

# CHAPTER 6: 1750 TO 1900 CE

## IF YOU ONLY LEARN SIX THINGS IN THIS CHAPTER . . .

1. Industrialization led the world to become truly interdependent. Industrialized nations in search of raw materials and new markets often imperialized areas to advance their economic interests.
2. Populations grew and many people migrated to cities in search of work in factories. Free-wage laborers were more desirable in this new market-driven economy than forced labor. As a result, slaves and serfs were emancipated.
3. Women gained some economic opportunities in the factories but were paid considerably less than their male counterparts. These new economic opportunities and Enlightenment ideals pushed women to fight for political rights, as well.
4. The working class emerged as a force for change. Through organization into unions, these workers were able to advocate for improved working conditions, which were dangerous and oppressive.
5. Western culture strongly influenced many Asian and African areas through colonization. At the same time, Asian and African culture and art strongly influenced European intellectuals and artists. Enlightenment ideals such as equality, freedom of speech, and freedom of religion became very influential in many parts of the world, yet in other parts, traditional religious organization maintained power and influence.
6. The ideas of the Enlightenment said that the government was responsible to its people, inspiring revolutions and independence movements and pushing some governments to experiment with democratic values. This democracy, however, proved to extend to a limited class of people. "The nation" and nationalism became the new concepts of identity in the 19th century and would soon spread to many parts of the world.

## THE BIG PICTURE

### 1. Interactions between people and the environment

In other words: **How does the environment shape human societies, and how do humans shape the environment?**

New technologies quickened the pace of life. As population grew, many migrated to the cities in search of opportunities in the factories. Free wage laborers were more desirable in this new market-driven economy than forced labor and as a result, slaves and serfs were emancipated.

### 2. Development and interaction of cultures

In other words: **How do people express themselves, and what is the impact of ideas?**

As the world interacted more than ever, so did the cultures of the world. Western culture strongly influenced many Asian and African areas through colonization, and Asian and African culture and art were extremely influential on European intellectuals and artists. Enlightenment ideals such as equality, freedom of speech, and freedom of religion became very influential in many parts of the world. At the same time, traditional religious organizations maintained power and influence in other parts of the world.

### 3. State-building, expansion, and conflict

In other words: **How do people govern themselves?**

The ideas of the Enlightenment said that the government was responsible to its people. This idea inspired revolutions and independence movements throughout the period. Governments experimented with democratic values, but this democracy was extended to a limited class of people. Older land-based empires struggled with change and the adaptation to the new age. The nation became the new concept of identity in the 19th century and would soon spread worldwide.

### 4. Creation, expansion, and interaction of economic systems

In other words: **How do economic developments affect the world?**

With the development of industrialization, the world became truly interdependent. The industrialized nations in search of raw materials and new markets often imperialized areas to protect economic interests.

### 5. Development and transformation of social structures

In other words: **How do people identify themselves socially, and what roles do men and women have?**

Industrialization changed almost everything. The way people worked, lived, traveled, related to their families, communicated, and identified themselves changed for many people. At the same time, many traditional forces resisted change. Religious influence and patriarchal gender structures remained in many parts of the world.

The middle class and an industrial working class emerged as forces both economically and politically. The middle class often led the political revolutions of the period and benefited in the new industrial age. Women gained some economic opportunities in factories, but they were paid considerably less than their male counterparts. These new economic opportunities and Enlightenment ideals pushed women to fight for political rights. The working class also emerged as a force for change: Through organization into unions, it was able to advocate for change in working conditions.

## WHY THIS PERIODIZATION?

This time period can be summarized into five key words: revolution, nationalism, industrialization, imperialism, and emancipation. The revolutions and independence movements inspired by the Enlightenment had worldwide effects, redefining the relationship between the government and the governed. The concept of the nation shaped how people defined their identity, and it became the dominant political force.

Industrialization changed the way people worked and lived. More powerful, industrialized nations reached out to dominate Asian and African areas economically and politically to advance their own interests. Slaves and serfs were emancipated in this new wage- and market-driven world, and women fought for their own emancipation.

## REVOLUTIONS AND INDEPENDENCE MOVEMENTS

### NORTH AMERICA

From 1756 to 1763, France and Great Britain fought a war that is known as the Seven Years' War. While the war broke out in Europe, it quickly spread to North America where the French and their Native American allies fought the British and their colonist allies, and to India where both fought with Indian allies. The war proved to be a disaster for the French who lost in all three places, losing their Canadian territories in North America and their trading region in India. Because it was fought on three continents, the Seven Years' War can be called the first global war.

Britain's Empire in America seemed secure after its victory over France in 1763, but the cost of the war had been high. Dealing with this debt started a chain of events that led to deteriorating relations between the crown in London and its subjects in North America. The British government thought that the American colonists should pay for a portion of the costs of the war since it was fought in part to protect the colonist's interests. Therefore, Parliament enacted a series of laws aimed at raising tax revenues from the colonists, even though they were not represented in Parliament.

The American colonists argued that they could govern their own affairs with the famous quote, "no taxation without representation." In 1774, the Continental Congress organized and coordinated colonial resistance, and in 1775, British troops and American militia clashed at Lexington, Massachusetts. On July 4, 1776, the **Declaration of Independence**—inspired by Enlightenment ideas—justified independence. It listed a long list of abuses by the British king amid a declaration that **all men were created equal**. Though the British enjoyed many

advantages, such as the strong government, navy, army, and loyalists, the war was fought from a great distance, and the colonists had the support of other European states.

By 1781, the British surrendered to George Washington, and in 1783, the Peace of Paris formally recognized American independence. The colonies created a federal republic with 13 states and a written constitution that guaranteed freedom of speech and religion.

In reality, however, there was no legal and political equality. Only men of property enjoyed full rights, and the landless men, women, slaves, and indigenous people did not have access to this new freedom. Yet this was an important step in the development of a government responsible to its people.

## FRANCE

Unlike the Americans who wanted the right to self-govern, the French revolutionaries in France wanted to replace the “old order” with completely new political, social, and cultural structures. The causes of this discontent included large war debts, a large tax burden on the peasants, and the increasing gap between the rich and poor. The king was forced to call the Estates General in hopes of addressing the war debts by increasing tax on the nobility.

