**PERIOD 3: 1815 to 1914**

***ECONOMIC***

**The Industrial Revolution spread from Great Britain to the continent, where the state played a greater role in promoting industry.**

The transition from an agricultural to an industrial economy began in Britain in the 18th century, spread to France and Germany between 1850 and 1870, and finally to Russia in the 1890s. The governments of those countries actively supported industrialization. In southern and eastern Europe some pockets of industry developed, surrounded by traditional agrarian economies. Though continental nations sought to borrow from and in some instances imitate the British model — the success of which was represented by the Crystal Palace Exhibition in 1851 — each nation’s experience of industrialization was shaped by its own matrix of geographic, social, and political factors. The legacy of the revolution in France, for example, led to a more gradual adoption of mechanization in production, ensuring a more incremental industrialization than was the case in Britain. Despite the creation of a customs union in the 1830s, Germany’s lack of political unity hindered its industrial development. However, following unification in 1871, the German Empire quickly came to challenge British dominance in key industries, such as steel, coal, and chemicals.

Beginning in the 1870s, the European economy fluctuated widely because of the vagaries of financial markets. Continental states responded by assisting and protecting the development of national industry in a variety of ways, the most important being protective tariffs, military procurements, and colonial conquests. Key economic stakeholders, such as corporations and industrialists, expected governments to promote economic development by subsidizing ports, transportation, and new inventions; by registering patents and sponsoring education; by encouraging investments and enforcing contracts; and by maintaining order and preventing labor strikes. State intervention reached its culmination in the 20th century, when some governments took over direction of the entire process of industrial development under the pressure of war and depression and/or from ideological commitments.

**I. Great Britain established its industrial dominance through the mechanization of textile production, iron and steel production, and new transportation systems.**

A Britain’s ready supplies of coal, iron ore, and other essential raw materials promoted industrial growth.

B Economic institutions and human capital such as engineers, inventors, and capitalists helped Britain lead the process of industrialization, largely through private initiative.

 *The Crystal Palace & the Great Exhibition of 1851*

C. Britain’s parliamentary government promoted commercial & industrial interests, because those interests were represented in Parliament.

**II. Following the British example, industrialization took root in continental Europe, sometimes with state sponsorship.**

 A France moved toward industrialization at a more gradual pace than Great Britain, with government support and with less dislocation of traditional methods of production.  *Railroads*

 B Industrialization in Prussia allowed that state to become the leader of a unified Germany, which subsequently underwent rapid industrialization under government sponsorship.  *Zollverein*

C. A combination of factors, including geography, lack of resources, the dominance of traditional landed elites, the persistence of serfdom in some areas, and inadequate government sponsorship accounted for eastern and southern Europe’s lag in industrial development.

 *Lack of resources or Lack of adequate infrastructure (transportation)*

**III. During the Second Industrial Revolution (c. 1870–1914), more areas of Europe experienced industrial activity, &industrial processes increased in scale and complexity.**

 A Mechanization and the factory system became the predominant modes of production by 1914.

 B New technologies and means of communication and transportation — including railroads — resulted in more fully integrated national economies, a higher level of urbanization, and a truly global economic network.

 *Bessemer process Electricity Chemicals*

 *Telegraph, Steamship, Streetcars, Telephones,*

 *Internal Combustion Engine, Airplane, Radio*

C. Volatile business cycles in the last quarter of the 19th century led corporations and governments to try to manage the market through monopolies, banking practices, and tariffs.

***SOCIAL***

**Experiences of everyday life were shaped by industrialization, depending on the level of development in a particular location**.

Industrialization promoted the development of new socioeconomic classes between 1815 and 1914. In highly industrialized areas, such as western and northern Europe, the new economy created new social divisions, leading for the first time to the development of self- conscious economic classes, especially the proletariat and the bourgeoisie. In addition, economic changes led to the rise of trade and industrial unions; benevolent associations; sport clubs; and distinctive class-based cultures of dress, speech, values, and customs. Europe also experienced rapid population growth and urbanization that resulted in benefits as well as social dislocations. The increased population created an enlarged labor force, but in some areas migration from the countryside to the towns and cities led to overcrowding and significant emigration overseas.

