereignty.
 2. As the king prepared to send troops to arrest the members of the National Assembly, the common people of Paris rose up in arms against the government and peasant uprisings broke out in the countryside. The National Assembly was emboldened to set forth its position in the Declaration of the Rights of Man.
 3. As the economic crisis grew worse, Parisian market women marched on Versailles and captured the king and his family. The National Assembly passed a new constitution that limited the power of the monarchy and restructured French politics and society. When Austria and Prussia threatened to intervene, the National Assembly declared war in 1791.
- C. The Terror, 1793–1794
1. The king’s attempt to flee in 1792 led to his execution and to the formation of a new government, the National Convention, which was dominated by the radical “Mountain” faction of the Jacobins and by their leader, Robespierre.
 2. Under Robespierre, executive power was placed in the hands of the Committee of Public Safety, militant feminist forces were repressed, new actions against the clergy were approved, and suspected enemies of the revolution were imprisoned and guillotined in the Reign of Terror (1793–1794). In July 1794 conservatives in the National Convention voted for the arrest and execution of Robespierre.
- D. Reaction and Dictatorship, 1795–1815

1. After Robespierre's execution the Convention worked to undo the radical reforms of the Robespierre years, ratified a more conservative constitution, and created a new executive authority, the Directory. The Directory's suspension of the election results of 1797 signaled the end of the republican phase of the Revolution, while Napoleon's seizure of power in 1799 marked the beginning of another form of government: popular authoritarianism.
2. Napoleon provided greater internal stability and protection of personal and property rights by negotiating an agreement with the Catholic Church (the Concordat of 1801), promulgating the Civil Code of 1804, and declaring himself emperor (also in 1804). At the same time, the Napoleonic system denied basic political and property rights to women and restricted speech and expression.
3. The stability of the Napoleonic system depended upon the success of the military and upon French diplomacy. No single European state could defeat Napoleon, but his occupation of the Iberian Peninsula turned into a costly war of attrition with Spanish and Portuguese resistance forces, while his 1812 attack on Russia ended in disaster. An alliance of Russia, Austria, Prussia, and England defeated Napoleon in 1814.

IV. Revolution Spreads, Conservatives Respond, 1789–1850

A. The Haitian Revolution, 1789–1804

1. The French colony of Saint Domingue was one of the richest European colonies in the Americas, but its economic success was based on one of the most brutal slave regimes in the Caribbean.
2. The political turmoil in France weakened the ability of colonial administrators to maintain order and led to conflict between slaves and *gens de couleur* on the one hand and whites on the other. A slave rebellion under the leadership of François Dominique Toussaint L'Ouverture took over the colony in 1794.
3. Napoleon's 1802 attempt to reestablish French authority led to the capture of L'Ouverture, but failed to retake the colony, which became the independent republic of Haiti in 1804. Tens of thousands of people died in the Haitian revolution, the economy was destroyed, and public administration was corrupted by more than a decade of violence.

B. The Congress of Vienna and Conservative Retrenchment, 1815–1820

1. From 1814 to 1815 representatives of Britain, Russia, Prussia, and Austria met in Vienna to create a comprehensive peace settlement that would reestablish and safeguard the conservative order in Europe.
2. The Congress of Vienna restored the French monarchy, redrew the borders of France and other European states, and established a "Holy Alliance" of Austria, Russia, and Prussia. The Holy Alliance defeated liberal revolutions in Spain and Italy in 1820 and tried, without success, to repress liberal and nationalist ideas.

C. Nationalism, Reform, and Revolution, 1821–1850

1. Popular support for national self-determination and democratic reform grew throughout Europe. Greece gained its independence from the Ottoman Empire in 1830, while in France, the people of Paris forced the monarchy to accept constitutional rule and to extend voting privileges.
2. Democratic reform movements emerged in both Britain and in the United States. In the United States the franchise was extended after the War of 1812, while in Britain response to the unpopular Corn Laws resulted in a nearly 50 percent increase in the number of voters.
3. In Europe, the desire for national self-determination and democratic reform led to a series of revolutions in 1848. In France, the monarchy was overthrown and replaced by an elected president (Louis Napoleon); elsewhere in Europe the revolutions of 1848 failed to gain either their nationalist or republican objectives.

V. Causes of the Industrial Revolution

A. Population Growth

1. In the eighteenth century more reliable food supplies, earlier marriage, high birthrates, and more widespread resistance to disease contributed to significant population growth in Europe. England and Wales experienced particularly rapid population growth.
2. Rapid population growth meant that children accounted for a relatively high proportion of the total population. Population growth also contributed to migration of people from the countryside to the cities, from Ireland to England, and from Europe to the Americas.

B. The Agricultural Revolution

1. The agricultural revolution began long before the eighteenth century. New food crops, many of them from the Americas, and new forage crops produced more food per acre and allowed farmers to raise more cattle for meat and milk.
2. Only wealthy landowners could afford to invest in new crops and new farming methods. Rich landowners fenced off (enclosed) their own land and common land to apply new scientific farming methods; as they did so, they forced their former tenants to become sharecroppers or landless laborers, or to migrate to the cities.

C. Trade and Inventiveness

1. In most of Europe, increasing demand for goods was met with increasing production in traditional ways through the addition of new craftsmen to existing workshops and through the putting-out system.

2. Population growth and increased agricultural productivity were accompanied by a growth in trade and a fascination with technology and innovation.
- D. Britain and Continental Europe
1. Eighteenth-century Britain had a number of characteristics that help to explain its peculiar role in the Industrial Revolution. These characteristics include economic growth, population growth, people who were willing to put new ideas into practice, strong mining and metal industries, the world's largest merchant marine, and a relatively fluid social structure.
 2. Britain also had a good water transportation system, a unified market, and a highly developed commercial sector.
 3. The economies of continental Europe experienced a similar dynamic expansion in the eighteenth century, but lack of markets and management skills and the constant warfare from 1789–1815 interrupted trade and weakened the incentive to invest in new technologies. Industrialization took hold in Europe after 1815, first in Belgium and France. European governments played a significant role in fostering industrialization.
- VI. The Technological Revolution
- A. Mass Production: Pottery
1. Pottery was either imported or handmade for the aristocracy; in either event, ordinary people could not afford it. But the growing taste for tea, cocoa, and coffee created a demand for porcelain that would not spoil the flavor of these beverages.
 2. In 1759 Josiah Wedgwood opened a pottery business that used division of labor and molds (rather than the potters wheel) in order to mass-produce high quality porcelain at a low cost that made it affordable for everyday use.
- B. Mechanization: the Cotton Industry
1. There was a strong market for cotton cloth, but the cotton plant did not grow in Europe. Restrictions on the import of cotton cloth led inventors and entrepreneurs to devise cheap mechanical methods for spinning cotton thread and weaving cotton cloth in England.
 2. Beginning in the 1760s a series of inventions revolutionized the spinning of cotton thread. These included the spinning jenny (1764), the water frame (1769), and the mule (1785). The increased supply of cotton thread and the demand for cotton cloth led to the invention of power looms and other machinery and processes for cotton textile production.
 3. Mechanization of cotton textile production led to much greater efficiency and lower prices. Cotton became America's most valuable crop, produced for export to England and, from the 1820s, for America's own cotton textile industry.
- C. The Iron Industry
1. Iron had been in use in Eurasia and Africa for thousands of years, but iron production was associated with deforestation that increased the price of charcoal and thus reduced the output of iron. Limited wood supplies and the high cost of skilled labor made iron a rare and valuable metal outside of China before the eighteenth century.
 2. In the eighteenth century a series of inventions including coke and puddling made it possible for the British to produce large amounts of cheap iron. Increased production and lower cost led people to use iron for numerous applications including bridge building and the construction of the Crystal Palace.
 3. The idea of interchangeable parts originated in the eighteenth century, but it was widely adopted in the firearms, farm equipment, and sewing machine industries in the nineteenth century. The use of machinery to mass-produce consumer goods with identical parts was known as "the American system of manufactures."
- D. The Steam Engine
1. The steam engine was the most revolutionary invention of the Industrial Revolution. Between 1702 and 1712 Thomas Newcomen developed a crude, inefficient steam engine that was used to pump water out of coal mines.
 2. In 1769 James Watt improved the Newcomen engine and began to manufacture engines for sale to manufacturers. Watt's engine provided a source of power that allowed factories to be located where animal, wind, and water power were lacking.
 3. In the 1780s the steam engine was used to power riverboats in France and America. In the 1830s the development of more efficient engines made it possible to build ocean-going steamships.
- E. Railroads
1. After 1800 inventors including Richard Trevithick and George Stephenson built lighter, more powerful high-pressure steam engines and used them to power steam locomotives that soon replaced the horses on horse-power railways.
 2. Railway-building mania swept Britain from 1825 to 1845 as the major cities, and then small towns, were linked by a network of railroads. In the United States, railway booms in the 1840s and 1850s linked the country together and opened the Midwest to agricultural development.

3. In Europe, railways triggered industrialization. Europe's industrial areas were concentrated in the iron and coal-rich areas of northern France, Belgium, the Ruhr, and Silesia.