The three estates consisted of:

Estate	Who	Numbers	% of Population	% of Land Ownership	Taxes Paid
1st Estate	Roman Catholic Clergy	100,000	<1% of pop	10% of land	no taxes
2nd Estate	Nobility	400,000	2% of pop	20% of land	no taxes
3rd Estate	Peasants, townsfolk	24 million	98% of pop	70% of land	extensive taxes

The Third Estate was further differentiated by three subdivisions. Peasants and serfs made up the bulk of the Third Estate but had no voice in government and still lived under very feudal conditions, including extensive taxation in the form of labor service to the nobles. The townsfolk, workers in the cities, worked for small wages and were mostly concerned with getting enough bread to feed their families. Finally, the merchants, bankers, and other businessmen made up a class called the bourgeoisie. The bourgeoisie were the wealthiest class in France and were the leaders of the Third Estate. The bourgeoisie, despite their wealth, were still considered commoners by the nobility; the bourgeoisie wanted to see social as well as political equality in France. The Estates General convened in May 1789, but a dispute over voting created a deadlock. Traditionally, each estate met and voted separately, with the result being that the First and Second estates always outvoted the Third Estate two to one. This time, the Third Estate wanted all the estates to meet as one and votes to be counted per head. After weeks of wrangling, the Third Estate, claiming to represent the interests of all French people, declared themselves the National Assembly. Spurred on by the peasants storming the Bastille, the National Assembly began making governmental reforms. These included ending the privileged status of nobles and issuing the **Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen**, which, like the Declaration of Independence, reflected Enlightenment political ideals. In 1791, the Assembly produced a new constitution that replaced the absolute

monarchy with a limited monarchy. However, these reforms were not enough for French radicals, who, backed by Paris crowds, took control of the Assembly.

The Committee for Public Safety, led by Maximilien Robespierre, now governed France and instigated a “Reign of Terror,” executing many aristocrats. Eventually, the revolution turned on the very radicals that started it, and it thrust France into war with the powers of Europe. The kingdoms of Austria, Britain, and Russia combined in a coalition that was meant to defeat France and undo the revolution.

The creation of a large revolutionary army to defend France helped catapult **Napoleon Bonaparte** to power. He named himself First Consul, then Consul for Life, and finally Emperor. In 1804, Napoleon issued his moderate Civil Code, which affirmed the political and legal equality of all adult men, established a merit-based society, and protected private property. However, it also limited free speech and allowed censorship of the newspapers.

Napoleon and his army defeated many of the powers of Europe and took control of much of the continent. The Napoleonic era lasted from 1803 to 1814, as warfare ranged from Europe to North Africa and the Middle East. At times, France found itself faced with multiple enemies. Taking on Russia in 1812 proved fatal, however, as the army did not survive the winter campaign. The victors met at the **Congress of Vienna** in 1815 to restore the French monarchy and protect the old regimes. Attempted revolutions (most notably in 1830 and 1848) continued to shake the old monarchies throughout the 1800s.

## HAITI

The island of Hispaniola in the Caribbean was a major center of **sugar production**. The Spanish controlled the east (Santo Domingo), and the French controlled the west (Saint Domingue), one of the richest of all the European colonies. Saint Domingue’s population consisted of 40,000 white French settlers, 30,000 gens de couleur (free people of color), and 500,000 black slaves, most born in Africa. These slaves worked under brutal conditions, and the mortality rate was very high. There was also a large community of escaped slaves, known as maroons.

The French colonial government had sent 800 gens de couleur to fight in the American Revolution, and they returned with ideas of reforming their own society. When the French Revolution broke out in 1789, the white settlers sought the right to govern themselves, but opposed extending political and legal equality to the gens de couleur. This led to civil war between these two groups.

While these two groups were in conflict, a **slave revolt** occurred in August of 1791. As a result, the whites, gens de couleurs, and slaves battled each other. French troops—and later, British and Spanish troops—invaded the island in hopes of gaining control. The slaves, however, were led by Toussaint Louverture, who built a strong and disciplined army, and by 1797, controlled most of Saint Domingue.

In 1801, a constitution was written that granted equality and citizenship to all, and in 1803, independence was declared. By 1804, Haiti was the **second independent republic in the Western Hemisphere**, and the first republic that abolished slavery. Great economic difficulty

followed independence, however. Many nations such as the United States refused to recognize or conduct trade with Haiti because of slave emancipation, and a new nation of small farmers was not as productive as the former large-scale plantation economy.

Slave resistance in other plantation societies, such as Brazil, established self-sufficient communities of former slaves known as maroon societies.

## LATIN AMERICA

In Latin America, the colonies controlled by the Spanish and Portuguese were comprised of a governing class of 30,000 peninsulares, 3.5 million Creoles, and 10 million less-privileged classes including black slaves, indigenous people, and those of mixed racial backgrounds. The Creoles were a wealthy class from the plantation economy and trade, but they had grievances about the administrative control and economic regulations of the colonies. They did not seek social reform, but rather sought to displace the powerful peninsulares. A crucial document in the history of Latin American independence movements is the **Jamaica Letter** written by the Creole leader Simón Bolívar. This letter was written in response to a request that Bolívar express his views on the independence movement in Venezuela and the form of government under which the country should operate. Like the Declaration of Independence and the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen, the Jamaica letter is firmly rooted in Enlightenment political ideals.

Napoleon's invasion of Spain and Portugal in 1807 weakened the authority of those countries in the colonies, and by 1810, revolts were occurring in Argentina, Venezuela, and Mexico. In Mexico, a peasant rebellion was led by Father Miguel de Hidalgo, but conservative Creole forces gained control of the movement. Simón Bolívar led the revolts in South America and by 1824 deposed the Spanish armies. His goal was to achieve a United States of Latin America, but it did not last. The Portuguese royal family had fled to Brazil when Napoleon invaded that nation in 1807. When the king returned in 1821, he left his son, Pedro, to rule as regent. Pedro agreed to the demands of Creoles and declared Brazil independent.

As a result of these independence movements, the Creoles became the dominant class, and many of the peninsulares returned to Europe. The society remained quite stratified and slavery continued. The wealth and power of the Roman Catholic Church remained and the lower classes continued to be repressed.

