

# Industrialization and Nationalism

1800–1870

**ESSENTIAL QUESTIONS** • *How can innovation affect ways of life?*  
• *How does revolution bring about political and economic change?*



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*There's More Online!* about industrialization and nationalism.

## CHAPTER 10

### Lesson 1

*The Industrial Revolution*

### Lesson 2

*Nationalism and Political Revolutions*

### Lesson 3

*Nationalism, Unification, and Reform*

### Lesson 4

*Nation Building in Latin America*

### Lesson 5

*Romanticism and Realism*

## The Story Matters...

The ideals of the American and French Revolutions encouraged independence movements in other parts of the world. Napoleon's invasion of Spain weakened Spanish control of its Latin American colonies, resulting in nationalist uprisings there. These revolts were led by members of a Latin American-born elite of Spanish descent, such as Simón Bolívar, who vowed to bring freedom and independence to Latin America.

◀ Painted in about 1829 by Antonio Salas, this portrait of Bolívar, showing him as a dramatic figure posed against a dark background, presents the nationalist as a triumphant military leader.

PHOTO: Christie's Images/CORBIS



# Place and Time: Europe 1800–1870

The people of the nineteenth century witnessed the dramatic rise and fall of governments, the explosion of war and changing borders, and the rise of liberal economics and nationalist politics. The British government's support for free trade and its willingness to make political compromises to the middle classes helped it avoid the fate of many European nations where citizens took up arms for national identity in 1848. There were many causes of the Revolutions of 1848, including nationalism, the repressive nature of governments, and famines. The men and women of the middle classes and the urban working classes were discontented with their leaders.

## Step Into the Place

Read the quotes and look at the information presented on the map.

**DBQ Analyzing Historical Documents** Compare the lines from Shelley's poem to the excerpt from Macaulay's speech, focusing on their views of revolution. Use the map to draw a conclusion about which viewpoint dominated British politics in the nineteenth century.

**PRIMARY SOURCE**

“Men of England, wherefore plough  
For the lords who lay ye low?  
Wherefore weave with toil and care  
The rich robes your tyrants wear? . . .  
  
Sow seed,—but let no tyrant reap:  
Find wealth,—let no imposter heap;  
Weave robes,—let not the idle wear;  
Forge arms,—in your defence to bear . . .”

—Percy Bysshe Shelley, from “A Song: ‘Men of England,’” 1819

**PRIMARY SOURCE**

“For the sake, therefore, of the whole society, for the sake of the labouring classes themselves, I hold it to be clearly expedient that, in a country like this, the right of suffrage should depend on a pecuniary [monetary] qualification . . . I am opposed to Universal Suffrage, because I think that it would produce a destructive revolution. I support this plan [electoral reform], because I am sure that it is our best security against a revolution.”

—Thomas Babington Macaulay, from a speech in Parliament, March 2, 1831



PHOTO: (Hulton Archive/Getty Images, (iStockphoto.com/Asset Management Ltd.) SuperStock

## Step Into the Time

### Determining Understanding



Choose an event from the time line and explain how it shows a consequence of political unrest in Europe or a consequence of the Industrial Revolution.





# networks

There's More Online!

- 
**MAP** Explore the interactive version of this map on Networks.
- 
**TIME LINE** Explore the interactive version of the time line on Networks.



## Revolutionary Outbursts and Political Revolutions 1830–1848



**1833** British Factory Act begins age of government regulations over factories

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

**1852** A year after a coup d'état overthrows the French Republic, Second Empire is proclaimed in France

**1853–1856** Crimean War

**1867** Dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary is created

**1871** German unification achieved under William I

**1840**

**1860**

**1880**

**1839** Opium War begins in China

**1842** Treaty of Nanjing grants Hong Kong Island to Britain in perpetuity

**1850** Taiping Rebellion begins in China

**1865** Confederate forces surrender, ending the American Civil War

**1867** French troops withdraw from Mexico

**1868** Meiji Restoration in Japan

**1869** Opening of the Suez Canal, ending overland route and reducing shipping costs



## networks

### There's More Online!

- ✓ BIOGRAPHY James Watt
- ✓ BIOGRAPHY Robert Fulton
- ✓ IMAGE The Rocket Steam Engine
- ✓ IMAGE Women Working in an English Cotton Mill
- ✓ INTERACTIVE SELF-CHECK QUIZ
- ✓ MAP Industry in Great Britain, 1850
- ✓ PRIMARY SOURCE A Miner's Story, 1842
- ✓ PRIMARY SOURCE Condition of the Working Class in England, 1844
- ✓ VIDEO The Industrial Revolution



## LESSON 1

# The Industrial Revolution

**ESSENTIAL QUESTIONS** • How can innovation affect ways of life?  
• How does revolution bring about political and economic change?

## IT MATTERS BECAUSE

During the late eighteenth century, the Industrial Revolution began in Great Britain. An agricultural revolution and industrialization caused a shift from an economy based on farming and handicrafts to an economy based on manufacturing by machines in factories.

## The Industrial Revolution in Great Britain

**GUIDING QUESTIONS** What was the significance of the Agricultural Revolution in Great Britain? Why did the Industrial Revolution start in Great Britain?

The Industrial Revolution began in Great Britain in the 1780s. However, it took decades to spread to other Western nations. Several factors contributed to make Great Britain the starting place.

First, an Agricultural Revolution beginning in the eighteenth century changed agricultural practices. Expansion of farmland, good weather, improved transportation, and new crops such as the potato dramatically increased the food supply. More people could be fed at lower prices with less **labor**. Now even ordinary British families could use some of their income to buy manufactured goods.

Second, with the increased food supply, the population grew. When Parliament passed enclosure movement laws in the eighteenth century, landowners fenced off common lands. This forced many peasants to move to towns, creating a labor supply for factories.

Third, Britain had a ready supply of money, or **capital**, to invest in new machines and factories. **Entrepreneurs** found new business opportunities and new ways to make profits.

Fourth, natural resources were plentiful in Britain. The country's rivers provided water power for the new factories and a means for transporting raw materials and finished products. Britain also had abundant supplies of coal and iron ore.

Finally, a supply of markets gave British manufacturers a ready outlet for their goods. Britain had a vast colonial empire, and British

## Reading HELPDESK



### Academic Vocabulary

- labor
- derived

### Content Vocabulary

- capital
- entrepreneur
- cottage industry
- puddling
- industrial capitalism
- socialism

### TAKING NOTES:

#### Key Ideas and Details

**Categorizing** As you read, use a table like the one below to name important inventors mentioned in this section and their inventions.

Inventors	Inventions



ships could transport goods anywhere in the world. Also, because of population growth and cheaper food at home, domestic markets increased. A growing demand for cotton cloth led British manufacturers to look for ways to increase production.

### Cotton Production and New Factories

In the eighteenth century, Great Britain had surged far ahead in the production of inexpensive cotton goods. The manufacture of cotton cloth was a two-step process. First, spinners made cotton thread from raw cotton. Then, weavers wove the cotton thread into cloth on looms. In the eighteenth century, individuals did these tasks in their rural cottages. This production method was thus called a **cottage industry**.

A series of technological advances during this time made the cottage industry inefficient. In 1764 James Hargreaves had invented a machine called the spinning jenny, which made the spinning process much faster. In fact, spinners produced thread faster than weavers could use it.

The invention of a water-powered loom by Edmund Cartwright in 1787 made it possible for the weaving of cloth to catch up with the spinning of thread. It was now more efficient to bring workers to the new machines and have them work in factories near streams and rivers, which were used to power many of these early machines.

The cotton industry became even more productive when the steam engine was improved in the 1760s by James Watt, a Scottish engineer. In 1782 Watt made changes that enabled the engine to drive machinery. Steam power could now be used to spin and weave cotton. Before long, cotton mills using steam engines could be found throughout Britain. Because steam engines were fired by coal, not powered by water, they did not need to be located near rivers.

British cotton cloth production increased dramatically. In 1760 Britain had imported 2.5 million pounds (1.14 million kg) of raw cotton, which was used to produce cloth in cottage industries. By 1840, 366 million pounds (166 million kg) of cotton were imported each year. By this time, cotton cloth was Britain's most valuable product. Sold around the world, British cotton goods were produced mainly in factories.

The factory was another important element in the Industrial Revolution. From its beginning, the factory created a new labor system. Factory owners wanted to use their new machines constantly. So, workers were forced to work in shifts to keep the machines producing at a steady rate.

**labor** work performed by people that provides the goods or services in an economy

**capital** money available for investment

**entrepreneur** a person who finds new business opportunities and new ways to make profits

**cottage industry** a method of production in which tasks are done by individuals in their rural homes

▼ Titled *Carding, Drawing, and Roving*, this print shows girls and women working in an English cotton mill.

#### ► CRITICAL THINKING

**Analyzing Information** In what way does this image depict factory work?





Early factory workers came from rural areas where they were used to periods of hectic work, such as harvest time, followed by periods of inactivity. Early factory owners therefore disciplined workers to a system of regular hours and repetitive tasks. For example, adult workers were fined for being late and were dismissed for more serious misconduct, especially being drunk. Child workers were often beaten with a rod or whipped to keep them at work. One early industrialist said that his aim was “to make such machines of the Men as cannot err.”