F. Communication Over Wires

1. The construction of railroads was accompanied by the development of the electric telegraph. Two systems of telegraphy were invented in 1837: Wheatstone and Cook's five-needle telegraph in England, and Morse's dots and dashes system in the United States.
2. In the 1840s and 1850s Americans and Europeans had built the beginnings of what would become a global communications network. Europeans and Americans regarded this rapid communications system as a clear measure of progress.

VII. The Impact of the Industrial Revolution

A. The New Industrial Cities

1. Industrialization brought about the rapid growth of towns and the development of megalopolises such as Greater London. The wealthy built fine homes, churches, and public buildings; the poor crowded into cheap, shoddy row houses.
2. Sudden population growth, crowding, and lack of municipal services made urban problems more serious than they had been in the past. Inadequate facilities for sewage disposal, air and water pollution, and diseases made urban life unhealthy and contributed to high infant mortality and short life expectancy.
3. Reports of the horrors of slum life led to municipal reforms that began to alleviate the ills of urban life after the mid-nineteenth century.

B. Rural Environments

1. Almost all the land in Europe had been transformed by human activity before the Industrial Revolution, but deforestation was an ongoing problem. Americans transformed their environment even faster than Europeans, clearing land, using it until the soil was depleted, and then moving on.
2. Industrialization relieved pressure on the English environment in some ways; agricultural raw materials were replaced by industrial materials or by imports, while the use of coke and the availability of cheap iron reduced the demand for wood.
3. New transportation systems greatly changed rural life. Toll roads, canals, and then railroads linked isolated districts to the great centers of commerce, industry, and population.

C. Working Conditions

1. Industrialization offered new, highly-paid opportunities for a small number of skilled carpenters, metalworkers, and machinists; but most industrial jobs were unskilled, repetitive, boring, badly paid, and came with poor working conditions.
2. The separation of work from home had a major impact on women and on family life.
3. Women workers were concentrated in the textile mills and earned much less than men. Husbands and wives worked in separate places. Most of the female work force consisted of young women who took low-paid jobs as domestic servants.
4. Poverty and employers' preference for child workers led to high rates of child labor. In the mid-nineteenth century the British government restricted child labor, so mill owners recruited Irish immigrants instead.
5. In America, the first industrialists offered good wages and decent working conditions to their women workers, but harsh working conditions, long hours and low pay soon became standard. Protests by American women workers led factory owners to replace them with Irish women, who were willing to accept lower pay and worse conditions.
6. The Industrial Revolution increased the demand for cotton, sugar, and coffee. In doing so, industrialization helped to prolong slavery in the United States and the Caribbean and to extend slavery to the coffee-growing regions of Brazil.

D. Changes in Society

1. Industrialization increased disparities in income. The wages and standards of living of the workers varied with the fluctuations of the business cycle, but overall, workers' standards of living did not improve until the 1850s.
2. The real beneficiaries of the Industrial Revolution were the middle classes. Rising incomes allowed the middle class to build their own businesses, to keep their women at home, and to develop a moral code that stood in contrast to the squalor and drunkenness of the working class.

VIII. New Economic and Political Ideas

A. Laissez Faire and Its Critics

1. Adam Smith was the most famous proponent of the laissez-faire doctrine that government should refrain from interfering in business. Thomas Malthus and David Ricardo argued that the poverty of the working class was the result of over-population and that it could best be addressed, not by government action, but by delayed marriage and sexual restraint. Business people welcomed the idea of laissez faire.
2. Critics of laissez faire, such as Jeremy Bentham in England and Friedrich List in Germany, argued that the state should take action to manage the economy and to address social problems.

B. Positivists and Utopian Socialists

1. In France, the count of Saint-Simon developed a philosophy called positivism, which argued that the scientific method could solve social as well as technical problems.
 2. The utopian socialists include Charles Fourier, who imagined an ideal society without capitalists, and Robert Owen, who believed that industry could provide prosperity for all. Owen tried to put his ideas into practice by carrying out reforms in his own textile mill and by encouraging Parliament to pass child labor laws and establish government inspection of working conditions.
- C. Protests and Reforms
1. Workers initially responded to the harsh working conditions by changing jobs frequently, not reporting for work, doing poor quality work when not closely watched, and by engaging in riots or strikes. Workers gradually moved beyond the stage of individual, unorganized resistance to create organizations for collective action: benevolent societies and trade unions.
 2. Mass movements persuaded the British government to investigate the abuses of industrial life and to offer ameliorative legislation that included the Factory Act of 1833, the Mines Act of 1842, and the repeal of the Corn Laws in 1846. In Europe, the revolutions of 1848 revealed widespread discontent, but European governments did not seek reform through accommodation.
- IX. Industrialization and the Nonindustrial World
- A. China, Egypt, and India
1. New military technologies changed the balance of power between Europe and China, allowing Britain to defeat the Chinese quickly and easily.
 2. In the early nineteenth century Egypt's ruler Muhammad Ali undertook a program of industrialization that was funded by the export of wheat and cotton and protected by high tariffs on imported goods.
 3. The prospect of a powerful modern Egypt posed a threat to the British, so in 1839 Britain forced Muhammad Ali to eliminate all import duties. Without tariff protection, Egypt's industries could not compete with cheap British products; Egypt became an economic dependency of Britain.
 4. Cheap machine-made British textiles forced Indian spinners and hand weavers out of work. Most became landless peasants, and India became an exporter of raw materials and an importer of British industrial goods.
 5. Railroads, coal mining, and telegraph lines were introduced to India in the mid-nineteenth century. Some Indian entrepreneurs were able to establish their own textile mills, but overall, India's industrialization proceeded at a very slow pace because the British administration did nothing to encourage Indian industry.
- X. Independence in Latin America, 1800–1830
- A. Roots of Revolution, to 1810
1. Wealthy colonial residents of Latin America were frustrated by the political and economic power of colonial officials and angered by high taxes and imperial monopolies. They were inspired by the Enlightenment thinkers and by the examples of the American and French Revolutions.
 2. The Portuguese royal family fled to Brazil, where King John VI maintained his court for over a decade.
 3. Napoleon's invasion of Portugal and Spain in 1807 and 1808 led dissenters in Venezuela, Mexico, and Bolivia to overthrow Spanish colonial officials in 1808–1809. The Spanish authorities quickly reasserted control, but a new round of revolutions began in 1810.
- B. Spanish South America, 1810–1825
1. A creole-led revolutionary junta declared independence in Venezuela in 1811. Spanish authorities were able to rally free blacks and slaves to defend the Spanish Empire because the junta's leaders were interested primarily in pursuing the interests of creole landholders.
 2. Simón Bolívar emerged as the leader of the Venezuelan revolutionaries. Bolívar used the force of his personality in order to attract new allies (including slaves and free blacks) to his cause and to command the loyalty of his troops.
 3. Bolívar defeated the Spanish armies in 1824 and tried to forge Venezuela, Colombia, and Ecuador into a single nation. This project was a failure, as were Bolívar's other attempts to create a confederation of the former Spanish colonies.
 4. Buenos Aires was another important center of revolutionary activity in Spanish South America.
 5. In 1816, after Ferdinand regained the Spanish throne, local junta leaders declared independence as the United Provinces of Rio de la Plata.
 6. The new government was weak and the region quickly descended into political chaos.
- C. Mexico, 1810–1823
1. In 1810, Mexico was Spain's richest and most populous colony, but the Amerindian population of central Mexico had suffered from dislocation due to mining and commercial enterprises and from a cycle of crop failures and epidemics.
 2. On September 16, 1810 a parish priest, Miguel Hidalgo y Costilla urged the people to rise up against the Spanish authorities. The resulting violent rebellion took place under the leadership of Hidalgo and then, after Hidalgo's capture and execution, under José María Morelos. Loyalist forces defeated the insurrection and executed Morelos in 1815.