## NATIONALISM AND THE NATION-STATE

Europe was also seeing major shifts in political power at this time. Britain had made itself the model of an imperial power with a strong military and commercial base. Older powers—such as Russia and Austria—showed their age as their autocratic traditions created increasing tension within their large empires.

During the 19th century, people came to identify themselves as part of a community called a **nation**. The forces that drew these people together were their common language, customs, cultural traditions, values, historical experiences, and, sometimes, religion.

## UNIFICATION OF ITALY AND GERMANY

The spirit of nationalism was rising in two regions where small domains left over from the Middle Ages were still in place. On the Italian peninsula, the Roman Catholic Church still had great influence and discouraged the growth of Italian nationalism. The pope himself personally held large estates in central Italy. Under the leadership of Garibaldi in the south, young men pushed for an Italian nation, fighting a military campaign to unite the people behind this idea. In the north, **Count Camillo di Cavour**, the prime minister to King Victor Emmanuel II of Sardinia, aligned with France and expelled Austria from northern Italy. In 1870, the nation of Italy was proclaimed, and the king of Sardinia was chosen as its sovereign.

Farther north, the kingdom of Prussia was becoming more powerful after the defeat of Napoleon. The chancellor of Prussia, **Otto von Bismarck**, had a vision of a united Germany and so engineered a series of wars with Denmark and Austria to consolidate the territory needed for a nation. The final stroke was to maneuver France to declare war on Prussia and to use that as a pretext for gathering all the German domains together to fight as one. The war was a resounding victory for Prussia, and Bismarck proclaimed the birth of the German nation. He did this in the French palace at Versailles, humiliating France by taking territory on the French-German border.

The birth of a unified Germany would cause a noticeable shift in the balance of power in Europe. France was in decline, and Germany would now begin to rival Great Britain as an industrial producer and leader in technology. Prussia was proud of its army, and German military tactics were becoming well-known around the world. The military traditions of old Prussia would now flex their muscles, as Germany looked to be a new world power.

The new German nation was in many ways deeply conservative in its politics. Bismarck, however, supported a series of reforms that established state pensions and public health insurance plans that used the government to protect the social welfare of the masses.

## ZIONISM

One problem with the formation of nations was the issue of **minority** groups. Often, a minority group living within a nation did not fit the nation's identity. One such group was the Jews. The Jews did not have their own territory, but rather lived as a minority in other nations. As **anti-Semitism** (hostility or prejudice toward Jews or Judaism) rose in the 19th century, so did the Zionist movement. This movement sought to establish a Jewish state in Palestine. A Jewish reporter, Theodor Herzl, launched the Zionist movement in 1897.

## LATIN AMERICA

By the 1830s, most of Latin America was made up of independent nations. The leaders of these independence movements had hoped to create representative governments with freedom of commerce and protection of private property. They often feared, however, that the mass population was unprepared for self-rule. **Early constitutions** were written to create order and representation, but voting restrictions regarding property and literacy were instituted. Some

early leaders, like Simón Bolívar, dreamed of a unified Latin America, but regional rivalries and economic competition prevented that from occurring.

These new nations faced many problems, such as economies that had been disrupted by many years of warfare and by large armies loyal to regional commanders (**caudillos**) instead of the new national government. Most leaders agreed that the governments should be republics, but disagreed on what kind. That is, should it be a strong central government or a regional state-based government?

Additionally, the role of the **Catholic Church** remained strong. Few questioned its doctrines, but many wanted to limit its role in civil life. In Mexico, for example, politics was a struggle between conservatives and liberals, and instability and financial difficulty made it a target for **foreign intervention** by the United States and Europe.

## INDUSTRIALIZATION

The rise of modern industry was a direct outcome of the scientific activity and invention of the 1600s. Water power was being harnessed to create mechanical energy, which would run more efficient mills. A machine that pumped water out of mines was patented in 1769. It ran on coal that heated water, and the steam pressure was used to push a piston. The steam engine would be the foundation of a new mechanical age in which cars, trains, boats, and factories would all be piston-driven.

The consequences of this revolution would impact human labor, consumption, family structure, and much more. Major economic and social changes that occurred in industrialized nations were:

Before Industrialization	After Industrialization
Agricultural/rural economy	Capitalist/urban economy
Family-farm economy	Wage-earning economy
Asian-based manufacturing	Factory-based manufacturing
Rural-based population	Urban population

### FACTORS OF INDUSTRIALIZATION

- An increase in agricultural production
- Technical knowledge and invention
- A large population to serve as a workforce
- Possession of natural resources like coal and iron ore
- Investment capital (money) to build factories
- A stable and capitalist-minded government
- A stable government that provides protections for private property
- Sea ports, rivers, and canals



## PRECONDITIONS FOR INDUSTRIALIZATION

Why was England the first to make the technological leap into a modern economy? Several factors encouraged industrialization, and England possessed all of them in the early 1700s. England's location on the Atlantic gave it access to raw materials from around the globe as well as access to markets for its manufactured goods. It had a wealth of natural resources, including coal and iron ore. It had a large labor pool that was no longer needed for agricultural production. Britain was also blessed with many navigable rivers that enabled factories to be located in a variety of places. It also had access to capital from a business class that had grown wealthy through commerce, especially from the Atlantic slave trade.

Poorer nations often have plenty of people, but they struggle to come up with investment capital and a stable government to help along industrialization. France and the United States were close behind Great Britain in developing industrial capability. The United States and Germany both surpassed Britain in terms of steel production by 1900, while other nations such as Russia lagged behind.

## AN AGRICULTURAL REVOLUTION

Strangely, the Industrial Revolution was, in part, made possible by advances in agriculture in Western Europe. The Dutch began this process by erecting earthen walls to reclaim land from the sea and using fertilizer from livestock to renew soil nutrients. In the 1700s, British farmers began experimenting with crop rotation, and Jethro Tull invented a mechanical seed drill that sped up the planting process. Farmers began to share their knowledge and techniques through farm journals.

## TECHNOLOGY

New sources of energy and new materials allowed manufacturers to change how things were produced. During the 1700s, people began to harness new sources of energy such as coal, which was used to develop the steam engine that was a key power source of the Industrial Revolution. Coal was also vital in the production of iron, which was used to construct machinery and steam engines. New methods for producing iron resulted in a better product produced at lower costs. Iron was a vital material during the Industrial Revolution, especially after the world began to build railroads.