### Coal, Iron, and Railroads

The steam engine was crucial to Britain’s Industrial Revolution. For fuel, the engine depended on coal, which seemed then to be unlimited in quantity. The success of the steam engine increased the need for coal and led to an expansion in coal production. New processes using coal aided the transformation of another industry—the iron industry.

Britain’s natural resources included large supplies of iron ore. A better quality of iron was produced in the 1780s when Henry Cort developed a process called **puddling**. In this process, coke, which was **derived** from coal, was used to burn away impurities in crude iron, called pig iron, and to produce an iron of high quality.

The British iron industry boomed. In 1740 Britain had produced 17,000 tons (15,419 metric tons or t) of iron. After Cort’s process came into use in the 1780s, production jumped to nearly 70,000 tons (63,490 t). In 1852 Britain produced almost 3 million tons (2.7 million t)—more iron than was produced by the rest of the world combined. High-quality iron was used to build new machines, especially trains.

In the eighteenth century, more efficient means of moving resources and goods developed. Railroads were particularly important to the success of the Industrial Revolution. Richard Trevithick, an English engineer, built the first steam locomotive. In 1804 Trevithick’s locomotive ran on an industrial rail line in Britain. It pulled 10 tons (9 t) of ore and 70 people at 5 miles (8.05 km) per hour. Better locomotives soon followed. One called the *Rocket* was used on the first public railway line, which opened in 1830 and extended 32 miles (51.5 km) from the cotton-manufacturing town of Manchester to the thriving port of Liverpool.

The *Rocket* sped along at 16 miles (25.7 km) per hour while pulling a 40-ton (36-t) train. Within 20 years, locomotives were able to reach 50 miles (80.5 km) per hour, an incredible speed. In 1840 Britain had almost 2,000 miles (3,218 km) of railroads. In 1850 more than 6,000 miles (9,654 km) of railroad track crisscrossed much of the country.

Building railroads created new jobs for farm laborers and peasants. Less expensive transportation led to lower-priced goods, thus creating larger markets. More sales meant more demand and the need for more factories

and more machinery. Business owners could reinvest their profits in new equipment, adding to the growth of the economy.

This type of regular, ongoing economic growth became a basic feature of the new industrial economy.

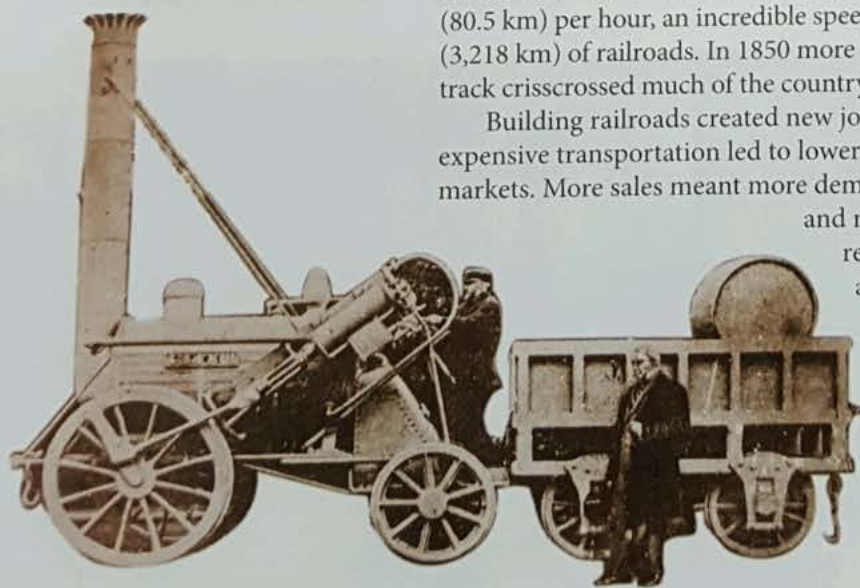
#### ✓ READING PROGRESS CHECK

**Making Inferences** Why might it be important to have fast, reliable transportation between Manchester and Liverpool?

**puddling** the process in which coke derived from coal is used to burn away impurities in crude iron to produce high quality iron

**derived** obtained from; came from

▼ The *Rocket* locomotive

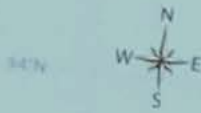






## Industry in Great Britain 1850

0 100 miles  
0 100 km  
Lambert Conformal Conic projection



ATLANTIC OCEAN

IRELAND

### GEOGRAPHY CONNECTION

By 1850, Great Britain was an industrial nation.

- 1 THE WORLD IN SPATIAL TERMS** Which major ports are located along coalfields?
- 2 THE USES OF GEOGRAPHY** What geographical factors help explain why industrialization began in Great Britain?



## The Spread of Industrialization

**GUIDING QUESTION** What factors fed the spread of industrialization in Europe and North America?

By the mid-nineteenth century, Great Britain had become the world's first industrial nation. It had also become the world's richest nation. Great Britain produced one-half of the world's coal and manufactured goods. Its cotton industry alone in 1850 was equal in size to the industries of all other European countries combined.

The Industrial Revolution spread to the rest of Europe at different times and at different speeds. Belgium, France, and the German states were the first to be industrialized in continental Europe, and their governments actively encouraged such development. For example, governments provided funds to build roads, canals, and railroads. By 1850, a network of iron rails spread across Europe.

An Industrial Revolution also occurred in the United States during the first half of the nineteenth century. In 1800 more than 5 million people lived in the United States, and nearly 6 out of every 7 American workers were farmers. No city had more than 100,000 people. In contrast, the U.S. population had grown to more than 30 million people by 1860. Many of these people moved into the cities. Eight cities had populations over 100,000, and only about 50 percent of American workers were farmers.

A large country, the United States needed a good transportation system to move goods across the nation. Thousands of miles of roads and canals were built to link east and west. Robert Fulton built the first paddle-wheel steamboat, the *Clermont*, in 1807. Steamboats made transportation easier on the waterways of the United States.



### Children in Factories

On the conditions of child factory workers:

“Provided a child should be drowsy, the overlooker walks round the room . . . and he touches the child on the shoulder, and says, ‘Come here.’ In the corner of the room there is an iron cistern; it is filled with water . . . he takes this boy, and holding him up by the legs, dips him over head in the cistern, and sends him to work for the remainder of the day. . . .”

—from a British Parliament report, quoted in *The History of the Factory Movement, Vol. I, 1857*

**DBQ** **MAKING INFERENCES**  
Why might the British Parliament have examined the conditions of child factory workers?

**industrial capitalism**  
an economic system based on industrial production or manufacturing

Most important in the development of an American transportation system was the railroad. By 1860, about 30,000 miles (48,270 km) of railroad track covered the continental United States. The railroad soon turned the country into a single massive market for the manufactured goods produced in the Northeast.

Labor for the growing number of factories in the Northeast came chiefly from the farm population. Women and girls made up a large majority of the workers in large textile (cotton and wool) factories.

### READING PROGRESS CHECK

**Comparing** How did the effects of industrialization in the United States compare with those in Great Britain?

## Social Impact of Industrialization

**GUIDING QUESTION** *What was the social impact of industrialization in Europe?*

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

### Population Growth and Urbanization

European population stood at an estimated 140 million in 1750. By 1850, the population had almost doubled to 266 million. The key to this growth was a decline in death rates, wars, and major epidemic diseases, such as smallpox and plague. Because of an increase in the food supply, people were better fed and more resistant to disease.

Famine and poverty were two factors that impacted global migration and urbanization. More than 1 million people died during the Irish potato famine, and poverty led a million more to migrate to the Americas. Industrialization also spurred urbanization, as large numbers of people migrated from the countryside to cities to work in factories.

In 1800 Great Britain had one major city, London, with a population of about 1 million. Six cities had populations between 50,000 and 100,000. By 1850, London’s population had swelled to about 2.5 million. Nine cities had populations over 100,000. Also, more than 50 percent of the population lived in towns and cities.

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

### New Social Classes

The Middle Ages saw the rise of commercial capitalism, an economic system based on trade. **Industrial capitalism**, an economic system based on industrial production, rose during the Industrial Revolution. This system produced a new middle-class group—the industrial middle class.

In the Middle Ages, the bourgeois, or middle-class person, was the burgher or town dweller. The bourgeois were merchants, officials, artisans, lawyers, or intellectuals. Later, the term *bourgeois* came to include people involved in industry and banking, as well as lawyers, teachers, or doctors. The new industrial middle class that emerged during the Industrial Revolution was made up of the people who built the factories, bought the machines, and developed the markets. They had initiative, vision, ambition, and often greed. One said, “Getting of money... is the main business of the life of Man. . . .”



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

Conditions in the coal mines were harsh. Steam-powered engines lifted the coal from the mines to the top, but the men inside the mines dug out the coal. Dangerous conditions, including cave-ins, explosions, and gas fumes, were a way of life. The cramped conditions in the mines and their constant dampness led to workers' deformed bodies and ruined lungs.