3. In 1821, news of a military revolt in Spain inspired Colonel Agustín de Iturbide to declare Mexico's independence with himself as emperor. In early 1823 the army overthrew Iturbide and Mexico became a republic.
- D. Brazil, to 1831
1. King John VI of Portugal ruled his kingdom from Brazil until 1821, when unrest in Spain and Portugal led him to return to Lisbon. King John's son Pedro remained in Brazil, where he ruled as regent until 1822, when he declared Brazil to be an independent constitutional monarchy with himself as king.
 2. Pedro's liberal policies (including opposition to slavery) alienated the political slave-holding elite, and he incurred heavy losses of men and money as he attempted to control Uruguay by military force. Street demonstrations and violence led Pedro I to abdicate in favor of his son, Pedro II, who reigned until republicans overthrew him in 1889.
- XI. The Problem of Order, 1825–1890
- A. Constitutional Experiments
1. Leaders in both the United States and in Latin America espoused constitutionalism. In the United States, the colonists' prior experience with representative government contributed to the success of constitutionalism; in Latin America, inexperience with popular politics contributed to the failure of constitutions.
 2. In Canada, Britain responded to demands for political reform by establishing responsible government in each of the provinces in the 1840s. In 1867 the provincial governments of Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia entered into a confederation to form the Dominion of Canada with a central government in Ottawa.
 3. In Latin America, lack of experience with elected legislatures and municipal governments led the drafters of constitutions to experiment with untested and impractical political institutions. Latin American nations also found it difficult to define the political role of the church and to subordinate the army and its prestigious leaders to civilian government.
- B. Personalist Leaders
1. Successful military leaders in both the United States and Latin America were able to use their military reputations as the foundations of political power. Latin America's slow development of stable political institutions made personalist politics much more influential than it was in the United States.
 2. The first constitutions of nearly all the American republics excluded large numbers of poor citizens from full political participation. This led to the rise of populist leaders who articulated the desires of the excluded poor and who at times used populist politics to undermine constitutional order and move toward dictatorship. Andrew Jackson in the United States and José Antonio Páez in Venezuela are two examples of populist politicians who challenged the constitutional limits of their authority.
 3. Páez declared Venezuela's independence from Bolívar's Gran Colombia in 1829 and ruled as president or dictator for the next eighteen years. Jackson, born in humble circumstances, was a successful general who, as president, increased the powers of the presidency at the expense of the Congress and the Supreme Court.
 4. Personalist leaders like Páez and Jackson dominated national politics by identifying with the common people, but in practice, they promoted the interests of powerful property owners. Personalist leaders were common in both the United States and Latin America, but in Latin America, the weaker constitutional tradition, less protection of property rights, lower literacy levels, and less developed communications systems allowed personalist leaders to become dictators.
- C. The Threat of Regionalism
1. After independence the relatively weak central governments of the new nations were often not able to prevent regional elites from leading secessionist movements.
 2. In Spanish America, all of the postindependence efforts to create large multistate federations failed. Central America split off from Mexico in 1823 and then broke up into five separate nations; Gran Colombia broke up into Venezuela, Colombia, and Ecuador; and Uruguay, Paraguay, and Bolivia declared their independence from Argentina.
 3. Regionalism threatened the United States when the issue of slavery divided the nation, leading to the establishment of the Confederacy and the U.S. Civil War.
 4. The Confederacy failed because of poor timing; the new states of the Western Hemisphere were most vulnerable during the first decades after independence. The Confederacy's attempt to secede from the United States came when the national government was well-established and strengthened by experience, economic growth, and population growth.
- D. Foreign Interventions and Regional Wars
1. During the nineteenth century wars between Western Hemisphere nations and invasions from the European powers often determined national borders, access to natural resources, and control of markets. By the end of the nineteenth century, the United States, Brazil, Argentina, and Chile had successfully waged wars against their neighbors and established themselves as regional powers.

2. European military intervention included the British attack on the United States in the War of 1812, the United States' war with Spain in 1898–1899, French and English naval blockades of Argentina, an English naval blockade of Brazil, and Spanish and French invasions of Mexico. When the French invaded Mexico in 1862 they ousted President Benito Juárez and established Maximilian Habsburg as emperor. Juárez drove the French out in 1867; Maximilian was captured and executed.
3. The United States defeated Mexico and forced the Mexican government to give up Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, and Colorado in 1848.
4. Chile defeated the combined forces of Peru and Bolivia in two wars (1836–1839 and 1879–1881). Chile gained nitrate mines and forced Bolivia to give up its only outlet to the sea.
5. Argentina and Brazil fought over control of Uruguay in the 1820s, but finally recognized Uruguayan independence. Argentina, Brazil, and Uruguay then cooperated in a five-year war against Paraguay in which Paraguay was defeated, occupied, lost territory, and was forced to open its markets to foreign trade.

E. Native Peoples and the Nation-State

1. When the former colonies of the Western Hemisphere became independent, the colonial powers ceased to play a role as mediator for and protector of the native peoples. Independent Amerindian peoples posed a significant challenge to the new nations of the Western Hemisphere, but Amerindian military resistance was overcome in both North and South America by the end of the 1880s.
2. In the United States, rapid expansion of white settlements between 1790 and 1810 led to conflict between the forces of the American government and Amerindian confederations like that led by Tecumseh and Prophet in 1811–1812. Further white settlement led to the Indian Removal Act of 1830, which forced the resettlement of eastern Amerindian peoples to land west of the Mississippi River.
3. Amerindians living on the Great Plains had become skilled users of horses and firearms, and thus offered more formidable resistance to the expansion of white settlement. Horses and firearms had also made the Plains peoples less reliant on agriculture and more reliant on buffalo hunting. The near extinction of the buffalo, loss of land to ranchers, and nearly four decades of armed conflict with the United States Army forced the Plains Amerindians to give up their land and accept reservation life.
4. In Argentina and Chile native people were able to check the expansion of white settlement until the 1860s, when population increase, political stability, and military modernization gave the Chilean and Argentinean governments the upper hand. In the 1870s the governments of both Argentina and Chile crushed native resistance and drove surviving Amerindians onto marginal land.
5. In Mexico, plantation owners in the Yucatán Peninsula had forced Maya communities off their land and into poverty. In 1847, when the Mexican government was busy with its war against the United States, Maya communities in the Yucatán rose in a revolt (the Caste War) that nearly returned the Yucatán to Maya rule.

XII. The Challenge of Economic and Social Change

A. The Abolition of Slavery

1. In most of the new nations, rhetorical assertion of the universal ideals of freedom and citizenship contrasted sharply with the reality of slavery. Slavery survived in much of the Western Hemisphere until the 1850s—it was strongest in those areas where the export of plantation products was most important.
2. In the early nineteenth century slavery was weakened by abolition in some of the northern states of the United States, by the termination of the African slave trade to the United States (1808), and by the freeing of tens of thousands of slaves who joined the revolutionary armies in the Spanish American republics. But at the same time, increased international demand for plantation products in the first half of the nineteenth century led to increased imports of slaves to Brazil and Cuba.
3. In the United States, abolitionists made moral and religious arguments against slavery. Two groups denied full citizenship rights under the Constitution, women and free African-Americans, played important roles in the abolition movement. The Emancipation Proclamation ended slavery in the rebel states not occupied by the Union army, while final abolition was accomplished with the passage of the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution in 1865.
4. In Brazil, progress toward the abolition of slavery was slower and depended on pressure from the British. The heroism of former slaves who joined the Brazilian army in the war against Paraguay helped to feed abolitionist sentiment that led to the abolition in 1888.
5. In the Caribbean colonies there was little support for abolition among whites or among free blacks. Abolition in the British Caribbean colonies was the result of government decisions made in the context of the declining profitability of the sugar plantations of the British West Indies, while abolition in the French colonies followed the overthrow of the government of Louis Philippe. Slavery was abolished in Puerto Rico in 1873 and in Cuba in 1886.

B. Immigration

1. As the slave trade ended, immigration from Europe and Asia increased. During the nineteenth century Europe provided the majority of immigrants to the Western Hemisphere, while Asian immigration increased after 1850.

2. Immigration brought economic benefits, but hostility to immigration mounted in many nations. Asian immigrants faced discrimination and violence in the United States, Canada, Peru, Mexico, and Cuba; immigrants from European countries also faced prejudice and discrimination.
3. The desire to sustain a common citizenship inspired a number of policies that aimed to compel immigrants to assimilate. Schools in particular were used to inculcate language, cultural values, and patriotic feelings in an attempt to create homogeneous national cultures.

C. American Cultures

1. Despite discrimination, immigrants altered the politics of many of the hemisphere's nations as they sought to influence government policies.
2. Immigrants were changed by their experiences in their adopted nations, undergoing acculturation. At the same time, the languages, the arts, the music, and the political cultures of the Western Hemisphere nations were influenced by the cultures of the immigrants.

D. Women's Rights and the Struggle for Social Justice

1. In the second half of the nineteenth century women's rights movements made slow progress toward the achievement of economic, legal, political, and educational equality in the United States, Canada, and Latin America. Most working class women played no role in the women's rights movements; nonetheless, economic circumstances forced working-class women to take jobs outside the home and thus to contribute to the transformation of gender relations.
2. Despite the abolition of slavery, various forms of discrimination against persons of African descent remained in place throughout the Western Hemisphere at the end of the century. Attempts to overturn racist stereotypes and to celebrate black cultural achievements in political and literary magazines failed to end racial discrimination.

E. Development and Underdevelopment

1. Nearly all the nations of the Western Hemisphere experienced economic growth during the nineteenth century, but the United States was the only one to industrialize. Only the United States, Canada, and Argentina attained living standards similar to those in Western Europe.
2. Rising demand for mine products led to mining booms in the western United States, Mexico, and Chile. Heavily capitalized European and North American corporations played a significant role in developing mining enterprises in Latin America. The expense of transportation and communications technology also increased dependence on foreign capital.
3. Latin America, the United States, and Canada all participated in the increasingly integrated world market, but interdependence and competition produced deep structural differences among Western Hemisphere economies. Those nations that industrialized achieved prosperity and development while those nations that depended on the export of raw materials and low wage industries experienced underdevelopment.
4. Cyclical swings in international markets partially explain why Canada and the United States achieved development while Latin America remained underdeveloped. Both the United States and Canada gained independence during periods of global economic expansion. Latin American countries gained independence during the 1820s, when the global economy was contracting.
5. Weak governments, political instability, and (in some cases) civil war also slowed Latin American development. Latin America became dependent on Britain and, later, on the United States for technology and capital.