A "second industrial revolution" in steel, chemicals, and electricity transformed society in the late 19th century. New types of production and the general expansion of knowledge led to new fields of sciences, such as engineering and medicine.

## FINANCIAL INSTITUTIONS

New financial systems also developed to support the new industrial production. More complex corporate structures, stock markets, and insurance enabled businessmen to raise the capital they needed to begin or expand production as well as to protect their investments from loss. Large businesses often had a global reach. Transnational corporations such as the United Fruit Company had operations that affected lives in North, Central, and South America. The ideals of laissez-faire capitalism that Adam Smith had proposed became the inspiration for these changes.

## IMPACT ON GENDER, FAMILY, AND SOCIAL STRUCTURES

Industrialization greatly impacted gender roles and families. It also radically altered the traditional social structures of the day. Slavery declined, because slaves could not consume industrial products as did free-wage laborers. The family, which had been a self-sufficient economic unit, moved that economic production outside the home. Working-class women and children entered the workforce as cheap factory laborers.

A sharp distinction was now being made between family life and work life. Men's status increased because industrial work and the wage were considered more important than domestic work. Middle-class values became distinct from those of the industrial working class. Middle-class women generally did not work outside the home, but instead were pressured to conform to the new models of behavior often referred to as the "**cult of domesticity.**"

## THE FACTORY SYSTEM

The Industrial Revolution led to the establishment of the **factory system** in which factories employed large amounts of workers and power-driven machines to mass-produce goods. In the late 1800s, manufacturers sought to increase productivity and profits by designing products with **interchangeable parts**, identical components that could be used in place of one another. This processed simplified assembly, but it also made a lot of factory work tedious and repetitive.

## GLOBAL EFFECTS OF INDUSTRIALIZATION

As a result of industrialization, a new **global division of labor** emerged. Industrial societies needed raw materials from other lands and a large demand for materials such as raw cotton from India and Egypt, and rubber from Brazil and the Congo. Latin America, sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia, and Southeast Asia became dependent on exporting cash crop products to the industrialized nations, but established little or no industrialization themselves. Most of the profits from these cash crops went abroad, and wealth was concentrated in the hands of the few.

The **dependency theory** attempts to explain the uneven result of development. Instead of underdevelopment being a result of failed modernization, it claims that underdevelopment and development are part of the same process because the development of some areas is achieved at the expense of others. One example of this would be the development of a cash crop economy in Africa, which reinforced Africans' dependency on European manufactured goods.

## ADVANCES IN TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATION

During both the first and second Industrial Revolutions, technology transformed transportation and communication. During the first Industrial Revolution, the development of the steam engine led to creation of steamships and steam-powered locomotives, which rapidly sped up transportation. The creation of canals enabled heavy loads to be transported long distances and linked previously separate waterways. During the second Industrial Revolution, the development

of the internal combustion engine transformed how machines operated and began the rise of oil as a global commodity. During this period, the development of the telegraph and later that of the telephone revolutionized the speed at which businesses and people could communicate with each other.

## REACTIONS TO INDUSTRIALIZATION

### SOCIALISM

As the 19th century progressed, the ideas of tolerance and egalitarianism from the Enlightenment inspired many political movements. Some were revolutionary, while others were liberal or reformist. As the Industrial Revolution redefined both society and the economy, other tensions arose.

The appalling conditions that workers experienced in the 1800s inspired **anticapitalist reform** and revolutionary movements. Under the broad title of *socialism*, these movements critiqued the money economy and suggested instead a utopian alternative—an economy that was run by the workers. The utopians sought to create self-sufficient communities in which property was owned in common and work was shared. One of the most prominent socialist thinkers was **Karl Marx**, who advocated the **overthrow of the moneyed classes**, to be followed by a “workers’ state.” Socialist movements ranged from revolutionary to liberal.

### UNIONISM

Less radical was the union movement, which advocated the organization of workers so that they could negotiate with their employers for **better wages** and **working conditions**. This led to extreme tensions and considerable bloodshed: Factories fought to stop workers from banding together, and workers fought to remain unified. As a left-wing movement, unionism was often accused of being socialistic. The lines became blurred, as some workers became radicalized and adopted violence as a tactic.

### LIBERALISM

The most mainstream response to industrialization was the rise of **liberalism**, which resulted from the rapid growth of the middle class. With philosophical roots in the Enlightenment, liberals wanted written constitutions based on separation of powers. They were opposed to monarchies and proponents of “natural rights.” Having greatly benefited from the new capitalist, industrial economy, liberals were staunch supporters of the *laissez-faire* economics espoused by Adam Smith among others.

## REFORM AND REACTION

The traditional empires of the Ottomans, Russia, China, and Japan all had to deal with similar issues during this period. They had to decide **how much they wanted to reform** in the new industrial world. How much should they change their societies? They all tried to change with the times, but with varying degrees of success. In each case, conservative forces came to resist the attempts at reforms.

## OTTOMAN EMPIRE

By the 1700s, the armies of the Ottoman Empire had fallen behind those of Europe, in both strength and technology. And as the empire's military weakened, its vulnerability increased. The central government was becoming less effective, while the provinces were becoming increasingly independent—often controlling their own private armies.

In addition to losing control of territory, the Ottomans also experienced a decrease in trade. They were circumvented as Europe began to trade directly with India and China. Also, much trade shifted to the Atlantic Ocean, in which the Ottomans had no involvement. European products flowed into the empire, and it began to depend heavily on foreign loans. Europeans were even given **capitulations** (special rights and privileges), such as being subject to only their own laws, not those of the Ottomans. All of this was a great blow to the empire's ego.

The empire did attempt to reform itself beginning with the rule of Mahmud II. Mahmud organized a more effective army and a system of secondary education and built new roads, telegraph lines, and a postal service. These reforms continued into the **Tanzimat era** (1839–1879), when the government used the French legal system as a guide to reform its own laws. Additionally, public trials and equality were instituted before the laws for Muslims and those from other religious groups.