Industrialization and urbanization changed the structure and relations of bourgeois
and working-class families to varying degrees. Birth control became increasingly common across Europe, and childhood experience changed with the advent of protective legislation, universal schooling, and smaller families. The growth of a “cult of domesticity” established new models of gendered behavior for men and women. Gender roles became more clearly defined as middle-class women withdrew from the workforce. At the same time, working-class women increased their participation as wage-laborers, although the middle class criticized them for neglecting their families.

Industrialization and urbanization also changed people’s conception of time; in particular, work and leisure were increasingly differentiated by means of the imposition of strict work schedules and the separation of the workplace from the home. Increasingly, trade unions assumed responsibility for the social welfare of working-class families, fighting

for improved working conditions and shorter hours. Increasing leisure time spurred the development of leisure activities and spaces for bourgeois families. Overall, although inequality and poverty remained significant social problems, the quality of material life improved. For most social groups, the standard of living rose; the availability of consumer products grew; and sanitary standards, medical care, and life expectancy improved.

**I. Industrialization promoted the development of new classes in the industrial regions of Europe.**

 A In industrialized areas of Europe (i.e., western and northern Europe), socioeconomic changes created divisions of labor that led to the development of self-conscious classes, such as the proletariat and the bourgeoisie.

 B In some of the less industrialized areas of Europe, the dominance of agricultural elites persisted into the 20th century.

 C. Class identity developed and was reinforced through participation in philanthropic, political, and social associations among the middle classes, and in mutual aid societies and trade unions among the working classes.

1. **Europe experienced rapid population growth and urbanization, leading to social dislocations.**

A Along with better harvests caused in part by the commercialization of agriculture, industrialization promoted population growth, longer life expectancy, and lowered infant mortality.

B With migration from rural to urban areas in industrialized regions, cities experienced overcrowding, while affected rural areas suffered declines in available labor as well as weakened communities.

**III. Over time, the Industrial Revolution altered the family structure and relations for bourgeois and working-class families.**

A Bourgeois families became focused on the nuclear family and the “cult of domesticity,” with distinct gender roles for men and women.

B By the end of the century, wages and the quality of life for the working class improved because of laws restricting the labor of children and women, social welfare programs, improved diet, and the use of birth control. *Factory Act of 33, 10 Hours Act ‘47*

C Economic motivations for marriage, while still important for all classes, diminished as the middle-class notion of companionate marriage began to be adopted by the working classes.

D Leisure time centered increasingly on the family or small groups, concurrent with the development of activities and spaces to use that time.

 *Parks, Sports Arenas, Beaches, Department Stores, Museums, Theaters, Opera*

**IV. A heightened consumerism developed as a result of the Second Industrial Revolution.**

 A. Industrialization and mass marketing increased both the production and demand for a new range of consumer goods — including clothing, processed foods, and labor-saving and leisure.

 *Advertising, Department Stores, Catelogs*

 B New efficient methods of transportation and other innovations created new industries, improved the distribution of goods, increased consumerism, and enhanced the quality of life.

 *Steamships, Railroads, Ice Boxes, Streetcars, Bicycles*

 *Chemicals, Electricity, Autos, Leisure travel, sports*

**V. Because of the persistence of primitive agricultural practices and land-owning patterns, some areas of Europe lagged in industrialization, while facing famine, debt, and land shortages.**

 *Hunry ‘40s Irish Potato Famine, Russian Serfdom*

***INTELLECTUAL (& economic)***

**The problems of industrialization provoked a range of ideological, governmental, and collective responses**.

The French and Industrial Revolutions triggered dramatic political and social consequences and new theories to deal with them. The **ideologies** engendered by these 19th-century revolutions — **conservatism, liberalism, socialism, nationalism**, and even romanticism — provided their adherents with coherent views of the world and differing blueprints for change. For example, **utopian socialists** experimented with communal living as a social and economic response to change. The responses to socioeconomic changes reached a culmination in the revolutions of 1848, but the failure of these uprisings left the issues raised by the economic, political, and social transformations unresolved well into the 20th century.