F. Altered Environments

1. Population growth, economic expansion, and the introduction of new plants and animals brought about deforestation, soil exhaustion, and erosion. Rapid urbanization put strain on water delivery systems and sewage and garbage disposal systems and led to the spread of the timber industry. The expansion of the mining industry led to erosion and pollution in the western United States, Chile, and Brazil.
2. Efforts to meet increasing demand for food and housing and to satisfy foreign demands for exports led to environmental degradation but also contributed to economic growth. Faced with a choice between protecting the environment or achieving economic growth, all of the hemisphere's nations chose economic growth.

XIII. Changes and Exchanges in Africa

A. New Africa States

1. Serious drought hit the coastlands of southeastern Africa in the early nineteenth century and led to conflicts over grazing and farming lands. During these conflicts Shaka used strict military drill and close-combat warfare in order to build the Zulu kingdom.
2. Some neighboring Africans created their own states (such as Swaziland and Lesotho) in order to protect themselves against the expansionist Zulu kingdom. Shaka ruled the Zulu kingdom for little more than a decade, but he succeeded in creating a new national identity as well as a new kingdom.
3. In West Africa movements to purify Islam led to the construction of new states through the classic Muslim pattern of *jihad*. The largest of these reform movements occurred in the Hausa states and led to the establishment of the Sokoto Caliphate (1809–1906).

4. The new Muslim states became centers of Islamic learning and reform. Sokoto and other Muslim states both sold slaves and used slaves in order to raise food, thus making it possible for them to seclude free Muslim women in their homes in accordance with reformed Muslim practice.

B. Modernization in Egypt and Ethiopia

1. In Egypt, Muhammad Ali (r. 1805–1848) carried out a series of modernizing reforms that were intended to build up Egypt's military strength. In order to pay for his reform program, Muhammad Ali required Egyptian peasants to cultivate cotton and other crops for export.
2. Muhammad Ali's grandson Ismail placed even more emphasis on westernizing Egypt. Ismail's ambitious construction programs (railroads, the new capital city of Cairo) were funded by borrowing from French and British banks, which led Britain and France to occupy the country when the market for cotton collapsed after the American Civil War.
3. In the mid- to late nineteenth century Ethiopian kings reconquered territory that had been lost since the sixteenth century, purchased modern European weapons, and began to manufacture weapons locally. An attempt to hold British officials captive led to a temporary British occupation in the 1860s, but the British withdrew and the modernization program continued.

C. European Penetration

1. In 1830 France invaded Algeria; it took the French eighteen years to defeat Algerian resistance organized by the Muslim holy man Abd al-Qadir and another thirty years to put down resistance forces in the mountains. By 1871 130,000 European settlers had taken possession of rich Algerian farmland.
2. European explorers carried out peaceful expeditions in order to trace the course of Africa's rivers, assess the mineral wealth of the continent, and to convert Africans to Christianity. David Livingstone, Henry Morton Stanley, and other explorers traced the courses of the Nile, the Niger, the Zambezi, and the Congo rivers.

D. Abolition and Legitimate Trade

1. In 1808 news of slave revolts like that on Saint Domingue and the activities of abolitionists combined to lead Britain and the United States to prohibit their citizens from participating in the slave trade. The British used their navy in order to stop the slave trade, but the continued demand for slaves in Cuba and Brazil meant that the trade did not end until 1867.
2. As the slave trade declined, Africans expanded their "legitimate trade" in gold and other goods.
3. The most successful new export was palm oil that was exported to British manufacturers of soap, candles, and lubricants. The increased export of palm oil altered the social structure of coastal trading communities of the Niger Delta, as is demonstrated in the career of the canoe slave Jaja who became a wealthy palm oil trader in the 1870s.
4. The suppression of the slave trade also helped to spread Western cultural influences in West Africa. Missionaries converted and founded schools for the recaptives whom the British settled in Sierra Leone while black Americans brought Western culture to Liberia and to other parts of Africa before and after Emancipation in the United States.

E. Secondary Empires in Eastern Africa

1. When British patrols ended the slave trade on the Atlantic coast, slave traders in the Atlantic trade began to purchase their slaves from the East African markets that had traditionally supplied slaves to North Africa and the Middle East. Zanzibar Island and neighboring territories ruled by the Sultan of Oman were important in the slave trade, the ivory trade, and in the cultivation of cloves on plantations using slave labor.
2. The demand for ivory along the East African coast allowed African and Arab merchants hundreds of miles inland to build large personal trading empires like that of Tippu Tip. Historians refer to these empires as "secondary empires" because they depended on Western demand for ivory and other goods and on Western manufacturers for weapons.
3. Egypt's expansion southward in the nineteenth century may also be considered a secondary empire. Muhammad Ali invaded the Egyptian Sudan in order to secure slaves for his armies.

XIV. India Under British Rule

A. Company Men

1. In the eighteenth century the Mughal Empire was defeated and its capital sacked by marauding Iranian armies while internally, the Mughal's deputies (*nawabs*) had become de facto independent rulers of their states.
2. British, French, and Dutch companies staffed by ambitious young "Company Men" established trading posts and strategic places and hired Indian troops (*sepoys*) to defend them. By the early 1800s the British East India Company had pushed the French out of south India, forced the Mughal Empire to recognize Company rule over Bengal, and taken control of large territories that became the core of the "Bombay Presidency."

B. Raj and Rebellion, 1818–1857

1. The British *raj* (reign) over India aimed both to introduce administrative and social reform and to hold the support of Indian allies by respecting Indian social and religious customs. These contradictory goals led to many inconsistencies in British policies toward India.
2. Before 1850 the British created a government that relied on sepoy military power, disarmed the warriors of the Indian states, gave free reign to Christian missionaries, and established a private land ownership system in order to ease tax collection. At the same time, the British bolstered the “traditional” power of princes and holy men and invented “traditional” rituals to celebrate their own rule.
3. British political and economic influence benefited Indian elites and created jobs in some sectors while bringing new oppression to the poor and causing the collapse of the traditional textile industry.
4. Discontent among the needy and particularly among the Indian soldiers led to the Sepoy Rebellion of 1857. The rebellion was suppressed in 1858, but it gave the British a severe shock.

C. Political Reform and Industrial Impact

1. After the rebellion of 1857–1858 the British eliminated the last traces of Mughal and Company rule and installed a new government, administered from London. The new government continued to emphasize both tradition and reform, maintained Indian princes in luxury, and staged elaborate ceremonial pageants known as *durbars*.
2. An efficient bureaucracy, the Indian Civil Service, now controlled the Indian masses. Recruitment into the ICS was by examinations that were theoretically open to all, but in practice, racist attitudes prevented Indians from gaining access to the upper levels of administration.
3. After 1857 the British government and British enterprises expanded the production and export of agricultural commodities and built irrigation systems, railroads, and telegraph lines. Freer movement of people into the cities caused the spread of cholera, which was brought under control when new sewage and filtered water systems were installed in the major cities in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.

D. Rising Indian Nationalism

1. The failure of the rebellion of 1857 prompted some Indians to argue that the only way for Indians to regain control of their destiny was to reduce their country’s social and ethnic divisions and to promote a Pan-Indian nationalism.
2. In the early nineteenth century Rammouhan Roy and his Brahmo Samaj movement tried to reconcile Indian religious traditions with Western values and to reform traditional abuses of women. After 1857, Indian intellectuals tended to turn toward Western secular values and western nationalism as a way of developing a Pan-Indian nationalism that would transcend regional and religious differences.
3. Indian middle class nationalists convened the first Indian National Congress in 1885. The Congress promoted national unity and argued for greater inclusion of Indians in the Civil Service, but it was an elite organization with little support from the masses.

XV. Britain’s Eastern Empire

A. Colonies and Commerce

1. British defeat of French and Dutch forces in the Napoleonic Wars allowed Britain to expand its control in South Africa, Southeast Asia, and the southern Caribbean.
2. The Cape Colony was valuable to Britain because of its strategic importance as a supply station on the route to India. In response to British pressure the descendants of earlier French and Dutch settlers (the Afrikaners) embarked on a “Great Trek” to found new colonies on the fertile high veld that had been depopulated by the Zulu wars.
3. The British also established a series of strategic outposts in Southeast Asia. Thomas Raffles established the free port of Singapore in 1824, Assam was annexed to India in 1826, and Burma was annexed in 1852.

B. Imperial Policies and Shipping

1. Historians usually depict Britain in this period as a reluctant empire builder, more interested in trade than in acquiring territory. Most of the new colonies were intended to serve as ports in a global shipping network that the British envisioned in terms of free trade, as opposed to the previous mercantilist trade policy.
2. Whether colonized or not, African, Asian, and Pacific lands were being drawn into the commercial networks created by British expansion and industrialization. These areas became exporters of raw materials and agricultural goods and importers of affordable manufactured products.
3. A second impetus to global commercial expansion was the technological revolution in the construction of oceangoing ships in the nineteenth century. Use of iron to fasten timbers together and the use of huge canvas sails allowed shipbuilders to make larger, faster vessels that lowered the cost of shipping and thus stimulated maritime trade.