These reforms were met with much opposition, particularly from religious conservatives and the Ottoman bureaucracy. The **Young Turks**, a group of exiled Ottoman subjects, pushed for universal suffrage, equality before the law, and the emancipation of women. In 1908, they led a coup that overthrew the sultan and set up a “puppet” sultan that they controlled. Though the Ottoman Empire had attempted to reform and change with the changing times, it was left weak and vulnerable by the end of the 19th century.

## RUSSIA

Much like the Ottoman Empire, the Russian Empire was autocratic, multiethnic, multilingual, and multicultural. The ruling czars were supported by both the Russian Orthodox Church and the noble class, which owned most of the land. The peasants were the majority of the population, and the institution of serfdom served as a guarantee of social stability. But unlike the Ottomans who were losing territory, the Russian Empire had **vastly expanded**—east to Manchuria, south into the Caucasus and Central Asia, and southwest to the Mediterranean. Its military power and strength was not up to par with that of Europe, however, as demonstrated in its defeat in the **Crimean War**.

The military defeat of the Crimean War highlighted the weakness of Russia's military and economy as compared to Europe's, pushing the government to modernize. A first step was the **emancipation of the serfs** by Czar Alexander II in 1861. He also created district assemblies (**zemstvos**) in 1864, in which all classes had elected representatives, but were subordinate to czarist authority.

The government also encouraged industrialization. Policies designed to stimulate economic development were issued, such as the construction of the **Trans-Siberian Railroad** and the remodeling of the state bank. This relatively fast-paced, government-sponsored industrialization

led to many peasant rebellions and industrial worker strikes. The government limited the maximum workday to 11.5 hours in 1897 as a response, though it also prohibited trade unions and outlawed strikes.

The anti-government protest increased through the involvement of the university students and intellectuals known as the **intelligentsia**. The more these groups were repressed by the government, the more radical they became. A member of the revolutionary “People’s Will” group, which was organized in 1879 and employed terrorism in their attempt to overthrow Russia’s czarist autocracy, assassinated Czar Alexander II in 1881, bringing an end to government reform. The new czars used repression—not reform—to control the people. Czar Nicholas II, in an attempt to deflect attention from the growing opposition, focused on expansion through the **Russo–Japanese War** in 1904, but the Russians suffered an embarrassing defeat.

In January 1905, a group of workers marched to the czar’s Winter Palace to petition and were killed by government troops. The **Bloody Sunday** massacre set off anger and rebellion across the empire, which as a whole was known as the Revolution of 1905. The government made concessions by creating a legislative body called the Duma, but in reality, not much changed in Russia.

Europeans trying to trade with China found themselves at a disadvantage. With its vast population and resources, China was self-sufficient and, along with its superior attitude toward foreigners, required nothing that the Europeans produced. Europeans, Britain in particular, desired trade with China to acquire silks, lacquerware, and tea, which was rapidly becoming the national drink of England. British merchants paid in silver bullion for Chinese goods. The amount of bullion a nation or company had determined its wealth and its strength (mercantilism). This drain of silver from England led its merchants to find something the Chinese wanted other than bullion. They found it in opium, an addictive narcotic made from the poppy plant. Despite the emperor’s making the opium trade illegal, British merchants smuggled it into China, where Chinese merchants were only too happy to buy it for silver, which the British merchants turned around and used to buy Chinese goods, making a profit on both ends. This reversed the silver drain from Britain to China where the number of opium addicts was growing tremendously, causing labor problems.

## CHINA

The Chinese, like the Ottomans and Russians, had to deal with their own issues of reform and reaction in the 19th century. The Qing had grown more and more ineffective as rulers of China. New food crops brought about a rapid population increase. During the Qing dynasty, it is estimated that the Chinese population quadrupled to 420,000,000. This increase created great strains on the nation, and famines were increasingly common. A series of wars and rebellions further weakened the dynasty in the 1800s.

Aggressive British traders began to import opium from India into China, and a customs dispute in Guangzhou led to the first **Opium War** in 1839. This resulted in two humiliating defeats for China and a series of **unequal treaties** that gave Britain and other European nations commercial entry into China.

Rebellions such as the **Taiping Rebellion** placed further stress on China. An obscure scholar named **Hong Xiuquan**, who believed he was the brother of Jesus Christ, founded an offshoot of Christianity. A social reform movement grew from this in the 1850s, which the government began to suppress. Hong established the Taiping Tianguo (Heavenly Kingdom), and his followers created an army that, within two years of fighting, controlled a large territory in central China.

Internal disputes within the Taipings finally helped the Qing dynasty defeat them, but it was a desperate 10-year struggle that exhausted the imperial treasury. The death toll is estimated in the millions, making it the bloodiest civil war in human history.

The government did attempt reforms so it could change with the times. With government-sponsored grants in the 1860s and 1870s, local leaders promoted military and economic reform in China using the slogan, “Chinese learning at the base, Western learning for use.” These leaders built modern shipyards, railroads, and weapon industries, and they founded academies for the study of science. It was a great foundation and beginning, but the **Self-Strengthening Movement** only brought minimal change. It also experienced resistance from the imperial government.

The last major reform effort was known as the **Hundred Days of Reform**. This ambitious movement reinterpreted Confucian thought to justify radical changes to the system, with the intent to remake China into a powerful modern industrial society. The Emperor Guangzu instituted a program to change China into a constitutional monarchy, guarantee civil liberties, and encourage foreign influence. These proposed changes were strongly resisted by the imperial household. Particularly upset was the Empress Dowager Cixi, who cancelled the reforms and imprisoned the emperor. With that, China’s chance for a reformed society ended.

Another rebellion further complicated issues in China. In 1900, the anti-foreign **Boxer Rebellion** sought to rid China of foreigners and foreign influence. Empress Cixi threw her support behind the movement, hoping to end all foreign influence. A multinational force from countries such as the United States, Russia, and Japan, however, handily defeated the Boxers and forced China to pay an indemnity for the damages.

Amidst all of these rebellions and attempts at reform, a revolutionary movement was slowly emerging in China. It was composed of young men and women who had traveled outside Asia—

### SUN YIXIAN’S THREE PRINCIPLES OF THE PEOPLE

1. **Nationalism:** Self-determination of the Chinese people; freedom from foreign influence (pertaining to both Manchu rule and European encroachment)
2. **Democracy:** Self-rule with a constitutional government
3. **Socialism:** “The People’s Livelihood,” which combined a desire to modernize with a desire to institute land reform in China

who had seen the new liberalism and modernization of the West and hoped to import it to China. Cells were organized in Guangzhou and overseas in Tokyo and Honolulu, where plots to overthrow the Qing were made.