In the second half of the 19th century, labor leaders in many countries created **unions** and syndicates to provide the working classes with a collective voice, and these organizations used collective action such as strikes and movements for men’s universal suffrage to reinforce their demands**. Feminists** and **suffragists** petitioned and staged public protests to press their demands for similar rights for women. The international movements for socialism, labor, and women’s rights were important examples of a trend toward international cooperation in a variety of causes, including antislavery and peace movements. Finally, **political parties** emerged as sophisticated vehicles for advocating reform or reacting to changing conditions in the political arena.

**Nationalism** acted as one of the most powerful engines of political change, inspiring revolutions as well as campaigns by states for national unity or a higher degree of centralization. Early nationalism emphasized shared historical and cultural experiences that often threatened traditional elites. Over the nineteenth century, leaders recognized the need to promote national unity through economic development and expanding state functions to meet the challenges posed by industry.

**I. Ideologies developed and took root throughout society as a response to industrial and political revolutions.**

 **A.** Liberals emphasized popular sovereignty, individual rights, and enlightened self-interest but debated the extent to which all groups in society should actively participate in its governance.

 *Jeremy Bentham Anti-Corn Law League John Stuart Mill*

 BRadicals in Britain and republicans on the continent demanded universal male suffrage and full citizenship without regard to wealth and property ownership; some argued that such rights should be extended to women.

 *Chartists Flora Tristan*

 C. Conservatives developed a new ideology in support of traditional political and religious authorities, which was based on the idea that human nature was not perfectible.

 *Edmund Burke Klemens von Metternich*

 D. Socialists called for a fair distribution of society’s resources and wealth, and evolved from a utopian to a Marxist “scientific” critique of capitalism.

 *Henri de Saint-Simon Charles Fourier Robert Owen*

 *Marxists: Englels, Bebel, Zetkin, Luxemburg*

 E. Anarchists asserted that all forms of governmental authority were unnecessary, and should be overthrown and replaced with a society based on voluntary cooperation.

 *Mikhail Bakunin Georges Sorel*

 F. Nationalists encouraged loyalty to the nation in a variety of ways, including romantic idealism, liberal reform, political unification, racialism with a concomitant anti-Semitism, and chauvinism justifying national aggrandizement.

 *Dreyfus Affair Chrisitan Social Party (Gemany) Karl Lueger*

G. A form of Jewish nationalism, Zionism, developed in the late 19th century as a response to growing anti-Semitism in both western and eastern Europe. *Theodore Herzl*

**II. Governments responded to the problems created or exacerbated by industrialization by expanding their functions and creating modern bureaucratic states.**

 A Liberalism shifted from laissez-faire to interventionist economic and social policies on behalf of the less privileged; the policies were based on a rational approach to reform that addressed the impact of the Industrial Revolution on the individual.

 B Government reforms transformed unhealthy and overcrowded cities by modernizing infrastructure, regulating public health, reforming prisons, and establishing modern police forces.

 *Sewage Public Lighting Public Housing Urban redesign Parks*

C. Governments promoted compulsory public education to advance the goals of public order, nationalism, and economic growth.

**III. Political movements and social organizations responded to the problems of industrialization.**

 A. Mass-based political parties emerged as sophisticated vehicles for social, economic, and political reform.

 *Conservative & Liberals in G.B.*

 *Conservatives & Socialists in Fr*

 *Social Democratic Party (Gr)*

B Feminists pressed for legal, economic, and political rights for women, as well as improved working conditions.

 *Flora Tristan WSPU Pankhurst Family*

 C. Various private, nongovernmental reform movements sought to lift up the deserving poor and end serfdom and slavery.

 *Reform: Temperance Movement British Abolitionist*

 *Deserving Poor: Young Prostitutes, Children, Women, Elderly*

***INTERNATIONAL***

**European states struggled to maintain international stability in an age of nationalism and revolutions.**

Following a quarter-century of revolutionary upheaval and war spurred by Napoleon’s imperial ambitions, the Great Powers met in Vienna in 1814-15 to re-establish a workable balance of power and suppress liberal and nationalist movements for change. Austrian Foreign Minister Klemens von Metternich led the way in creating an informal security arrangement to resolve international disputes and stem revolution through common action among the Great Powers. Nonetheless, revolutions aimed at liberalization of the political system and national self-determination defined the period from 1815 to 1848.