C. Colonization of Australia and New Zealand

1. The development of new ships and shipping contributed to the colonization of Australia and New Zealand by British settlers that displaced the indigenous populations.

2. Portuguese mariners sighted Australia in the early seventeenth century, and Captain James Cook surveyed New Zealand and the eastern Australian coast between 1769 and 1778. Unfamiliar diseases brought by new overseas contacts substantially reduced the populations of the hunter-gatherer Aborigines of Australia and the Maori of New Zealand.
3. Australia received British convicts and, after the discovery of gold in 1851, a flood of free European (and some Chinese) settlers. British settlers came more slowly to New Zealand until defeat of the Maori, faster ships, and a short gold rush brought more British immigrants after 1860.
4. The British crown gradually turned governing power over to the British settlers of Australia and New Zealand, but Aborigines and the Maori experienced discrimination. However, Australia did develop powerful trade unions, New Zealand promoted the availability of land for the common person, and both Australia and New Zealand granted women the right to vote in 1894.

D. New Labor Migrations

1. Between 1834 and 1870 large numbers of Indians, Chinese, and Africans went overseas as laborers. British India was the greatest source of migrant laborers, and British colonies (particularly sugar plantations) were the principal destinations of the migrants.
2. With the end of slavery, the demand for cheap labor in the British colonies, Cuba, and Hawaii was filled by Indians, free Africans, Chinese, and Japanese workers. These workers served under contracts of indenture which bound them to work for a specified number of years in return for free passage to their overseas destination, a small salary, and free housing, clothing and medical care.
3. These new indentured migrants were similar to the European emigrants of the time in that they left their homelands voluntarily in order to make money that they could send or take back home or to finance a new life in their new country. However, people recruited as indentured laborers were generally much poorer than European emigrants, took lower-paying jobs, and were unable to afford the passage to the most desirable areas.

V. The Ottoman Empire

A. Egypt and the Napoleonic Example, 1798–1840

1. In 1798, Napoleon invaded Egypt and defeated the Mamluk forces he encountered there. Fifteen months later, after a series of military defeats, Napoleon returned to France, seized power, and made himself emperor.
2. His generals had little hope of holding on to power and, in 1801, agreed to withdraw. Muhammad Ali emerged as the victor in the ensuing power struggle.
3. Muhammad Ali used many French practices in effort to build up the new Egyptian state.
4. He established schools to train modern military officers and built factories to supply his new army.
5. In the 1830s his son Ibrahim invaded Syria and started a similar set of reforms there.
6. European military pressure forced Muhammad Ali to withdraw in 1841 to the present day borders of Egypt and Israel.
7. Muhammad Ali remained Egypt's ruler until 1849 and his family held onto power until 1952.

B. Ottoman Reform and the European Model, 1807-1853

1. At the end of the eighteenth century Sultan Selim III introduced reforms to strengthen the military and the central government and to standardize taxation and land tenure. These reforms aroused the opposition of Janissaries, noblemen, and the ulama.
2. Tension between the Sultanate and the Janissaries sparked a Janissary revolt in Serbia in 1805. Serbian peasants helped to defeat the Janissary uprising and went on to make Serbia independent of the Ottoman Empire.
3. Selim suspended his reform program in 1806, too late to prevent a massive military uprising in Istanbul in which Selim was captured and executed before reform forces could retake the capital.
4. The Greeks gained independence from the Ottoman Empire in 1829. Britain, France, and Russia assisted the Greeks in their struggle for independence and regarded the Greek victory as a triumph of European civilization.
5. Sultan Mahmud II believed that the loss of Greece indicated a profound weakness in Ottoman military and financial organization. Mahmud used popular outrage over the loss of Greece to justify a series of reforms that included the creation of a new army corps, elimination of the Janissaries, and reduction of the political power of the religious elite. Mahmud's secularizing reform program was further articulated in the Tanzimat (restructuring) reforms initiated by his successor Abdul Mejid in 1839.
6. Military cadets were sent to France and Germany for training, and reform of Ottoman military education became the model for general educational reforms in which foreign subjects were taught, foreign instructors were employed, and French became the preferred language in all advanced scientific and professional training.
7. Educational reform stimulated growth of the wealth and influence of urban elites. The reforms also brought about unexpected cultural and social effects that ranged from the introduction of European clothing styles to the equal access to the courts for all male subjects to equalization of taxation.

8. The public rights and political participation granted during the Tanzimat were explicitly restricted to men. The reforms decreased the influence of women, while at the same time the development of a cash economy and competitive labor market drove women from the work force.

C. The Crimean War and its Aftermath, 1853–1856

1. Russia's southward expansion at the expense of the Ottoman Empire led to the Crimean War. An alliance of Britain, France and the Ottoman Empire defeated Russia and thus blocked Russian expansion into Eastern Europe and the Middle East.
2. The Crimean War brought significant changes to all combatants. The Russian government was further discredited and forced into making further reforms, Britain and France carried out extensive propaganda campaigns that emphasized their roles in the war, and the French press promoted a sense of unity between Turkish and French society.
3. The Crimean War marked the transition from traditional to modern warfare. The percussion caps and breech-loading rifles that were used in the Crimean War were the beginning of a series of subsequent changes in military technology that included the invention of machine guns, the use of railways to transfer weapons and men, and trench warfare.
4. After the Crimean War the Ottoman Empire continued to establish secular financial and commercial institutions on the European model. These reforms contributed to a shift of population from rural to urban areas and the development of professional and wage laborer classes, but they did not solve the regime's fiscal problems.
5. Problems associated with the reforms included the Ottoman state's dependence on foreign loans, a trade deficit, and inflation. In the 1860s and 1870s discussion of a law that would have permitted all men to vote left Muslims worried that the Ottoman Empire was no longer a Muslim society. This worry may have contributed to Muslim hostilities against Christians in the Ottoman territories in Europe, Armenia, and the Middle East.
6. The decline of Ottoman power and wealth inspired a group of educated urban men known as the Young Ottomans to band together to work for constitutionalism, liberal reform, and the creation of a Turkish national state in place of the Ottoman Empire. A constitution was granted in 1876, but a coup soon placed a more conservative ruler on the throne; the Ottoman Empire thus continued its weakened existence under the sponsorship of the Western powers until 1922.

XVI. The Russian Empire

A. Russia and Europe

1. In 1700, only three percent of the Russian population lived in cities and Russia was slow to acquire a modern infrastructure and modern forms of transportation.
2. While Russia aspired to Western-style economic development, fear of political change prevented real progress.
3. Nonetheless, Russia had more in common with the other European nations than did the Ottoman Empire.
4. Slavophiles and Westernizers debated the proper course for Russian development.
5. The diplomatic inclusion of Russia among the great powers of Europe was counterbalanced by a powerful sense of Russophobia in the west.

B. Russia and Asia

1. By the end of the eighteenth century, the Russian Empire had reached the Pacific Ocean and the borders of China. In the nineteenth century, Russian expansion continued to the South, bringing Russia into conflict with China, Japan, Iran, and the Ottoman Empire.
2. Britain took steps to halt Russian expansion before Russia gained control of all of Central Asia.

C. Cultural Trends

1. Russia had had cultural contact with Europe since the late seventeenth century.
2. The reforms of Alexander I promised more on paper than they delivered in practice.
3. Opposition to reform came from wealthy families that feared reform would bring about imperial despotism, a fear that was realized during the reign of Nicholas I.
4. The Decembrist revolt was carried out by a group of reform-minded military officers upon the death of Alexander I. Their defeat amounted to the defeat of reform for the next three decades.
5. Heavy penalties were imposed on Russia in the treaty that ended the Crimean War. The new tsar, Alexander II, was called upon to institute major reforms.
6. Under Alexander II, reforms and cultural trends begun under his grandfather were encouraged and expanded.
7. The nineteenth century saw numerous Russian scholarly and scientific achievements, as well as the emergence of significant Russian writers and thinkers.

XVII. The Qing Empire

A. Economic and Social Disorder, 1800–1839

1. When the Qing conquered China in the 1600s they restored peace and stability and promoted the recovery and expansion of the agricultural economy, thus laying the foundation for the doubling of the

Chinese population between 1650 and 1800. By 1800, population pressure was causing environmental damage and contributing to an increasing number of itinerant farmhands, laborers, and merchants.

2. There were a number of sources of discontent in Qing China. Various minority peoples had been driven off their land, and many people regarded the government as being weak, corrupt, and perhaps in collusion with the foreign merchants and missionaries in Canton and Macao. Discontent was manifest in a series of internal rebellions in the nineteenth century, beginning with the White Lotus rebellion (1794–1804).