Under the leadership of **Sun Yixian** (Sun Yat Sen), the revolutionaries attempted many unsuccessful uprisings, but it wasn't until 1911 that the Qing were forced to abdicate. With the dynasty in considerable chaos, the **modern Republic of China** was proclaimed. Sun dreamed of a progressive and democratic China based on his **Three Principles of the People**, but his dream would be shattered by a civil war and the subsequent rise of Communist China in the mid-20th century.

## JAPAN—THE MEIJI RESTORATION

Japan made the most radical reforms and changes in its response to the challenges of reform and reaction and emerged from this period as a world power. Even as it continued to selectively isolate itself from the rest of world, it was changing from a feudal to a commercial economy.

The Japanese knew of China's humiliation at the hands of the British in the mid-1800s. After the California Gold Rush of 1849, the United States became more interested in Pacific commerce, sending a mission to conclude a trade agreement with Japan. It arrived in Edo (Tokyo) Bay in 1853 with a modern fleet of armed steamships. For the Japanese, who had restricted its trade from much of the world for over two centuries, this was an awe-inspiring sight. They told the Americans to leave, but this caused tense debate within the shogunate and the samurai class.

Two clans in the south—Satsuma and Choshu—supported a new policy to “**revere the emperor and repel the barbarians.**” This was a veiled critique of the shogun in Edo, as they perceived his inability to ward off the Western “barbarians” as embarrassing. This was their chance to restore the emperor in Kyoto to prominence.

A younger generation of reform-minded samurai from domains distant from Edo made bold plans to undermine the bakufu. These “men of spirit” banded together to overthrow the shogun and to advance the idea that Japan needed to modernize. They armed themselves with guns from the West, and a civil war broke out in 1866. When the antigovernment forces showed their superiority of outside technology, the momentum began to shift in favor of the rebels.

The overthrow of the Tokugawa regime was complete in 1868, when the victorious reformers pronounced that they had restored the emperor to his throne. They named him **Meiji**, or **Enlightened One**. The nation rallied around the 16-year-old emperor, and plans were made to move the imperial “presence” to the renamed capital of Tokyo (Eastern Capital). This great transition in Japanese history has been called both a **revolution** and a **restoration**. Historians debate about which term to use because the Japanese did not overthrow the old order and replace it with something new. Rather, they reached into their past and used an older model to transform their nation.

The rapidity of the industrialization and modernization of Japan became a marvel to the observing world. Within the first generation of the Meiji period, Japan had built a **modern infrastructure** and **military**, had defeated the Chinese and Russians in war, and had begun building an empire in the Pacific that European powers had to take note of. This was a clear sign that industrialization was achievable by non-Europeans and that new power shifts were in the wind.

### COMPARATIVE CLOSE-UP: REFORM AND REACTION IN THE 19TH CENTURY

	Political	Economic	Social
<b>Ottoman Empire</b>	Institute French legal system (equality before the law, public trials) but it is met with considerable opposition. Empire collapses after World War I.	As trade shifts to the Atlantic Ocean, becomes heavily reliant on European loans.	Young Turks push for universal suffrage and emancipation of women.
<b>Russia</b>	Zemstvos (local assemblies) is created. Duma established after Revolution of 1905, but is subject to whim of czar. Czar overthrown in 1917.	Government sponsors industrialization projects such as the Trans-Siberian Railroad.	Emancipated the serfs in 1861. Students and intelligentsia spread ideas of change in the countryside.
<b>China</b>	Hundred Days of Reform attempts to create constitutional monarchy, but halted by Empress Cixi. Rebellions like the Taiping and Boxer weaken the empire. Dynasty overthrown in 1911.	After loss in Opium War, European powers gain economic concessions under the Unequal Treaties and divide China into spheres of influence.	Peasant-led Taiping Rebellion attempts to create a more egalitarian society, but is eventually defeated.
<b>Japan</b>	Tokugawa Shogunate is overthrown and the emperor is restored to power. A legislative body, the Diet, is formed.	Government sponsors massive industrialization and trade. Japan rises to economic prominence.	The old feudal order is disrupted. Samurai class loses power, but some transition to roles in industrial leadership. New industrial working class develops.

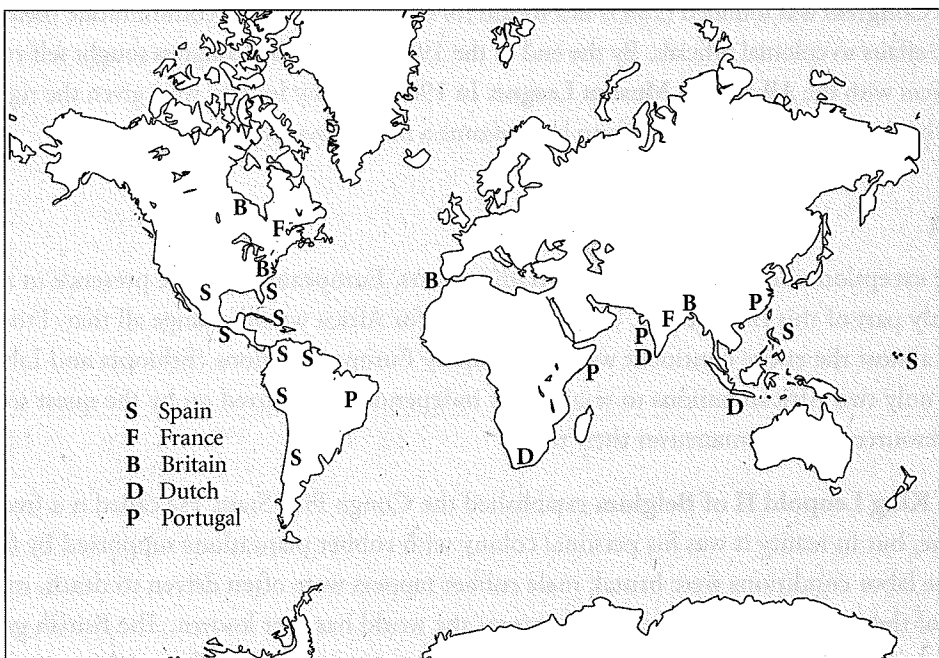
### IMPERIALISM AND ITS IMPACT

The European (and later United States and Japanese) drive to imperialize had three major motives: economic, political, and cultural. Economically, the overseas colonies served as **sources of raw materials and markets for manufactured goods**. Politically, these colonies were strategic sites with harbors and supply stations for commercial ventures and naval ships. The key was to gain the advantage before one's rival did. It also focused public attention on the quest of imperialist ventures and stirred up feelings of nationalism at home.