The worst conditions were in the cotton mills, which were also dirty, dusty, dangerous, and unhealthy. In Britain, women and children made up two-thirds of the cotton industry's workforce by 1830. However, the number of child laborers declined after the Factory Act of 1833. This act set nine as the minimum age for employment and limited hours for older children. After this, women came to make up 50 percent of the British labor force in textile factories. They were paid half or less than half of what men received. When the work hours of children and women were limited, a new pattern of work emerged. Men now earned most of the family income by working outside the home. Women took over daily care of the family and performed low-paying jobs that could be done at home.

### Early Socialism

In the first half of the nineteenth century, the pitiful conditions created by the Industrial Revolution gave rise to a movement known as **socialism**. In this economic system, society—usually in the form of the government—owns and controls some means of production, such as factories and utilities.

Early socialism was largely the idea of intellectuals. To later socialists, especially the followers of Karl Marx, such ideas were impractical dreams. They contemptuously labeled the earlier reformers utopian socialists, a term that has lasted to this day. Robert Owen, a British cotton manufacturer, was one utopian socialist. He believed that humans would show their natural goodness if they lived in a cooperative environment. Owen transformed the squalid factory town of New Lanark, Scotland, into a flourishing community. He created a similar community at New Harmony, Indiana, in the United States in the 1820s, which failed.

#### READING PROGRESS CHECK

**Drawing Conclusions** Why do you think the working conditions during the Industrial Revolution led some to argue for socialism?



▲ Children and women working in an English coal mine

**socialism** a system in which society, usually in the form of the government, owns and controls the means of production

PHOTO: The Stapleton Collection/Bridgeman Art Library

## LESSON 1 REVIEW



### Reviewing Vocabulary

**1. Summarizing** Write a paragraph describing the importance of urbanization to the growth of industrial capitalism in Great Britain.

### Using Your Notes

**2. Organizing** Use your graphic organizer to discuss the major inventors and inventions covered in this lesson.

### Answering the Guiding Questions

**3. Evaluating** What was the significance of the Agricultural Revolution in Great Britain?

**4. Identifying** Why did the Industrial Revolution start in Great Britain?

**5. Making Connections** What factors fed the spread of industrialization in Europe and North America?

**6. Drawing Conclusions** What was the social impact of industrialization in Europe?

### Writing Activity

**7. INFORMATIVE/EXPLANATORY** Using the information you collected in your graphic organizer, write a paragraph describing the impact the various inventions had on the Industrial Revolution.



## networks

### There's More Online!

- ✓ **BIOGRAPHY** Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte
- ✓ **CHART/GRAPH** Revolutions of 1830
- ✓ **IMAGE** Overthrow of King Louis Philippe
- ✓ **IMAGE** Revolt in the Austrian Empire
- ✓ **INTERACTIVE SELF-CHECK QUIZ**
- ✓ **MAP** Nationalities in Austria-Hungary, Mid-1800s
- ✓ **VIDEO** Nationalism and Political Revolutions



## LESSON 2

# Nationalism and Political Revolutions

**ESSENTIAL QUESTIONS** • How can innovation affect ways of life?  
• How does revolution bring about political and economic change?

## IT MATTERS BECAUSE

After the Napoleonic wars, European rulers sought to restore stability by reestablishing much of the old order. They also wanted to keep a balance of power among nations. New forces for change, however, especially liberalism and nationalism, had become too powerful to be contained. Revolts and revolutions soon shook Europe.

## The Revolutions of the 1830s

**GUIDING QUESTION** How did liberalism and nationalism present a challenge to conservatism in Europe during the 1830s and 1840s?

Governments in Europe attempted to maintain the old order during the nineteenth century. Beginning in 1830, however, the forces of change—liberalism and nationalism—began to break through the conservative domination of Europe.

In France the Bourbon monarch Charles X, a reactionary, attempted to censor the press and take away voting rights from much of the middle class. In response, liberals overthrew Charles X in 1830 and established a constitutional monarchy. Louis-Philippe, a cousin of Charles X, took the throne. Political support for the new monarch came from the upper-middle class.

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

### ✓ READING PROGRESS CHECK

**Evaluating** In what ways were liberalism and nationalism causes for the revolutions of the 1830s in Europe?

## Reading HELPDESK



### Academic Vocabulary

- radical
- temporary

### Content Vocabulary

- universal male suffrage
- multinational empire

### TAKING NOTES:

#### Key Ideas and Details

**Comparing and Contrasting** Use your graphic organizer to compare and contrast the revolutions of 1830 and 1848.

	1830	1848
Governments/countries in power		
Groups revolting		
Outcomes		



## The Revolutions of 1848

**GUIDING QUESTIONS** How did liberalism and nationalism present a challenge to conservatism in Europe during the 1830s and 1840s? What were the results of the revolutionary uprisings that occurred throughout Europe in 1848?

Despite liberal and nationalist successes in France and Belgium, the conservative order still dominated much of Europe as the midpoint of the nineteenth century approached. However, the forces of liberalism and nationalism continued to grow. These forces of change erupted once more in the revolutions of 1848.

### Another French Revolution

Revolution in France was again the spark for revolution in other countries. Severe economic problems beginning in 1846 brought untold hardship in France to the lower middle class, workers, and peasants. At the same time, members of the middle class clamored for the right to vote. The government of Louis-Philippe refused to make changes, and opposition grew.

The monarchy was finally overthrown in 1848. A group of moderate and **radical** republicans set up a provisional, or **temporary**, government. The republicans were people who wanted France to be a republic—a government in which leaders are elected.

The provisional government called for the election of representatives to a Constituent Assembly that would draw up a new constitution. Election would be determined by **universal male suffrage**, meaning all adult men could vote. The provisional government also set up national workshops to provide work for the unemployed. From March to June, the number of unemployed enrolled in the national workshops rose from about 66,000 to almost 120,000. This emptied the treasury and frightened the moderates, who reacted by closing the workshops on June 21, 1848.

The workers refused to accept this decision to close down the workshops. They poured into the streets in protest. In four days of bitter and bloody fighting, government forces crushed the working-class revolt. Thousands were killed and thousands more were sent to the French prison colony of Algeria in northern Africa.

The new French constitution, ratified on November 4, 1848, set up a republic called the Second Republic. The Second Republic had a single legislature elected by universal male suffrage. A president, also chosen by universal male suffrage, served for four years. In the elections for the presidency held in December 1848, Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte (called Louis-Napoleon), the nephew of the famous French ruler, won a resounding victory.

**radical** relating to a political group associated with views, practices, and policies of extreme change

**temporary** lasting for a limited time; not permanent

**universal male suffrage** the right of all males to vote in elections



▲ Burning the French throne at the Place de la Bastille, 1848

#### ► CRITICAL THINKING

**Drawing Inferences** Describe the symbolic meaning of this painting.





▲ The National Guard breaks up a labor uprising in Vienna, 1848.

► **CRITICAL THINKING**

**Drawing Conclusions** How does this image illustrate the chaos and level of participation in the 1848 revolts?

### Revolt in the German States

News of the 1848 revolution in France led to upheaval in other parts of Europe. The Congress of Vienna, which lasted from 1814 to 1815, had recognized the existence of 38 independent German states (called the German Confederation). Of these, Austria and Prussia were the two great powers. The other states varied in size.

In 1848 cries for change led many German rulers to promise constitutions, a free press, jury trials, and other liberal reforms. In May 1848, an all-German parliament, called the Frankfurt Assembly, was held to fulfill a liberal and nationalist dream—the preparation of a constitution for a new united Germany. The Frankfurt Assembly’s proposed constitution provided for a German state with a parliamentary government and a hereditary emperor ruling under a limited monarchy. The constitution also allowed for direct election of deputies to the parliament by universal male suffrage.

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

### Revolutions in Central Europe

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

In March 1848, demonstrations erupted in the major cities. To calm the demonstrators, the Hapsburg court dismissed Metternich, the Austrian foreign minister, who fled to England. In Vienna, revolutionary forces took control of the capital and demanded a liberal constitution. To appease the revolutionaries, the government gave Hungary its own legislature. In Bohemia, the Czechs clamored for their own government.

**multinational empire** an empire in which people of many nationalities live



Austrian officials had made concessions to appease the revolutionaries but were determined to reestablish their control over the empire. In June 1848, Austrian military forces crushed the Czech rebels in Prague. By the end of October, the rebels in Vienna had been defeated as well. With the help of a Russian army of 140,000 men, the Hungarian revolutionaries were finally subdued in 1849. The revolutions in the Austrian Empire had failed.

### Revolts in the Italian States

The Congress of Vienna had set up nine states in Italy, which were divided among the European powers. These states included the Kingdom of Piedmont in the north; the Two Sicilies (Naples and Sicily); the Papal States; a handful of small states; and the northern provinces of Lombardy and Venetia, which were now part of the Austrian Empire.