The revolutions that swept Europe in 1848 were triggered by poor economic conditions, frustration at the slow pace of political change, and unfulfilled nationalist aspirations. At first, revolutionary forces succeeded in establishing regimes dedicated to change or to gaining independence from great-power domination. However, conservative forces, which still controlled the military and bureaucracy, reasserted control. Although the revolutions of 1848 were, as George Macaulay Trevelyn quipped, a “turning point at which modern history failed to turn,” they set the stage for a subsequent sea change in European diplomacy. A new breed of conservative leader, exemplified by Napoleon III of France, co-opted nationalism as a top-down force for the advancement of state power and authoritarian rule in the name of “the people.” Further, the Crimean War (1853– 1856), prompted by the decline of the Ottoman Empire, shattered the Concert of Europe established in 1815, and opened the door for the unifications of Italy and Germany. Using the methods of *Realpolitik,* Cavour in Italy and Bismarck in Germany succeeded in unifying their nations after centuries of disunity. Their policies of war, diplomatic intrigue, and, in Bismarck’s instance, manipulation of democratic mechanisms created states with the potential for upsetting the balance of power, particularly in the case of Germany.

Following the Crimean War, Russia undertook a series of internal reforms aimed at achieving industrial modernization. The reforms succeeded in establishing an industrial economy and emboldened Russia’s aspirations in the Balkans. They also led to an active revolutionary movement, which employed political violence and assassinations and was one of the driving forces behind the 1905 Russian Revolution.

After the new German Emperor Wilhelm II dismissed Chancellor Bismarck in 1890, Germany’s diplomatic approach altered significantly, leading to a shift in the alliance system and increased tensions in European diplomacy. Imperial antagonisms, growing nationalism, militarism, and other factors resulted in the development of a rigid system of alliances. The Great Powers militarized their societies and built up army and naval forces to unprecedented levels (fed by industrial and technological advances), while at the same time developing elaborate plans for the next war. The long-anticipated war finally came in the summer of 1914. The assassination of the heir to the Austrian throne in Sarajevo forced the political leaders of the Great Powers, locked in the rigid structure of the Triple Entente versus the Triple Alliance, to implement war plans that virtually required the escalation of hostilities. The ensuing Great War revealed the flaws in the diplomatic order established after the unifications of Germany and Italy, but more important, it produced an even more challenging diplomatic situation than that faced by the diplomats in 1814-15.

1. **European nations were driven by economic, political, and cultural motivations in their new imperial ventures in Asia and Africa.**

A European national rivalries and strategic concerns fostered imperial expansion and competition for colonies.

B The search for raw materials and markets for manufactured goods, as well as strategic and nationalistic considerations, drove Europeans to colonize Africa and Asia, even as European colonies in the Americas broke free politically, if not economically.

C Europeans justified imperialism through an ideology of cultural and racial superiority.

**II. Industrial and technological developments (i.e., the Second Industrial Revolution) facilitated European control of global empires.**

A The development of advanced weaponry invariably ensured the military superiority of Europeans over colonized areas.

 *Minie Ball, Breech-Loading Rifle, Machine Gun*

B Communication and transportation technologies allowed for the creation of European empires.

C Advances in medicine supported European control of Africa and Asia by preserving European lives.

 *Louis Pasteur’s Germ Theory, Anesthesia & Antiseptics*

**III. Imperial endeavors significantly affected society, diplomacy, and culture in Europe and created resistance to foreign control abroad. Imperialism created diplomatic tensions among European states that strained alliance systems.**

 A Imperial encounters with non-European peoples influenced the styles and subject matter of artists and writers and provoked debate over the acquisition of colonies.

 *Berlin Conference ’84 Moroccan Crisis*

 B Imperial encounters with non-European peoples influenced the styles and subject matter of artists and writers and provoked debate over the acquisition of colonies.