The cultural motivation and justification for imperialism arose in part from the concept of **Social Darwinism**, which attempted to apply the principles of Darwinian evolution to societies and politics. According to proponents of this theory, societies either prospered or failed because, as is the case in nature, only the strong survive and are able to dominate the weak. Therefore, Western European and American societies must be better than those in Asia and Africa and therefore had the right to impose their economic and political will on them.

Culturally, **missionaries** hoped to convert the Asian and African people to Christianity. While many missionaries served as protectors of native peoples, some saw their mission as one of bringing civilization to the uncivilized.



### European Imperialism

#### INDIA

England's involvement in India began strictly as a business venture. The **British East India Company** enjoyed a monopoly on English trade with India, and it soon took advantage of the Mughal Empire's weakness. Expanding its trading posts, it began a campaign to the British government to outright conquer and protect its interests. It enforced its rule with a small British army and Indian troops, known as **sepoys**. In 1857, the sepoys **mutinied** after they received rifles with cartridges greased in animal fat (cow fat was offensive to Hindus and pig fat was offensive to Muslims). The sepoys killed British officers, escalating the conflict into a large-scale rebellion.

By May 1858, the British government had crushed the rebellion and restored its authority. It went on to impose direct imperial rule on India with a viceroy who served as the representative of British authority.

Under British rule, forests were cleared; tea, coffee, and opium began to be cultivated; and railroads, telegraphs, canals, harbors, and irrigation systems were built. English-style schools were set up for Indian elites and Indian customs such as sati (a religious funeral practice among some Indian communities in which a recently widowed woman would immolate herself on her husband's funeral pyre) were suppressed. British imperialism had a profound effect on the decline of the Indian textile industry, because British merchants desired Indian cotton, which would be shipped to England, made into textiles, and then sold in India.

British rule in India helped to create a sense of Indian national identity. The elites who had been educated in British universities were inspired by Enlightenment values and began to criticize the British colonial regime. They called for political and social reform. As such, with British approval, the **Indian National Congress** was founded (1885) as a forum for educated Indians to communicate their views on public affairs to colonial officials. By the end of the 19th century, the Congress sought self-rule and joined forces with the **All-Indian Muslim League**. In 1909, wealthy Indians were given the right to vote, but by that time, the push for reform had become a mass movement.

## AFRICA

With the exception of coastal colonies and trading posts, Europeans had little presence in Africa in the early part of this time period, but the scramble for Africa would change all that. From 1875 to 1900, almost the entire continent was carved up by European nations (Ethiopia and Liberia were the only two African nations to retain their independence) spurred on by the quest to exploit African resources and outmaneuver their rivals.

In 1885, **King Leopold II of Belgium** established the Congo Free State. He called it a free-trade zone, but in reality it was his personal colony with rubber plantations supported by forced labor. The labor conditions were brutal; male rubber tappers were often driven to death, making this one of the most heinous forced labor systems the world has ever known. The British gained influence in Egypt in 1882, when they occupied the area to protect their financial interests and the **Suez Canal**. As European competition heated up, the potential for conflict seemed imminent. In response to this rising tension, German Chancellor Otto von Bismarck called the **Berlin Conference**. Delegates (none of which were African) were invited to establish the ground rules for the colonization of Africa. It was decided that any European state could establish an African colony after notifying the others.

European colonies in Africa had three main types of rule: **direct rule**, **indirect rule**, and **settler rule**. The French, Belgians, Germans, and Portuguese used direct rule to govern their African colonies. They had centralized administrations, usually in urban centers that stressed policies of assimilation. This meant that the colonialists had the intention of "civilizing" African societies so they would be more like Europe. The British mostly used indirect rule to govern their colonies. This system used indigenous African rulers within the colonial administration, although they often had a subordinate role. Settler rule refers to the type of colonialism in which European settlers imposed direct rule on their colonies. Settler colonies differed from other African colonies in that many immigrants from Europe settled in these colonies. These settlers were not like

missionaries or European colonial officials. They were more like early European immigrants to the United States and Canada, who planned to make the colonies their permanent home.

## JAPAN

Because Japan was so greatly strengthened by the government-sponsored industrialization, it, too, was able to enter the imperialism game. In 1876, the Japanese bought modern warships from the British and went on to defeat Korea easily. In fact, Japan forced Korea to sign unequal treaties, much like those to which Japan itself had been subjected earlier.

The **Sino-Japanese War** (1894) was sparked by a rebellion in Korea. Japan quickly defeated the Chinese fleet and Korea became a dependency of Japan. China also ceded Taiwan, the Pescadores Islands, and the Liaodong peninsula, and was forced to sign unequal treaties. Japan also defeated Russia in the **Russo-Japanese War** (1904) over territory in Manchuria and Korea, solidifying itself as a world player.

## LEGACIES OF IMPERIALISM

Many economic and social changes occurred throughout the world as a result of imperialism. For one, manufacturers were transformed into suppliers of raw materials and consumers of imported goods. In India, for instance, the cultivation of cotton became solely used for export to England, and inexpensive English textiles were then imported. India, once the world's leading manufacturer of cotton, became a consumer of British textiles.

**Migration** increased as well. Europeans migrated to the United States, Canada, Argentina, Australia, and South Africa in search of cheap land and better economic opportunities. These Europeans often served as a new labor force in industrializing areas. Most traveled as free agents, though some were indentured servants.

Migrants from Asia and Africa, on the other hand, were most often **indentured servants** and went to tropical lands in the Americas, the Caribbean, Africa, and Oceania. With the decrease in slavery, planters still needed laborers to work on their plantations. Since most of the migrant laborers were men, gender roles in the home societies shifted as women took on roles that men had done previously. Indentured servants were offered free passage, food, shelter, clothing, and some compensation, in return for five to seven years of work. As a result, large communities from around the world migrated to new lands, bringing their culture and traditions.