In 1848 a revolt broke out against the Austrians in Lombardy and Venetia. Revolutionaries in other Italian states also took up arms and sought to create liberal constitutions and a unified Italy. By 1849, however, the Austrians had reestablished complete control over Lombardy and Venetia. The old order also prevailed in the rest of Italy.

### The Failures of 1848

Throughout Europe in 1848, popular revolts started upheavals that led to liberal constitutions and liberal governments. But how could so many successes in 1848 soon be followed by so many failures? Two particular reasons stand out.

The unity of the revolutionaries had made the revolutions possible. However, moderate liberals and more radical revolutionaries were soon divided over their goals; therefore, conservative rule was reestablished.

In 1848 nationalities everywhere had also revolted in pursuit of self-government. However, little was achieved as divisions among nationalities proved disastrous. The Hungarians, for example, sought their freedom from the Austrians. At the same time, they refused the same to their minorities—the Slovenes, Croats, and Serbs. Instead of joining together to fight the old empire, minorities fought each other. The old order prevailed. Even with the reestablishment of conservative governments, however, the forces of nationalism and liberalism continued to influence political events.

#### READING PROGRESS CHECK

**Drawing Conclusions** Why did the revolutions of 1848 fail?

## Analyzing PRIMARY SOURCES

### Giuseppe Mazzini on Young Italy

“Young Italy is a brotherhood of Italians who believe in a law of *Progress* and *Duty*, and are convinced that Italy is destined to become one nation. . .

Young Italy is *Unitarian*. Because, without unity, there is no true nation.

Because without unity, there is no real strength; and Italy, surrounded as she is by powerful, united, and jealous nations, has need of strength before all things. . . .”

—Giuseppe Mazzini, from *General Instructions for the Members of Young Italy*, 1832

#### MAKING INFERENCES

Why would Italy's history have convinced Mazzini of the need for national unity?

## LESSON 2 REVIEW

### Reviewing Vocabulary

1. **Describing** Define the term *universal male suffrage* and give examples of when it affected the revolutions of 1848.

### Using Your Notes

2. **Comparing and Contrasting** Use your graphic organizer to discuss the similarities and differences between the revolutions of the 1830s and 1848.

### Answering the Guiding Questions

3. **Determining Cause and Effect** How did liberalism and nationalism present a challenge to conservatism in Europe during the 1830s and 1840s?

4. **Making Observations** What were the results of the revolutionary uprisings that occurred throughout Europe in 1848?

### Writing Activity

5. **ARGUMENT** Write a paragraph that argues for or against the following statement: The revolutions of the 1830s ultimately failed.



## networks

There's More Online!

- ✓ BIOGRAPHY Czar Alexander II
- ✓ BIOGRAPHY Queen Victoria
- ✓ CHART/GRAPH Emancipation Edict of 1861
- ✓ IMAGE Paris Reconstruction
- ✓ PRIMARY SOURCE Garibaldi's Speech to His Soldiers
- ✓ PRIMARY SOURCE Newspaper Account of the Crimean War
- ✓ TIME LINE Unification of Germany
- ✓ TIME LINE Unification of Italy
- ✓ VIDEO Nationalism, Unification, and Reform



### LESSON 3

## Nationalism, Unification, and Reform

**ESSENTIAL QUESTIONS** • How can innovation affect ways of life?  
• How does revolution bring about political and economic change?

### IT MATTERS BECAUSE

Although the revolutions of 1848 were unsuccessful, the forces of nationalism and liberalism remained powerful for the rest of the nineteenth century. Italy and Germany were eventually unified, and Great Britain and France became more liberal.

### Reading HELPDESK



#### Academic Vocabulary

- unification • regime

#### Content Vocabulary

- militarism
- kaiser
- plebiscite
- emancipation
- abolitionism

#### TAKING NOTES:

##### Key Ideas and Details

**Summarizing Information** As you read, use a table like the one below to list the changes that took place in the indicated countries during the nineteenth century.

Great Britain	France	Austrian Empire	Russia

### Toward National Unification

**GUIDING QUESTION** What led to the unification of Italy and Germany after the revolution of 1848?

The revolutions of 1848 had failed. By 1871, however, both Germany and Italy would be unified. The changes that made this possible began with the Crimean War.

#### Breakdown of the Concert of Europe

The Crimean War was the result of a long-term struggle between Russia and the Ottoman Empire. The Ottoman Empire had long controlled most of the Balkans in southeastern Europe. By 1800, however, the Ottoman Empire was in decline.

Russia was especially interested in expanding its power into Ottoman lands in the Balkans. This expansion would allow Russian ships to sail through the Dardanelles, the straits between the Black Sea and the Mediterranean Sea. If Russia could achieve this goal, it would become the major power in eastern Europe and challenge British naval control of the eastern Mediterranean. Other European nations feared Russian ambition and had their own interest in the decline of the Ottoman Empire.

In 1853 the Russians invaded the Turkish Balkan provinces of Moldavia and Walachia. In response, the Ottoman Turks declared war on Russia. Great Britain and France, fearful of Russian gains in this war, declared war on Russia the following year. This conflict came to be called the Crimean War. The Crimean War was poorly planned and poorly fought. Eventually, heavy losses caused the Russians to seek peace. By the Treaty of Paris, signed in March 1856,



Russia agreed to allow Moldavia and Walachia to be placed under the protection of all the great powers.

The effect of the Crimean War was to destroy the Concert of Europe. Austria and Russia, the chief powers maintaining the status quo before the 1850s, were now enemies. Austria, with its own interests in the Balkans, had refused to support Russia in the Crimean War. A defeated and humiliated Russia withdrew from European affairs for the next 20 years. Austria was now without friends among the great powers. This situation opened the door to the **unification** of Italy and Germany.

### Italian Unification

In 1850 Austria was still the dominant power on the Italian Peninsula. After the failure of the revolution of 1848, people began to look to the northern Italian state of Piedmont for leadership in achieving the unification of Italy. The royal house of Savoy ruled the Kingdom of Piedmont. Included in the kingdom were Piedmont, the island of Sardinia, Nice, and Savoy. The ruler of the kingdom, beginning in 1849, was King Victor Emmanuel II.

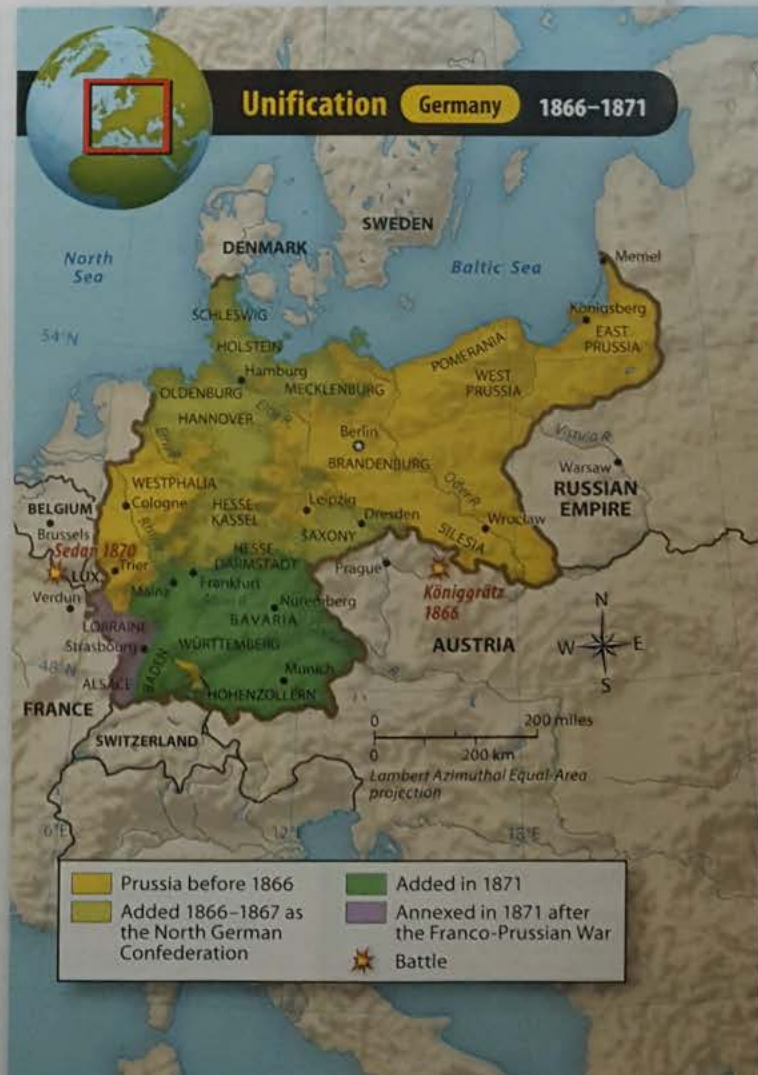
The king named Camillo di Cavour his prime minister in 1852. As prime minister, Cavour pursued a policy of economic growth in order to equip a large army. Cavour, however, knew that Piedmont's army was not strong enough to defeat the Austrians. So he made an alliance with the French emperor Louis-Napoleon. Cavour then provoked the Austrians into declaring war in 1859.