B. The Opium War and Its Aftermath, 1839–1850

1. Believing the Europeans to be a remote and relatively unimportant people, the Qing did not at first pay much attention to trade issues or to the growth in the opium trade. In 1839, when the Qing government realized the harm being done by the opium trade, they decided to ban the use and import of opium and sent Lin Zexu to Canton to deal with the matter.
2. The attempt to ban the opium trade led to the Opium War (1839–1842), in which the better-armed British naval and ground forces defeated the Qing and forced them to sign the Treaty of Nanking. The Treaty of Nanking and subsequent treaties signed between the Qing and the various Western powers gave Westerners special privileges and resulted in the colonization of small pockets of Qing territory.

C. The Taiping Rebellion, 1850–1864

1. The Taiping Rebellion broke out in Guangxi province, where poor farmland, endemic poverty, and economic distress were complicated by ethnic divisions that relegated the minority Hakka people to the lowliest trades.
2. The founder of the Taiping movement was Hong Xiuquan, a man of Hakka background who became familiar with the teachings of Christian missionaries in Canton. Hong declared himself to be the younger brother of Jesus and founded a religious group (the “Heavenly Kingdom of Great Peace” or “Taiping” movement) to which he recruited followers from among the Hakka people.
3. The Taiping forces defeated imperial troops in Guangxi, recruited (or forced) villagers into their segregated male and female battalions and work teams, and moved toward eastern and northern China. In 1853 the Taiping forces captured Nanjing and made it the capital of their “Heavenly Kingdom of Great Peace.”
4. The Qing were finally able to defeat the Taiping with help from military forces organized by provincial governors like Zeng Guofan and with the assistance of British and French forces.
5. The Taiping Rebellion was one of the world’s bloodiest civil wars and the greatest armed conflict before the twentieth century. The results of the Taiping Rebellion included 20 to 30 million deaths, depopulation and destruction of rich agricultural lands in central and eastern China, and suffering and destruction in the cities and cultural centers of eastern China.

D. Decentralization at the End of the Qing Empire, 1864 – 1875

1. After the 1850s the expenses of wars and the burden of indemnities payable to Western governments made it impossible for the Qing to get out of debt. With the Qing government so deeply in their debt, Britain and France became active participants in the period of recovery known as the Tongzhi Restoration that followed the Taiping Rebellion.
2. The real work of recovery was managed by provincial governors like Zeng Guofan, who looked to the United States as his model and worked to restore agriculture and to reform the military and industrialize armaments manufacture. The reform programs were supported by a coalition of Qing aristocrats including the Empress Dowager Cixi, but they were unable to prevent the Qing Empire from disintegrating into a set of large power zones in which provincial governors exercised real authority.

XVIII. New Technologies and the World Economy

A. Railroads

3. By 1850 the first railroads had proved so successful that every industrializing country began to build railroad lines. Railroad building in Britain, France, Germany, Canada, Russia, Japan, and especially in the United States fueled a tremendous expansion in the world’s rail networks from 1850 to 1900.
4. In the non-industrialized world, railroads were also built wherever they would be of value to business or to government.
5. Railroads consumed huge amounts of land and timber for ties and bridges. Throughout the world, railroads opened new land to agriculture, mining, and other human exploitation of natural resources.

B. Steamships and Telegraph Cables

1. In the mid-nineteenth century a number of technological developments in shipbuilding made it possible to increase the average size and speed of ocean-going vessels. These developments included the use of iron (and then steel) for hulls, propellers, and more efficient engines.
2. Entrepreneurs developed a form of organization known as the shipping line in order to make the most efficient use of these large and expensive new ships. Shipping lines also used the growing system of submarine telegraph cables in order to coordinate the movements of their ships around the globe.

C. The Steel and Chemical Industries

1. Steel is an especially hard and elastic form of iron that could be made only in small quantities by skilled blacksmiths before the eighteenth century. A series of inventions in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries made it possible to produce large quantities of steel at low cost.
2. Until the late eighteenth century chemicals were also produced in small amounts in small workshops. The nineteenth century brought large-scale manufacture of chemicals and the invention of synthetic dyes and other new organic chemicals.
3. Nineteenth century advances in explosives (including Alfred Nobel's invention of dynamite) had significant effects on both civil engineering and on the development of more powerful and more accurate firearms.
4. The complexity of industrial chemistry made it one of the first fields in which science and technology interacted on a daily basis. This development gave a great advantage to Germany, where government-funded research and cooperation between universities and industries made the German chemical and explosives industries the most advanced in the world by the end of the nineteenth century.

D. Electricity

1. In the 1870s inventors devised efficient generators that turned mechanical energy into electricity that could be used to power arc lamps, incandescent lamps, streetcars, subways, and electric motors for industry.
2. Electricity helped to alleviate the urban pollution caused by horse-drawn vehicles. Electricity also created a huge demand for copper, bringing Chile, Montana, and southern Africa more deeply into the world economy.

E. World Trade and Finance

1. Between 1850 and 1913 world trade expanded tenfold, while the cost of freight dropped between 50 and 95 percent so that even cheap and heavy products such as agricultural products, raw materials, and machinery were shipped around the world.
2. The growth of trade and close connections between the industrial economies of Western Europe and North America brought greater prosperity to these areas, but it also made them more vulnerable to swings in the business cycle. One of the main causes of this growing interdependence was the financial power of Great Britain.
3. Non-industrial areas were also tied to the world economy. The non-industrial areas were even more vulnerable to swings in the business cycle because they depended on the export of raw materials that could often be replaced by synthetics or for which the industrial nations could develop new sources of supply. Nevertheless, until World War I, the value of exports from the tropical countries generally remained high, and the size of their populations remained moderate.

XIX. Social Changes

A. Population and Migrations

1. Between 1850 and 1914 Europe saw very rapid population growth, while emigration from Europe spurred population growth in the United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and Argentina. As a result, the proportion of people of European ancestry in the world's population rose from one-fifth to one-third.
2. Reasons for the increase in European population include a drop in the death rate, improved crop yields, the provision of grain from newly opened agricultural land in North America, and the provision of a more abundant year-round diet as a result of canning and refrigeration.
3. Asians also migrated in large numbers during this period, often as indentured laborers.

B. Urbanization and Urban Environments

1. In the latter half of the nineteenth century European, North American, and Japanese cities grew tremendously both in terms of population and of size. In areas like the English Midlands, the German Ruhr, and around Tokyo Bay, towns fused into one another, creating new cities.
2. Urban growth was accompanied by changes in the character of urban life. Technologies that changed the quality of urban life for the rich (and later for the working class as well) included mass transportation networks, sewage and water supply systems, gas and electric lighting, police and fire departments, sanitation and garbage removal, building and health inspection, schools, parks, and other amenities.
3. New neighborhoods and cities were built (and older areas often rebuilt) on a rectangular grid pattern with broad boulevards and modern apartment buildings. Cities were divided into industrial, commercial, and residential zones, with the residential zones occupied by different social classes.
4. While urban environments improved in many ways, air quality worsened. Coal used as fuel polluted the air, while the waste of the thousands of horses that pulled carts and carriages lay stinking in the streets until horses were replaced by streetcars and automobiles in the early twentieth century.

C. Middle-Class Women's "Separate Sphere"

1. The term "Victorian Age" refers not only to the reign of Queen Victoria (r.1837–1901), but also to the rules of behavior and the ideology surrounding the family and relations between men and women. Men and women were thought to belong in "separate spheres," the men in the workplace, the women in the home.
2. Before electrical appliances, a middle-class home demanded lots of work; the advent of modern technology in the nineteenth century eliminated some tasks and made others easier, but rising standards

of cleanliness meant that technological advances did not translate into a decrease in the housewife's total workload.

3. The most important duty of middle-class women was to raise their children. Victorian mothers lavished much time and attention on their children, but girls received an education very different from that of boys.
4. Governments enforced legal discrimination against women throughout the nineteenth century, and society frowned on careers for middle-class women. Women were excluded from jobs that required higher education; teaching was a permissible career, but women teachers were expected to resign when they got married. Some middle-class women were not satisfied with home life and became involved in volunteer work or in the women's suffrage movement.

D. Working-Class Women

1. Working-class women led lives of toil and pain. Many became domestic servants, facing long hours, hard physical labor, and sexual abuse from their masters or their masters' sons.
2. Many more young women worked in factories, where they were relegated to poorly paid work in the textiles and clothing trades. Married women were expected to stay home, raise children, do housework, and contribute to the family income by taking in boarders, doing sewing or other piecework jobs, or by washing other people's clothes.

XX. Socialism and Labor Movements

A. Marx and Socialism

1. Socialism began as an intellectual movement. The best-known socialist was Karl Marx (1818–1883) who, along with Friedrich Engels (1820–1895) wrote the *Communist Manifesto* (1848) and *Das Kapital* (1867).
2. Marx saw history as a long series of clashes between social classes.
3. Marx's theories provided an intellectual framework for general dissatisfaction with unregulated industrial capitalism.
4. Marx took steps to translate his intellectual efforts into political action.