 *Paul Gauguin & Picasso’s Primitism*

 *Van Gogh & Japanese prints*

 *Heart of Darkness*

 *Imperialism Debate: Pan-German League Lenin’s anti-Imperialism*

C. As non-Europeans became educated in Western values, they challenged European imperialism through nationalist movements and/or by modernizing their own economies and societies.

 *Zulu, Sepoy Mutiny, Boxer Rebellion Meiji Restoration*

***INTELLECTUAL/ ARTISTIC***

**European ideas and culture expressed a tension between objectivity and scientific realism on one hand, and subjectivity and individual expression on the other.**

The romantic movement of the early 19th century set the stage for later cultural perspectives by encouraging individuals to cultivate their uniqueness and to trust intuition and emotion as much as reason. Partly in reaction to the Enlightenment, romanticism affirmed the value of sensitivity, imagination, and creativity, and thereby provided a climate for artistic experimentation. Later artistic movements such as Impressionism, Expressionism, and Cubism, which rested on subjective interpretations of reality by the individual artist or writer, arose from the attitudes fostered by romanticism. The sensitivity of artists to non-European traditions that imperialism brought to their attention also can be traced to the romantics’ emphasis on the primacy of culture in defining the character of individuals and groups.

In science, Darwin’s evolutionary theory raised questions about human nature, and physicists began to challenge the uniformity and regularity of the Newtonian universe. In 1905 Einstein’s theory of relativity underscored the position of the observer in defining reality, while the quantum principles of randomness and probability called the objectivity of Newtonian mechanics into question. The emergence of psychology as an independent discipline, separate from philosophy on the one hand and neurology on the other, led
to investigations of human behavior that gradually revealed the need for more subtle methods of analysis than those provided by the physical and biological sciences. Freud’s investigations into the human psyche suggested the power of irrational motivations and unconscious drives.

Many writers saw humans as governed by spontaneous, irrational forces and believed that intuition and will were as important as reason and science in the search for truth. In art, literature, and science, traditional notions of objective, universal truths and values increasingly shared the stage with a commitment to and recognition of subjectivity, skepticism, and cultural relativism.

**I. Romanticism broke with neoclassical forms of artistic representation and with rationalism, placing more emphasis on intuition and emotion.**

 A. Romantic **artists** &**composers** broke from classical artistic forms to emphasize emotion, nature, individuality, intuition, the supernatural, and national histories in their works.

 *Caspar David Friedrich Delacroix Goya Beethoven, Wagner*

B. Romantic **writers** expressed similar themes while responding to the Industrial Revolution and to various political revolutions.

 *Goethe, Keats Shelley Victor Hugo*

**II. Following the revolutions of 1848, Europe turned toward a realist and materialist worldview.**

 A. **Positivism**, or the philosophy that science alone provides knowledge, emphasized the rational and scientific analysis of nature and human affairs.

 B **Charles Darwin** provided a rational and material account of biological change and the development of human beings as a species, and inadvertently a justification for racialist theories known as **“Social Darwinism.”**

 C **Marx’s “scientific” socialism** provided a systematic critique of capitalism and a deterministic analysis of society and historical evolution.

 D **Realist** and materialist themes and attitudes influenced art & literature as painters and writers depicted the lives of ordinary people and drew attention to social problems.

 *Dickens; Millet & Courbet; Emile Zola*

**III. A new relativism in values and the loss of confidence in the objectivity of knowledge led to modernism in intellectual and cultural life.**

 **A.** Philosophy largely moved from rational interpretations of nature and human society to an emphasis on irrationality and impulse, a view that contributed to the belief that conflict and struggle led to progress.

 *Nietzsche*

 B Freudian psychology provided a new account of human nature that emphasized the role of the irrational and the struggle between the conscious and subconscious.

 C. Developments in the natural sciences such as quantum mechanics and Einstein’s theory of relativity undermined the primacy of Newtonian physics as an objective description of nature.

 *Max Planck; Marie Curie*

 D. **Modern art**, including Impressionism, Post-Impressionism, & Cubism, moved beyond the representational to the subjective, abstract, & expressive & often provoked audiences that believed that art should reflect shared and idealized values such as beauty and patriotism.

 *Monet; Cezanne; Matisse; Degas; Picasso*