**unification** the act, process, or result of making into a coherent or coordinated whole; the state of being unified

### GEOGRAPHY CONNECTION

By 1871 Italy and Germany had unified.

- PLACES AND REGIONS** Describe the sequence of events in Italian unification.
- HUMAN SYSTEMS** What provinces did Germany win in the Franco-Prussian War?





## BIOGRAPHIES



### Giuseppe Garibaldi (1807–1882)

Giuseppe Garibaldi, an Italian patriot and soldier, was instrumental in the unification of Italy. He raised an army of men called Red Shirts and seized Sicily and Naples. He handed over control of southern Italy to Victor Emmanuel II, whom he declared the first king of a united Italy. Garibaldi retired to the small island of Caprera but was soon called back into military service and continued fighting until Italy was completely free.



### Otto von Bismarck (1815–1898)

Otto von Bismarck came from the class of aristocratic Prussian landowners known as *Junkers*. Under his leadership, Prussia won a series of European wars that united the German states under Prussian rule. Bismarck became a national hero. In 1871, when King William I of Prussia was proclaimed the German kaiser, Bismarck became chancellor of this new German empire.

#### ► CRITICAL THINKING

**Contrasting** How did Bismarck's and Garibaldi's careers as unifiers differ?

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

Meanwhile, in southern Italy, a new Italian leader had arisen. Giuseppe Garibaldi, a dedicated patriot, raised an army of a thousand volunteers. A branch of the Bourbon dynasty ruled the Two Sicilies (Sicily and Naples), and a revolt had broken out in Sicily against the king. Garibaldi's forces landed in Sicily and, by the end of July 1860, controlled most of the island. In August, Garibaldi's forces crossed over to the mainland and began a victorious march up the Italian Peninsula. The entire Kingdom of the Two Sicilies fell in early September.

Garibaldi chose to turn over his conquests to Piedmont. On March 17, 1861, a new state of Italy was proclaimed under King Victor Emmanuel II. The task of unification was not yet complete, however. Austria still held Venetia in the north; and Rome was under the control of the pope, supported by French troops.

The Italians gained control of Venetia as a result of supporting Prussia in a war between Austria and Prussia. In 1870, during the Franco-Prussian War, French troops withdrew from Rome. Their withdrawal enabled the Italian army to annex Rome on September 20, 1870. Rome became the capital of the new European state.

### German Unification

After the Frankfurt Assembly failed to achieve German unification in 1848 and 1849, Germans looked to Prussia for leadership in the cause of German unification. In the course of the nineteenth century, Prussia had become a strong, prosperous, and authoritarian state. The Prussian king had firm control over the government and the army. Prussia was also known for its **militarism**, or reliance on military strength.

In the 1860s, King William I tried to enlarge the Prussian army. When the Prussian legislature refused to levy new taxes for the proposed changes, William I appointed a new prime minister, Count Otto von Bismarck.

Bismarck has often been seen as the foremost nineteenth-century practitioner of *realpolitik*—the “politics of reality,” a politics based on practical matters rather than on ethics. Bismarck openly voiced his strong dislike for anyone who opposed him. After his appointment, Bismarck ignored the legislative opposition to the military reforms. He proceeded to collect taxes and strengthen the army. From 1862 to 1866, Bismarck governed Prussia without approval of the parliament. In the meantime, he followed an active foreign policy, which soon led to war.

After defeating Denmark with Austrian help in 1864, Prussia gained control of the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein. Bismarck then goaded the Austrians into a war on June 14, 1866. The Austrians, no match for the well-disciplined Prussian army, were defeated on July 3.

Prussia now organized the German states north of the Main River into the North German Confederation. The southern German states, which were largely Catholic, feared Protestant Prussia. However, they also feared France, their western neighbor. As a result, they agreed to sign military alliances with Prussia for protection against France.

Prussia now dominated all of northern Germany, and the growing power and military might of Prussia worried France. In 1870 Prussia and France became embroiled in a dispute over the candidacy of a relative of



the Prussian king for the throne of Spain. Taking advantage of the situation, Bismarck pushed the French into declaring war on Prussia on July 19, 1870—a conflict called the Franco-Prussian War.

Prussian armies advanced into France. At Sedan, on September 2, 1870, an entire French army and the French ruler, Napoleon III, were captured. Paris finally surrendered on January 28, 1871. An official peace treaty was signed in May. France had to pay 5 billion francs (about \$1 billion) and give up the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine to the new German state. The loss of these territories left the French burning for revenge.

Even before the war had ended, the southern German states had agreed to enter the North German Confederation. On January 18, 1871, Bismarck and 600 German princes, nobles, and generals filled the Hall of Mirrors in the palace of Versailles, 12 miles (19.3 km) outside Paris. William I of Prussia was proclaimed **kaiser**, or emperor, of the Second German Empire (the first was the medieval Holy Roman Empire).

The Prussian monarchy and the Prussian army had achieved German unity. The authoritarian and militaristic values of Prussia were triumphant in the new German state. With its industrial resources and military might, Germany had become the strongest power in Europe.

#### **READING PROGRESS CHECK**

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

## Nationalism and Reform in Europe

**GUIDING QUESTION** *What were the political climates in Great Britain, France, Austria, and Russia?*

While Italy and Germany were being unified, other states in Europe were also experiencing changes.

### Great Britain

Great Britain managed to avoid the revolutionary upheavals of the first half of the nineteenth century. In 1815 aristocratic landowning classes, which dominated both houses of Parliament, governed Great Britain. In 1832 Parliament passed a bill that increased the number of male voters. The new voters were chiefly members of the industrial middle class. By giving the industrial middle class an interest in ruling, Britain avoided revolution in 1848. In the 1850s and 1860s, Parliament made social and political reforms that helped the country remain stable. Another reason for Britain's stability was its continuing economic growth. By 1850, industrialization had brought prosperity to the British middle class. After 1850, real wages of workers also rose significantly.

Queen Victoria, whose reign from 1837 to 1901 was the longest in English history, reflected perfectly the national pride of the British. Her sense of duty and moral respectability came to define the values and attitudes of her age, which was later called the Victorian Age.

### France

In France, events after the revolution of 1848 moved toward the restoration of the monarchy. Four years after his election as president in 1848, Louis-Napoleon returned to the people to ask for the restoration of the empire. In this **plebiscite**, or popular vote, 97 percent responded with a yes vote. On December 2, 1852, Louis-Napoleon assumed the title of Emperor Napoleon III (Napoleon II was the son of Napoleon Bonaparte, but he never ruled France). The Second Empire had begun.

**militarism** the reliance on military strength

**kaiser** German for "caesar"; the title of the emperors of the Second German Empire



▲ Great Britain's Queen Victoria in her coronation robes, 1838



**plebiscite** a popular vote

The government of Napoleon III was clearly authoritarian. As chief of state, Napoleon III controlled the armed forces, police, and civil service. Only he could introduce legislation and declare war. The Legislative Corps gave an appearance of representative government, because the members of the group were elected by universal male suffrage for six-year terms. However, they could neither initiate legislation nor affect the budget.

Napoleon III completely controlled the government and limited civil liberties. To distract the public from their loss of political freedom, he focused on expanding the economy. Government subsidies helped foster the rapid construction of railroads, harbors, roads, and canals.

In the midst of this economic expansion, Napoleon III also carried out a vast rebuilding of the city of Paris. The old Paris of narrow streets and walls was replaced by a modern Paris of broad boulevards, spacious buildings, public squares, an underground sewage system, a new public water supply system, and gaslights.

In the 1860s, opposition to some of Napoleon's economic and governmental policies arose. In response, Napoleon III began to liberalize his **regime**. For example, he gave the legislature more power. After the French were defeated in the Franco-Prussian War in 1870, however, the Second Empire fell.

**regime** the government in power

### The Austrian Empire

Nationalism was a major force in nineteenth-century Europe. However, one of Europe's most powerful states—the Austrian Empire—was a multinational empire that had been able to frustrate the desire of its ethnic groups for independence.

After the Hapsburg rulers crushed the revolutions of 1848 and 1849, they restored centralized, autocratic government to the empire. Austria's defeat at the hands of the Prussians in 1866, however, forced the Austrians to make concessions to the fiercely nationalistic Hungarians. The result was the Compromise of 1867, which created the dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary. Each of these two components of the empire now had its own constitution, its own legislature, its own government bureaucracy, and its own capital (Vienna for Austria and Budapest for Hungary). Holding the two states together were a single monarch—Francis Joseph was emperor of Austria and king of Hungary—and a common army, foreign policy, and system of finances.

### Russia

At the beginning of the nineteenth century, Russia was still rural, agricultural, and autocratic. The Russian czar was regarded as a divine-right monarch with unlimited power. In 1856, however, the Russians suffered a humiliating defeat in the Crimean War. Even conservatives realized that Russia was falling hopelessly behind the western European states. Czar Alexander II decided to make some reforms.