B. Labor Movements

1. Labor unions were organizations formed by industrial workers to defend their interests in negotiations with employers. Labor unions developed from the workers' "friendly societies" of the early nineteenth century and sought better wages, improved working conditions, and insurance for workers.
2. During the nineteenth century workers were brought into electoral politics as the right to vote was extended to all adult males in Europe and North America. Instead of seeking the violent overthrow of the bourgeois class, socialists used their voting power in order to force concessions from the government and even to win elections; the classic case of socialist electoral politics is the Social Democratic Party of Germany.
3. Working-class women had little time for politics and were not welcome in the male dominated trade unions or in the radical political parties. The few women who did participate in radical politics found it difficult to reconcile the demands of workers with those of women.

XXI. Nationalism and the Unification of Germany and Italy

A. Language and National Identity Before 1871

1. Language was usually the crucial element in creating a feeling of national unity, but language and citizenship rarely coincided. The idea of redrawing the boundaries of states to accommodate linguistic, religious, and cultural differences led to the forging of larger states from the many German and Italian principalities, but it threatened to break large multiethnic empires like Austria-Hungary into smaller states.
2. Until the 1860s nationalism was associated with liberalism, as in the case of the Italian liberal nationalist Giuseppe Mazzini. After 1848 conservative political leaders learned how to preserve the social status quo by using public education, universal military service, and colonial conquests to build a sense of national identity that focused loyalty on the state.

B. The Unification of Italy, 1860–1870

1. By the mid-nineteenth century, popular sentiment favored Italian unification. Unification was opposed by Pope Pius IX and Austria.
2. Count Cavour, the prime minister of Piedmont-Sardinia, used the rivalry between France and Austria to gain the help of France in pushing the Austrians out of northern Italy.
3. In the south, Giuseppe Garibaldi led a revolutionary army in 1860 that defeated the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies.
4. A new Kingdom of Italy, headed by Victor Emmanuel (the former king of Piedmont-Sardinia) was formed in 1860. In time, Venetia (1866) and the Papal States (1870) were added to Italy.

C. The Unification of Germany, 1866–1871

1. Until the 1860s the German-speaking people were divided among Prussia, the western half of the Austrian Empire, and numerous smaller states. Prussia took the lead in the movement for German unity because it had a strong industrial base in the Rhineland and an army that was equipped with the latest military, transportation, and communications technology.
2. During the reign of Wilhelm I (r. 1861–1888) the Prussian chancellor Otto von Bismarck achieved the unification of Germany through a combination of diplomacy and the Franco-Prussian War. Victory over

France in the Franco-Prussian War completed the unification of Germany, but it also resulted in German control over the French provinces of Alsace and Lorraine and thus in the long-term enmity between France and Germany.

D. Nationalism after 1871

1. After the Franco-Prussian War all politicians tried to manipulate public opinion in order to bolster their governments by using the press and public education in order to foster nationalistic loyalties. In many countries the dominant group used nationalism to justify the imposition of its language, religion, or customs on minority populations, as in the attempts of Russia to “Russify” its diverse ethnic populations.
2. Herbert Spencer (1820–1903) and others took up Charles Darwin’s ideas of “natural selection” and “survival of the fittest” and applied them to human societies in such a way as to justify European conquest of foreign nations and the social and gender hierarchies of Western society.

XXII. The Great Powers of Europe, 1871–1900

A. Germany at the Center of Europe

1. International relations revolved around a united Germany, which, under Bismarck’s leadership, isolated France and forged a loose coalition with Austria-Hungary and Russia. At home, Bismarck used mass politics and social legislation to gain popular support and to develop a strong sense of national unity and pride amongst the German people.
2. Wilhelm II (r. 1888–1918) dismissed Bismarck and initiated a German foreign policy that placed emphasis on the acquisition of colonies.

B. The Liberal Powers: France and Great Britain

1. France was now a second-rate power in Europe, its population and army being smaller than those of Germany, and its rate of industrial growth lower than that of the Germans. French society seemed divided between monarchist Catholics and republicans with anticlerical views; in fact, popular participation in politics, a strong sense of nationhood, and a system of universal education gave the French people a deeper cohesion than appeared on the surface.
2. In Britain, a stable government and a narrowing in the disparity of wealth were accompanied by a number of problems. Particularly notable were Irish resentment of English rule, an economy that was lagging behind those of the United States and Germany, and an enormous empire that was very expensive to administer and to defend. For most of the nineteenth century Britain pursued a policy of “splendid isolation” toward Europe; preoccupation with India led the British to exaggerate the Russian threat to the Ottoman Empire and to the Central Asian approaches to India while they ignored the rise of Germany.

C. The Conservative Powers: Russia and Austria-Hungary

1. The forces of nationalism weakened Russia and Austria-Hungary. Austria had alienated its Slavic-speaking minorities by renaming itself the “Austro-Hungarian Empire.” The Empire offended Russia by attempting to dominate the Balkans, and particularly by the annexation of Bosnia-Herzegovina in 1908.
2. Ethnic diversity also contributed to instability in Russia. Attempts to foster Russian nationalism and to impose the Russian language on a diverse population proved to be divisive.
3. In 1861 Tsar Alexander II emancipated the peasants from serfdom, but did so in such a way that it only turned them into communal farmers with few skills and little capital. Tsars Alexander III (r. 1881–1894) and Nicholas II (r. 1894–1917) opposed all forms of social change.
4. Russian industrialization was carried out by the state, and thus the middle-class remained small and weak while the land-owning aristocracy dominated the court and administration. Defeat in the Russo-Japanese War (1904–1905) and the Revolution of 1905 demonstrated Russia’s weakness and caused Tsar Nicholas to introduce a constitution and a parliament (the Duma), but he soon reverted to the traditional despotism of his forefathers.

XXIII. Japan Joins the Great Powers, 1865–1905

A. China, Japan, and the Western Powers, to 1867

1. In the late nineteenth century China resisted Western influence and became weaker; Japan transformed itself into a major industrial and military power. The difference can be explained partly by the difference between Chinese and Japanese elites and their attitudes toward foreign cultures.
2. In China a “self-strengthening movement” tried to bring about reforms, but the Empress Dowager Cixi and other officials opposed railways or other technologies that would carry foreign influences into the interior. They were able to slow down foreign intrusion, but in doing so, they denied themselves the best means of defense against foreign pressure.
3. In the early nineteenth century, Japan was ruled by the Tokugawa shogunate and local lords had significant autonomy. This system made it hard for Japan to coordinate its response to outside threats.
4. In 1853, the American Commodore Matthew C. Perry arrived in Japan with a fleet of steam-powered warships and demanded that the Japanese open their ports to trade and American ships.
5. Dissatisfaction with the shogunate’s capitulation to American and European demands led to a civil war and the overthrow of the shogunate in 1868.

B. The Meiji Restoration and the Modernization of Japan, 1868–1894

1. The new rulers of Japan were known as the Meiji oligarchs.

2. The Meiji oligarchs were willing to change their institutions and their society in order to help transform their country into a world-class industrial and military power. The Japanese had a long history of adopting ideas and culture from China and Korea; in the same spirit, the Japanese learned industrial and military technology, science, engineering, and even clothing styles and pastimes from the West.
 3. The Japanese government encouraged industrialization, funding industrial development with tax revenue extracted from the rural sector and then selling state-owned enterprises to private entrepreneurs.
- C. The Birth of Japanese Imperialism, 1894–1905
1. Industrialization was accompanied by the development of an authoritarian constitutional monarchy and a foreign policy that defined Japan’s “sphere of influence” to include Korea, Manchuria, and part of China.
 2. Japan defeated China in a war that began in 1894, thus precipitating an abortive Chinese reform effort (the Hundred Days Reform) in 1898 and setting the stage for Japanese competition with Russia for influence in the Chinese province of Manchuria. Japanese power was further demonstrated when Japan defeated Russia in 1905 and annexed Korea in 1910.