Serfdom was the largest problem in czarist Russia. On March 3, 1861, Alexander issued an **emancipation** edict, which freed the serfs. Peasants could now own property. The government provided land for the peasants by buying it from the landlords. The new land system, however, was not very helpful to the peasants. The landowners often kept the best lands for themselves. The Russian peasants had little good land to support themselves. Emancipation, then, led not to a free, landowning peasantry but to an unhappy, land-starved peasantry that followed old ways of farming.

▼ Russian peasants in the late nineteenth century

#### ► CRITICAL THINKING

**Making Generalizations** How does this image convey the possible living conditions of Russian peasants?





Alexander II attempted other reforms as well, but he could please no one. Reformers wanted more changes, but conservatives thought that the czar was destroying Russia's basic institutions. When radicals assassinated Alexander II in 1881, his son, Alexander III, turned against reform and returned to the old methods of repression.

**emancipation** the act of setting free

### ✓ READING PROGRESS CHECK

**Examining** What concessions did the Hungarians gain from the Compromise of 1867?

## Nationalism in the United States

**GUIDING QUESTION** How did nationalism influence events in the United States during the 1800s?

The U.S. Constitution committed the nation to liberalism and nationalism. Yet unity did not come easily. Two factions fought bitterly about the division of power in the new government. The Federalists favored a strong central government. The Republicans wanted the federal government to be subordinate to the state governments.

By the mid-nineteenth century, slavery had become a threat to American unity. Four million enslaved African Americans were in the South by 1860, compared with one million in 1800.

The South's economy was based on growing cotton on plantations, chiefly by slave labor. The South was determined to maintain the cotton economy and plantation-based slavery. **Abolitionism**, a movement to end slavery, arose in the North and challenged the Southern way of life. As opinions over slavery grew more divided, compromise became less possible. Abraham Lincoln said in a speech in 1858 that "this government cannot endure, permanently half slave and half free." When Lincoln was elected president in November 1860, war became certain. In April, fighting erupted between North and South—the Union and the Confederacy.

**abolitionism** a movement to end slavery

The American Civil War (1861–1865) was a bloody struggle. Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation declared most of the nation's enslaved people "forever free." The Confederate forces surrendered on April 9, 1865. The United States remained united, "one nation, indivisible."

### ✓ READING PROGRESS CHECK

**Identifying** What issues divided Americans in the 1800s?

## LESSON 3 REVIEW



### Reviewing Vocabulary

**1. Making Connections** Write a paragraph about the Civil War in which you define the terms *emancipation* and *abolitionism*. Indicate relationships between these terms.

### Using Your Notes

**2. Describing** Use your graphic organizer to write a paragraph describing the changes and conflicts that took place in Great Britain, France, the Austrian Empire, and Russia during the nineteenth century.

### Answering the Guiding Questions

**3. Identifying Cause and Effect** What led to the unification of Italy and Germany after the revolution of 1848?

**4. Describing** What were the political climates in Great Britain, France, Austria, and Russia?

**5. Identifying Central Issues** How did nationalism influence events in the United States during the 1800s?

### Writing Activity

**6. INFORMATIVE/EXPLANATORY** Write an essay evaluating the nineteenth-century social reforms that took place in Great Britain, Russia, and the United States. Were the reforms successful? Did they contribute to the stability of these nations?



## networks

### There's More Online!

- BIOGRAPHY Antonio López de Santa Anna
- BIOGRAPHY José de San Martín
- BIOGRAPHY Simón Bolívar
- IMAGE Monopoly in Latin America
- IMAGE San Martín Crossing the Andes in 1817
- INTERACTIVE SELF-CHECK QUIZ
- MAP European Colonies in Latin America
- VIDEO Nation Building in Latin America



## LESSON 4

# Nation Building in Latin America

**ESSENTIAL QUESTIONS** • How can innovation affect ways of life?  
• How does revolution bring about political and economic change?

## IT MATTERS BECAUSE

The success of the American Revolution and the ideals of the French Revolution spread throughout Latin America. One by one, the Portuguese and Spanish colonies rebelled and won their independence. Political independence, however, was achieved more easily in the new republics than political stability.

## Reading HELPDESK



### Academic Vocabulary

- intervention • erupt

### Content Vocabulary

- creole • peninsulare
- mestizo • caudillo
- cash crop

### TAKING NOTES:

#### Key Ideas and Details

**Categorizing** Use a graphic organizer like this one to record places where revolts occurred and the leaders and the outcomes of these revolts. Add rows as needed.

Revolts in Latin America

Place	Leader	Outcome

## Nationalist Revolts

**GUIDING QUESTION** How were nationalist revolts in Latin America influenced by the French and American Revolutions?

By the end of the eighteenth century, the new political ideals stemming from the successful American Revolution were beginning to influence the creole elites. **Creoles** were the descendants of Europeans who had permanently settled in Latin America. They controlled land and business and were attracted to the principles of equality of all people in the eyes of the law, free trade, and a free press. The creoles especially disliked the domination of their trade by Spain and Portugal.

The creole elites soon began to use their new ideas to denounce the rule of the Spanish and Portuguese monarchs and their **peninsulares** (Spanish and Portuguese officials who resided temporarily in Latin America for political and economic gain and then returned to their homeland). The creole elites resented the **peninsulares**, who dominated Latin America and drained the region of its wealth.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century, Napoleon's wars provided the creoles with an opportunity for change. When Napoleon overthrew the monarchies of Spain and Portugal, the authority of the Spaniards and Portuguese in their colonial empires was weakened. Then, between 1807 and 1825, a series of revolts enabled most of Latin America to become independent.



## Revolt in Haiti

An unusual revolution occurred before the main independence movements. Saint Domingue—on the island of Hispaniola—was a French sugar colony. François-Dominique Toussaint-Louverture (too • SAN • LOO • VUHR • TYUR) led more than 100,000 enslaved people in revolt. They seized control of all of Hispaniola. On January 1, 1804, the western part of Hispaniola, now called Haiti, became the first independent state in Latin America.

## Revolt in Mexico

Beginning in 1810, Mexico also experienced a revolt. The first real hero of Mexican independence was Miguel Hidalgo. A parish priest, Hidalgo lived in a village about 100 miles (160 km) from Mexico City.

Hidalgo had studied the French Revolution. He roused the local Native Americans and **mestizos**, people of mixed European and Native American descent, to free themselves from the Spanish: “Will you be free? Will you make the effort to recover from the hated Spaniards the lands stolen from your forefathers, three hundred years ago?”

On September 16, 1810, Hidalgo led this ill-equipped army of thousands of Native Americans and mestizos in an attack against the Spaniards. His forces were soon crushed, and a military court later sentenced Hidalgo to death. However, his memory lives on even today. In fact, September 16, the first day of the uprising, is Mexico’s Independence Day.

The role of Native Americans and mestizos in Mexico’s revolt against Spanish control frightened the creoles and the *peninsulares*. Afraid of the masses, they cooperated in defeating the revolutionary forces. Creoles and *peninsulares* then decided to overthrow Spanish rule. These conservative elites wanted an independent nation ruled by a monarch. They selected a creole military leader, Agustín de Iturbide (EE • tur • BEE • thay), to set up a new government. In 1821 Mexico declared its independence from Spain. Iturbide named himself emperor in 1822 but was deposed in 1823. Mexico then became a republic.

## Revolts in South America

José de San Martín of Argentina and Simón Bolívar of Venezuela, both members of the creole elite, were hailed as the “Liberators of South America.” Bolívar began the struggle for Venezuelan independence in 1810. He also led revolts in New Granada (Colombia) and Ecuador. By 1819, these countries had formed Gran Colombia.

By 1810, the forces of San Martín had liberated Argentina from Spanish authority. In January 1817, San Martín led his forces over the Andes Mountains to attack the Spanish in Chile. The journey was an amazing feat. Two-thirds of the pack mules and horses died during the trip. Soldiers suffered from lack of oxygen and severe cold while crossing mountain passes more than two miles (3.2 km) above sea level.

The arrival of San Martín’s forces in Chile completely surprised the Spanish forces there. As a result, they were badly defeated at the Battle of Chacabuco on February 12, 1817. Chile declared its independence in 1818. In 1821 San Martín advanced on Lima, Peru, the center of Spanish authority.

San Martín was convinced that he could not complete the liberation of Peru alone. He welcomed Simón Bolívar and his forces. Bolívar, the “Liberator of Venezuela,” took on the task of crushing the last significant Spanish army at Ayacucho on December 9, 1824.

**creole** a person of European descent born in Latin America and living there permanently

**peninsulare** a person born on the Iberian Peninsula; typically, a Spanish or Portuguese official who resided temporarily in Latin America for political and economic gain and then returned to Europe

**mestizo** a person of mixed European and Native American descent

▼ General San Martín after crossing the Andes in 1817





By the end of 1824, Peru, Uruguay, Paraguay, Colombia, Venezuela, Argentina, Bolivia, and Chile had become free of Spain. Earlier, in 1822, the prince regent of Brazil had declared Brazil's independence from Portugal. The Central American states had become independent in 1823. In 1838 and 1839, they divided into five republics: Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, Costa Rica, and Nicaragua.

### Threats to Independence

In the early 1820s, one major threat remained to the newly won independence of the Latin American states. Members of the Concert of Europe favored using troops to restore Spanish control in Latin America. The British, who wished to trade with Latin America, disagreed. They proposed joint action with the United States against any European moves against Latin America.

Distrustful of British motives, James Monroe, the president of the United States, acted alone in 1823. In the Monroe Doctrine, he declared that the Americas were off limits for any colonizational efforts, and strongly warned against any European **intervention** in the Americas.

More important to Latin American independence than American words, however, was the British navy. Other European powers feared the power of the British navy, which stood between Latin America and any planned European invasion force.

#### READING PROGRESS CHECK

**Comparing** What do Hidalgo, José de San Martín, and Simón Bolívar have in common?

## Nation Building

**GUIDING QUESTIONS** *What difficulties did newly independent Latin American countries face? How did economic dependence on foreign investment influence Latin America through the mid-1800s?*

The new Latin American nations faced a number of serious problems between 1830 and 1870. The wars for independence had resulted in a staggering loss of people, property, and livestock. During the course of the nineteenth century, the new Latin American nations would become economically dependent on Western nations once again.

### Rule of the Caudillos and Inequality

Most of the new nations of Latin America began with republican governments, but they had no experience in self-rule. Soon after independence, strong leaders known as **caudillos** gained power.

Caudillos ruled chiefly by military force and were usually supported by the landed elites. Many kept the new national states together. Some were also modernizers who built roads and canals, ports, and schools. Others were destructive.

Mexican General Antonio López de Santa Anna, for example, ruled Mexico from 1833 to 1855. He misused state funds, halted reforms, and created chaos. In 1835 American settlers in the Mexican state of Texas revolted against Santa Anna's rule. Texas gained its independence in 1836 and U.S. statehood in 1845. War between Mexico and the United States soon followed (1846–1848). Mexico was defeated and lost almost one-half of its territory to the United States.

Fortunately for Mexico, Santa Anna's disastrous rule was followed by a period of reform from 1855 to 1876. This era was dominated by Benito Juárez, a Mexican national hero. The son of Native American peasants,

**intervention** the involvement in a situation to alter the outcome

**caudillo** in post-revolutionary Latin America, a strong leader who ruled chiefly by military force, usually with the support of the landed elite



President Juárez brought liberal reforms to Mexico, including separation of church and state, land distribution to the poor, and an educational system for all of Mexico.

Other caudillos, such as Juan Manuel de Rosas in Argentina, were supported by the masses. These caudillos became extremely popular and brought about radical change. Unfortunately, the caudillo's authority depended on his personal power. When he died or lost power, civil wars for control of the country often **erupted**.

A fundamental problem for all the new Latin American nations was the domination of society by the landed elites. Large estates remained a way of life in Latin America. By 1848, for example, the Sánchez Navarro family in Mexico possessed 17 estates made up of 16 million acres (6,480,000 ha).

Land remained the basis of wealth, social prestige, and political power throughout the nineteenth century. Landed elites ran governments, controlled courts, and kept a system of inexpensive labor. These landowners made enormous profits by growing single **cash crops**, such as coffee, for export. Most of the population had no land to grow basic food crops. As a result, the masses experienced dire poverty.

### Imperialism and Economic Dependence

Political independence brought economic independence, but old patterns were quickly reestablished. Instead of Spain and Portugal, Great Britain now dominated the Latin American economy. British merchants moved into Latin America, and British investors poured in funds. Old trade relationships soon reemerged.

Latin America continued to serve as a source of raw materials and foodstuffs for the industrial nations of Europe and the United States. Exports included wheat, tobacco, wool, sugar, coffee, and hides. At the same time, Latin American countries imported finished consumer goods, especially textiles, and had limited industry.

The emphasis on exporting raw materials and importing finished products ensured the ongoing domination of the Latin American economy by foreigners. Latin American countries remained economically dependent on Western nations, even though they were no longer colonies.

#### READING PROGRESS CHECK

**Identifying Central Issues** Why did Latin American countries continue to experience economic dependence after achieving political independence?



▲ Mexican General Antonio López de Santa Anna

**erupt** to suddenly become active or violent

**cash crop** a crop that is grown for sale rather than for personal use

PHOTO: © North Wind Picture Archives/Alamy

## LESSON 4 REVIEW



### Reviewing Vocabulary

1. **Explaining** Give examples of three cash crops that were grown in Latin America and explain why they were cash crops.

### Using Your Notes

2. **Generalizing** Use your graphic organizer on the revolts in Latin America to write a paragraph that makes a generalization about the successes or failures of the revolutions.

### Answering the Guiding Questions

3. **Drawing Conclusions** How were nationalist revolts in Latin America influenced by the French and American Revolutions?
4. **Gathering Information** What difficulties did newly independent Latin American countries face?

5. **Identifying Cause and Effect** How did economic dependence on foreign investment influence Latin America through the mid-1800s?

### Writing Activity

6. **NARRATIVE** Imagine you are a creole leader in Mexico at the time when Miguel Hidalgo is rousing the Native Americans and mestizos or leading them into battle. Write a diary entry that shows your feelings about the events you witness.



## networks

### There's More Online!

- BIOGRAPHY Charles Darwin
- BIOGRAPHY Charles Dickens
- BIOGRAPHY Louis Pasteur
- BIOGRAPHY Ludwig van Beethoven
- IMAGE Battle of Poltiers by Eugene Delacroix
- IMAGE Paris Opera House
- IMAGE The Old Mill by John Constable
- INTERACTIVE SELF-CHECK QUIZ
- VIDEO Romanticism and Realism



## LESSON 5

# Romanticism and Realism

**ESSENTIAL QUESTIONS** • How can innovation affect ways of life?  
• How does revolution bring about political and economic change?

### Reading HELPDESK



#### Academic Vocabulary

- individuality
- approach

#### Content Vocabulary

- romanticism
- secularization
- natural selection
- realism

#### TAKING NOTES:

##### Key Ideas and Details

**Listing Examples** Use a table like this one to list examples of literature from the romantic and realist movements.

Romanticism	Realism

## IT MATTERS BECAUSE

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

## Romanticism

**GUIDING QUESTION** How did the idea of romanticism differ from those of the Enlightenment?

At the end of the 1700s, a new intellectual movement, known as **romanticism**, emerged as a reaction to the ideas of the Enlightenment. The Enlightenment had stressed reason as the chief means for discovering truth. The romantics emphasized feelings, emotion, and imagination as sources of knowing.

Romantics valued individualism, or the belief in the uniqueness of each person. Many romantics rebelled against middle-class conventions. Male romantics grew long hair and beards, and men and women often wore outrageous clothes in order to express their **individuality**.

Many romantics had a passionate interest in past ages, especially the Middle Ages. Romantic architects revived medieval styles and built castles, cathedrals, city halls, parliamentary buildings, and railway stations in a style called neo-Gothic. The British Houses of Parliament in London are a prime example of this architectural style.

### Romanticism in Art and Music

Romantic artists shared at least two features. First, to them, all art was a reflection of the artist's inner feelings. A painting should mirror the artist's vision of the world and be the instrument of the artist's imagination. Second, romantic artists abandoned classical reason for warmth and emotion.



Eugène Delacroix (DEH • luh • KWAH) was one of the most famous romantic painters from France. His paintings showed two chief characteristics: a fascination with the exotic and a passion for color. His works reflect his belief that “a painting is to be a feast to the eye.”

In music, too, romantic trends dominated the first half of the nineteenth century. One of the most famous composers of this era was Ludwig van Beethoven. Beethoven's early work fell largely within the classical form of the eighteenth century. However, his *Third Symphony* embodied the elements of romanticism with powerful melodies that created dramatic intensity. For Beethoven, music had to reflect his deepest feelings: “I must write—for what weighs on my heart I must express.”

### Romanticism in Literature

The literary arts were deeply affected by the romantic interest in the past. Sir Walter Scott's *Ivanhoe*, for example, a best seller in the early nineteenth century, told of clashes between knights in medieval England. Many romantic writers chose medieval subjects and created stories that expressed their strong nationalism.

An attraction to the exotic and unfamiliar gave rise to Gothic literature. Chilling examples are Mary Shelley's novel *Frankenstein* in Britain and Edgar Allan Poe's short stories of horror in the United States. Some romantics even sought the unusual in their own lives. They explored their dreams and nightmares and sought to create altered states of consciousness.

The romantics viewed poetry as the direct expression of the soul. Romantic poetry gave expression to one of the most important characteristics of romanticism—its love of nature. Romantics believed that nature served as a mirror into which humans could look to learn about themselves. This is especially evident in the poetry of William Wordsworth, the foremost English romantic poet of nature. His experience of nature was almost mystical:

#### PRIMARY SOURCE

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

—William Wordsworth, from *The Tables Turned*

The worship of nature also caused Wordsworth and other romantic poets to be critical of eighteenth-century science, which, they believed, had reduced nature to a cold object of study. To Wordsworth, the scientists' dry, mathematical **approach** left no room for the imagination or for the human soul. Many romantics were convinced that industrialization would cause people to become alienated, both from their inner selves and from the natural world.