XXIV. The New Imperialism: Motives and Methods

- A. Introduction
1. The New Imperialism was a tremendous explosion of territorial conquest in which the imperial powers used economic and technological means to reorganize dependent regions and bring them into the world economy as suppliers of foodstuffs and raw materials and as consumers of industrial products.
 2. In Africa and in other parts of the world this was done by conquest and colonial administration; in Latin America, the same result was attained by indirect means.
- B. Political Motives
1. One political motive for imperialism was the desire to gain national prestige.
 2. The actions of colonial governors also led to the acquisition of new colonial possessions. Colonial agents often sent troops to take over neighboring territories first and informed their home governments afterwards.
- C. Cultural Motives
1. The late nineteenth century Christian revival in Europe and North America included a commitment to exporting Western “civilization” through Christian missionary activity.
 2. Persons other than missionaries also believed that Europeans and Americans were morally and culturally superior and that their technological prowess was proof of this superiority. Some used racist ideas in order to justify this superiority and to relegate non-Europeans to a permanent state of inferiority.
 3. Imperialism was attractive to young men who found opportunities for adventure and glory in the imperialist enterprise. By the 1890s, imperialism was a popular cause; it was the overseas extension of nationalism.
- D. Economic Motives
1. The industrialization of Europe and North America stimulated a demand for minerals, industrial crops, and stimulants (sugar, coffee, tea, and tobacco). The economic depression of the mid-1870s to the mid-1890s gave the industrialized countries an incentive to seek control of the sources of raw materials and the markets for their industrial products.
 2. Entrepreneurs and investors looked to profit from mines, plantations, and railroads in Asia, Africa, and Latin America. In order to minimize their risks, these entrepreneurs sought the diplomatic and military support of their governments.
- E. The Tools of the Imperialists
1. The Industrial Revolution provided technological innovations that made it possible for Europeans and Americans to build the “New Imperialism.”
 2. Steamships, the Suez Canal, and submarine cables gave European forces greater mobility and better communications than Africans, Asians, or Latin Americans. The discovery that quinine could be used to prevent malaria allowed Europeans to enter Africa in large numbers for the first time.
 3. The invention of the breechloader, smokeless powder, and the machine gun widened the firearms gap and made colonial conquests easier than ever before.
- F. Colonial Agents and Administration
1. Colonialism is the system of administering and exploiting colonies for the benefit of the home country. In applying modern scientific and industrial methods to their colonies, colonialists started the transformation of Asian and African societies that has continued to our day.
 2. The forms of colonial administration varied with the social and economic conditions of the colonies. Some colonies were protectorates that retained their traditional governments, and some were administered directly.
 3. Colonies were administered with the cooperation of indigenous elites. Colonial administrations used two different types of indigenous elites: traditional rulers and youths trained for “modern” jobs as clerks, nurses, policemen, customs inspectors and the like.

4. European and American women seldom took part in the early stages of colonial conquest. When they did arrive in the colonies, the presence of European and American women led to increased racial segregation.

XXV. The Scramble for Africa

A. Egypt

1. The Egyptian khedives carried out a number of expensive modernization projects in the mid-nineteenth century. These projects were financed with high-interest loans from European creditors.
2. French and British bankers lobbied their governments to intervene in Egypt in order to secure their loans. In 1882 the British sent an army into Egypt and established a system of indirect rule that lasted for seventy years.
3. The British worked to develop Egyptian agriculture, especially cotton production, by building a dam across the Nile at Aswan. The economic development of Egypt only benefited a small elite of landowners and merchants, and it was accompanied by the introduction of Western ways that conflicted with the teachings of Islam.

B. Western and Equatorial Africa

1. In West Africa, the French built a railroad from the upper Senegal River to the upper Niger in order to open the interior to French merchants. In the Congo Basin, King Leopold II of Belgium claimed the area south of the Congo River, while France claimed the area on the northern bank.
2. German chancellor Bismarck called the Berlin Conference on Africa in 1885 and 1886 in order to lay out the framework under which Africa would be occupied by the European nations. In practice, the division and occupation of Africa met with resistance and required many years of effort.
3. In West Africa, the new colonial powers took advantage of and developed the existing trade networks. In Equatorial Africa, where there were few inhabitants and little trade, the colonial powers granted concessions to private companies that forced Africans to produce cash crops and to carry them to the nearest navigable river or railroad.

C. Southern Africa

1. Southern Africa had long been attractive to European settlers because of its good pastures and farmland and its mineral wealth. The discovery of diamonds at Kimberley in 1868 attracted European prospectors and Africans; it also set off the process by which the British Cape Colony expanded, annexing Kimberley and defeating the Xhosa and the Zulu.
2. Cecil Rhodes used his British South Africa Company to take over land in central Africa, where he created the colonies of Southern Rhodesia and Northern Rhodesia.
3. British control over South Africa was consolidated when Britain defeated the Afrikaners in the South African War (1899–1902). In 1910 the European settlers created the Union of South Africa, in which the Afrikaners emerged as the ruling element in a government that assigned Africans to reservations and established a system of racial segregation.

D. Political and Social Consequences

1. Africa at the time of the European invasion contained a variety of societies. These societies responded differently to the European invasion; some welcomed the Europeans as allies against local enemies, while others resisted European rule.
2. Pastoral and warrior states like the Zulu and the Ndebele resisted European invasion, as did some commercial states like the kingdom of Asante and Benin. Ethiopia successfully defended itself against an Italian invasion in 1896.
3. In the face of European invasion most Africans simply tried to continue living as before, but colonial policies made this difficult. Colonial emphasis on the production of cash crops, the assignment of land to European companies and planters, and the imposition of hut taxes or head taxes proved highly disruptive. The need to pay taxes in cash forced African men to take low-paid jobs and to migrate to the cities and mining camps in search of work.
4. Some African women welcomed colonial rule because it put an end to fighting and slave trading, but most women benefited less than men did. Women's property rights were undermined by colonial policies that assigned property rights to the head of the household—that is, to the man.

E. Cultural Responses

1. Missionaries were the main conduits by which Africans came into contact with European culture. Missionaries taught both practical skills (crafts and domestic skills) and western ideas. Africans educated in mission schools found that Christian ideals clashed with the reality of colonial exploitation; they began using Christian ideas to critique colonialism.
2. Islam continued to spread southward during the colonial period. Colonialism contributed to the diffusion of Islam by building cities, increasing trade, and allowing Muslims to settle in new areas.

XXVI. Asia and Western Dominance

A. Central Asia

1. Between 1865 and 1876 Russia was able to use modern weapons to advance into Central Asia. The nomadic Kazhaks resisted fiercely, but by the end of the nineteenth century they were reduced to starvation, their grazing lands fenced off and turned over to Russian farmers.
 2. South of the Kazhak steppe the decline of Qing power allowed the Russian Empire to take over the oases with their Muslim populations and their productive cotton-growing land. Russian rule brought few benefits and few changes to the lives of the people of the oases.
- B. Southeast Asia and Indonesia
1. Burma, Malaya, Indochina, and northern Sumatra, all independent kingdoms in the first half of the nineteenth century, were conquered by stages between 1850 and the early 1900s. Only Siam remained independent.
 2. All these areas had fertile soil, a favorable climate, and a highly developed agriculture. The colonial regimes introduced Chinese and Indian laborers and new crops, increasing agricultural production and providing peace and a reliable food supply that fueled a substantial rise in the population.
 3. Colonialism contributed to an expansion of the agricultural population, immigration from China and India, and the spread of Islam. Education in European ideas led to the development of nationalism.
- C. Hawaii and the Philippines, 1878–1902
1. By the late 1890s the U.S. economy was in need of export markets and the political mood was favorable to expansionism. The Hawaiian Islands, controlled by American settlers since 1893, were annexed in 1898.
 2. In the Philippines, Emilio Aguinaldo led an uprising against the Spanish in 1898. He might very well have succeeded in establishing a republic if the United States had not purchased the Philippines from Spain at the end of the Spanish-American War.
 3. In 1899 Aguinaldo rose up against the American occupation. The United States suppressed the insurrection and then tried to soften its rule by introducing public works and economic development projects.

XXVII. Imperialism in Latin America

- A. Railroads and the Imperialism of Free Trade
1. The natural resources of the Latin American republics made them targets for a form of economic dependence called free-trade imperialism.
 2. British and the United States' entrepreneurs financed and constructed railroads in order to exploit the agricultural and mineral wealth of Latin America. Latin American elites encouraged foreign companies with generous concessions because this appeared to be the fastest way both to modernize their countries and to enrich the Latin American property owning class.
- B. American Expansionism and the Spanish-American War, 1898
1. After 1865 the European powers used their financial power to penetrate Latin America, but they avoided territorial conquest. The Monroe Doctrine prohibited European intervention in the Western Hemisphere, but this did not prevent the United States from intervening in the affairs of Latin American nations.
 2. After defeating Spain in the Spanish-American War, the United States took over Puerto Rico, while Cuba became an independent republic subject to intense interference by the United States.
- C. American Intervention in the Caribbean and Central America, 1901–1914
1. The United States often used military intervention to force the small nations of Central America and the Caribbean to repay loans owed to banks in Europe or the United States. The United States occupied Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Nicaragua, Honduras, and Haiti on various occasions during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.
 2. The United States was particularly forceful in Panama, supporting the Panamanian rebellion against Colombia in 1903 and then building and controlling the Panama Canal.

XXVIII. The World Economy and the Global Environment

- A. Expansion of the World Economy
1. The industrial revolution greatly expanded the demand for spices, silk, agricultural goods, and raw materials in the industrialized countries. The growing need for these products could not be met by traditional methods of production and transportation, so the imperialists brought their colonies into the mainstream of the world market and introduced new technologies.
 2. The greatest change was in transportation. Canals, steamships, harbor improvements, and railroads cut travel time and lowered freight costs.
- B. Transformation of the Global Environment
1. The economic changes brought by Europeans and Americans altered environments around the world. Forests were felled for tea plantations, plant species were identified and classified, and commercially valuable plants were transported from one tropical region to another.
 2. The expansion of permanent agriculture and the increased use of irrigation and water control led to increased agricultural production in both well-watered and dry areas of the tropics. Agricultural development supported larger populations, but it also put more pressure on the land.

-
-
3. Railroads consumed vast amounts of land, timber, iron, and coal while opening up previously remote land to development. The demand for gold, iron, and other minerals fueled a mining boom that brought toxic run-off from open mines and from slag heaps.