#### READING PROGRESS CHECK

**Drawing Conclusions** How did science and industrialization contribute to the development of romanticism's celebration of nature?



▲ *Battle of Poitiers* by Eugène Delacroix, 1830

#### CRITICAL THINKING

**Interpreting Significance** Why might Delacroix have chosen to depict a scene from a French battle from 1356?

**romanticism** an intellectual movement that emerged at the end of the eighteenth century in reaction to the ideas of the Enlightenment; it stressed feelings, emotion, and imagination as sources of knowing

**individuality** a total character that distinguishes an individual from others

**approach** the way or method in which one examines or studies an issue or a concept



### From Mendeleev to Particle Physics

Dmitry Mendeleev's discovery of recurring patterns in the properties of chemical elements is one of the foundations of modern chemistry. In 1869 when he proposed his periodic law, 70 elements were known. Before his death in 1907, Mendeleev saw his predictions of the existence of several previously unknown elements confirmed. Since that time, many more elements have been discovered, bringing the total up to well over 100 today. Although electrons were discovered before Mendeleev died, he had no idea of the complexity of the subatomic world, in which scientists have discovered more than 200 types of subatomic particles.

**secularization** indifference to or rejection of religion or religious consideration

**natural selection** the principle that some organisms are more adaptable to the environment than others

**realism** a mid-nineteenth century movement that rejected romanticism and sought to portray lower- and middle-class life as it actually was

## New Age of Science

**GUIDING QUESTION** How did advances in science influence life during the Industrial Revolution?

The Scientific Revolution had created a modern, rational approach to the study of the natural world. For a long time, only the educated elite understood its importance. With the Industrial Revolution, however, came a heightened interest in scientific research. By the 1830s, new discoveries in science had led to benefits that affected all Europeans. Science came to have a greater and greater impact on people.

In biology, the Frenchman Louis Pasteur proposed the germ theory of disease, which was crucial to the development of modern scientific medical practices. In chemistry, the Russian Dmitry Mendeleev in the 1860s classified all the material elements then known on the basis of their atomic weights. In physics, British scientist and inventor Michael Faraday put together a primitive generator that laid the foundation for the use of electric current.

Dramatic material benefits such as these led Europeans to have a growing faith in science. This faith, in turn, undermined the religious faith of many people. It is no accident that the nineteenth century was an age of increasing **secularization**, indifference to or rejection of religion in the affairs of the world. For many people, truth was now to be found in science and the concrete material existence of humans.

More than anyone else, it was Charles Darwin who promoted the idea that humans are material beings who are part of the natural world. In 1859 Darwin published *On the Origin of Species by Means of Natural Selection*. The basic idea of this book was that each species, or kind, of plant and animal had evolved over a long period of time from earlier, simpler forms of life. Darwin called this principle organic evolution.

How did this natural process work? According to Darwin, in every species, "many more individuals of each species are born than can possibly survive," which results in a "struggle for existence." Darwin believed that some organisms are born with variations, or differences, that make them more adaptable to their environment than other organisms, a process that Darwin called **natural selection**.

Those organisms that are naturally selected for survival reproduce and thrive. This is known as "survival of the fittest." In this process, the unfit do not survive. The fit that survive pass on the variations that enabled them to survive until, according to Darwin, a new, separate species emerges. In *The Descent of Man*, published in 1871, Darwin argued that human beings had animal origins and were not an exception to the rule governing the development of other species.

Darwin's ideas raised a storm of controversy. Some people did not take his ideas seriously. Other people objected that Darwin's theory made human beings ordinary products of nature rather than unique creations of God. Others were bothered by his idea of life as a mere struggle for survival. Some believers felt Darwin had not acknowledged God's role in creation. Some detractors scorned Darwin and depicted him unfavorably in cartoons. Gradually, however, many scientists and other intellectuals came to accept Darwin's theory. His theory changed thinking in countless fields from biology to anthropology.

### **READING PROGRESS CHECK**

**Predicting Consequences** Why might the scientific developments described in this lesson lead to increased secularization?



# Realism

**GUIDING QUESTION** What factors contributed to the movement known as realism?

The belief that the world should be viewed realistically, a view often expressed after 1850, was closely related to the scientific outlook of the time. In politics, Bismarck practiced the “politics of reality.” In the literary and visual arts, **realism** also became a movement.

The literary realists of the mid-nineteenth century rejected romanticism. They wanted to write about ordinary characters from life, not romantic heroes in exotic settings. They also tried to avoid emotional language by using precise description. They preferred novels to poems. Many literary realists combined their interest in everyday life with an examination of social issues. These artists expressed their social views through the characters in their novels.

The French author Gustave Flaubert, who was a leading novelist of the 1850s and 1860s, perfected the realist novel. His work *Madame Bovary* presents a critical description of small-town life in France. In Great Britain, Charles Dickens became a huge success with novels that showed the realities of life for the lower and middle classes in the early Industrial Age. Novels such as *Oliver Twist* and *David Copperfield* created a vivid picture of the brutal life of London’s poor.

In art, too, realism became dominant after 1850. Realist artists sought to show the everyday life of ordinary people and the world of nature with photographic realism. The French became leaders in realist painting.

The French painter Gustave Courbet was the most famous artist of the realist school. He loved to portray scenes from everyday life. His subjects were factory workers and peasants. “I have never seen either angels or goddesses, so I am not interested in painting them,” Courbet once commented. To Courbet, no subject was too ordinary.

## READING PROGRESS CHECK

**Predicting Consequences** Why might the work of realists, like Charles Dickens, have inspired social reform?



▲ *Girl with Seagulls* by Gustave Courbet, 1865

### CRITICAL THINKING

**Comparing and Contrasting** In what ways does this painting illustrate Courbet’s rejection of romanticism?

## LESSON 5 REVIEW



### Reviewing Vocabulary

1. **Describing** How did the concepts of natural selection and secularization demonstrate a changing worldview?

### Using Your Notes

2. **Contrasting** Using examples from your graphic organizer of literary works, write a paragraph contrasting the characteristics of romanticism and realism in literature.

### Answering the Guiding Questions

3. **Contrasting** How did the ideas of romanticism differ from those of the Enlightenment?

4. **Identifying Cause and Effect** How did advances in science influence life during the Industrial Revolution?

5. **Identifying Cause and Effect** What factors contributed to the movement known as realism?

### Writing Activity

6. **NARRATIVE** Write a paragraph describing some key event in your life using the style of the romantics or the realists.



# CHAPTER 10 Assessment



Directions: On a separate sheet of paper, answer the questions below. Make sure you read carefully and answer all parts of the questions.

## Lesson Review

### Lesson 1

- DRAWING CONCLUSIONS** How might the working conditions in mines and mills have led the new industrial working class to support socialism?

### Lesson 2

- SPECULATING** How did the Austrian government respond to demands for reform in early 1848, and how did its attitudes and actions change later?

### Lesson 3

- IDENTIFYING CAUSE AND EFFECT** How did Britain's economic condition affect its political stability?

### Lesson 4

- INTERPRETING** What were the motivations of Central and South American revolutionaries?

### Lesson 5

- MAKING INFERENCES** In what ways did the individualism prized by the romantic movement differ from factory owners' attitudes toward workers?

## 21st Century Skills

- IDENTIFYING CAUSE AND EFFECT** Which were the first European countries to be industrialized after Great Britain and why?
- ECONOMICS** What benefits did foreign investors provide to newly independent Latin American countries? What were the drawbacks of foreign investment?

## Exploring the Essential Questions

- SYNTHESIZING** With a partner, create a multimedia display of nineteenth-century changes and their causes in Europe, the United States, and Latin America. Include an example of technological, social, political, and economic

change from each area. Provide a photo, drawing, or artifact that symbolizes each change and an audio or written explanation of the forces that led to it. You may also include primary sources.

## DBQ Analyzing Historical Documents

Use the document to answer the following questions.

The British Parliament debated a bill that would ban factory owners from hiring children under the age of nine or working those children under sixteen longer than sixteen hours in a day.

### PRIMARY SOURCE

“ [Lord Kenyon] proceeded to enter into some detail of the evidence given before the committee, for the purpose of showing the injury that resulted to the health of the children, from being employed for 14, 15, or 16 hours a day in places heated to 80, 85 and nearly 90 degrees. . . .”

The Earl of Rosslyn said, . . . [it was] as an incontestible fact, that parents were the natural guardians of the health and prosperity of their own children, and that the legislature ought to be slow to interfere with free labour . . . ”

—from the record of the House of Lords debate on the Cotton Factories Regulation Bill, June 14, 1819

- ANALYZING** What reason does the Earl of Rosslyn give for arguing against legislation that would protect child workers?
- EVALUATING** Is Lord Kenyon's evidence of children's working conditions in cotton mills believable?

## Extended-Response Question

- INFORMATIVE/EXPLANATORY** How did the Industrial Revolution impact the formation of new economic and political systems in Europe? How did these systems compare with the absolutist and agricultural societies of the previous era?

## Need Extra Help?

If You've Missed Question	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
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