Despite their success at creating supportive ethnic enclaves when they were allowed to immigrate, migrants were often subjected to regulations aimed at blocking their entry into a new nation. For example, the Chinese Exclusion Act was passed by the United States Congress in 1882. This act placed a 10-year moratorium on Chinese immigration. The rationale for this discriminatory law was that Chinese migrants posed a threat to the social order.

The theory of **scientific racism** developed during this period of imperialism to explain differences in race. These theorists assumed that humans consisted of several distinct racial groups and that

the European racial groups were intellectually and morally superior. These ideas were often used as justification for the treatment of colonial peoples. In addition, **Social Darwinists** adapted Darwin's evolutionary idea of "survival of the fittest" to explain the development of human societies. These ideas were used to justify the invariably unequal and often brutal mistreatment of non-whites by European imperialists and colonizers.

## EMANCIPATION

### SLAVERY

Many 19th-century liberals in Europe and North America supported the abolition of slavery, as the Enlightenment ideas of liberty and equality seemed to openly conflict with that institution. Additionally, frequent slave revolts in the 1700s and 1800s were making slavery an expensive and dangerous business. Economically, it became **less profitable**, as protection from the revolts required an expensive military force. Also, even in more peaceful times, slaves generally worked only as hard as they had to in order to avoid punishment, because they had no incentives to do otherwise. Wage laborers can be given incentive either by promising them higher wages for greater productivity or by threatening them with loss of employment if they fail to meet or exceed production quotas.

As the price of sugar decreased, the profitability of sugar decreased, but the price for slaves increased. Many plantation owners shifted their investments to manufacturing, where wage labor was more profitable. In turn, those laborers would buy the manufactured goods. Though a secret slave trade continued through much of the century, the slave trade ended first in Great Britain in 1807, and then in the United States in 1808. (Here, however, the importation of slaves ended, though not the institution of slavery itself.) The emancipation of the slaves came later, though that took much longer: British colonies in 1833, French colonies in 1848, the United States in 1865, and Brazil in 1888.

Freedom, however, did not bring equality. In the states of the southern United States, for example, property requirements, literacy tests, and poll taxes were required to prevent freed slaves from voting, and many individuals were forced to continue with low-paying jobs.

The ending of the slave trade from Africa and the eventual emancipation of slavery in the Americas led to an increase in indentured servitude to replace the slaves. Indentured servants signed a contract giving them transportation to the land where they would work, room and board, and a small wage in return for five to seven years of labor. In the mid to late 19th century, these indentured servants came from Asian nations like India, Ceylon (now called Sri Lanka), the Philippines, China, and Indonesia. This migration led to distinct cultural changes in many Latin American and Caribbean nations such as the establishment of a variety of ethnic enclaves.

### SERFDOM

The key to social change and reform in Russia was the emancipation of the serfs. Opposition to serfdom had been growing since the 1700s. While some opposed it on moral grounds, most saw it

as an **obstacle to the economic development** in Russia, as well as a source of instability because of potential peasant revolt.

In 1861, Czar Alexander II abolished serfdom, and the government compensated landowners for the loss of land and serfs. The serfs gained their freedom and their labor obligations were gradually cancelled. They won very few political rights and had to pay a redemption tax for most of the land they received.

Few serfs prospered and most were desperately poor. Their emancipation led to very little increase in agricultural production, since peasants continued to use traditional methods of farming. It did, however, create a large urban labor force for the newly industrialized empire.

## CHANGING ROLES OF WOMEN

Generally speaking, Enlightenment thinkers were fairly conservative in their view of women's roles in society. In an effort to challenge these accepted beliefs, Mary Wollstonecraft wrote *A Vindication of the Rights of Women*, which argued that women should possess the same rights granted to men (education, for one).

In Britain, Canada, and the United States, a reform and pro-democratic women's movement became active in the 19th century. Women began to push for the right to vote in democratic elections. These powerful feminist movements sought legal and economic gains for women, along with access to professions, education, and the right to vote. In 1848, an assembly of 300 women met in **Seneca Falls, New York**, demanding political rights, equality in marriage, and employment.

Some feminists, however, were wary of granting women the right to vote, fearing they were too conservative and religious and would thus vote accordingly. The movement continued, however, and Norway became the first country to grant women the right to vote (1910). Several others followed after World War I, including Great Britain (1918) and the United States (1920).

## CULTURAL INFLUENCES

### AFRICAN AND ASIAN INFLUENCES ON EUROPEAN ART

During this time of seemingly Western cultural dominance, European artists took note of the artistic styles of both Africa and Asia. They admired the dramatic, spare style of traditional West African sculpture, wood, and metalwork, as well as the use of color and stylized forms of design in Japan. Based on those Japanese influences, the Impressionists focused on simple themes in nature, feeling that this type of art liberated them from the rules of classical painting. A new movement of modern art was soon launched, free of traditional constraints.

### CULTURAL POLICIES OF MEIJI JAPAN

As Japan was opening up to the industrialization of the West, it was also heavily influenced by the culture of the West. Japanese literature was affected by European models, and writers

experimented with Western verse. Architects and artists created large buildings of steel, with Greek columns like those seen in the West.

Many Japanese also copied Western fashion and hairstyles. Amidst all of these influences, however, Japan also continued to preserve its own values.

## LEISURE AND CONSUMPTION

The industrial age brought higher wages and fewer work hours. These changes gave people new opportunities. The middle class increased, leading to a new focus on the concept of leisure. The field of advertising communicated to the people the sense of needing things. The bicycle, for instance, became the “must-have item” of the 1880s. Popular newspapers, theaters, and professional sports all became popular in this new era of leisure and consumption.

## THE ENVIRONMENT

The Industrial Revolution had significant and long-lasting impacts on the environment. Air and water pollution affected the health of people living in the rapidly growing urban areas, as well as an increase in noise pollution. Entire landscapes were destroyed as humans cut down timber for railroad ties, stripped hills and mountains for ores, and denuded areas of vegetative cover for farming. This increase in deforestation exacerbated desertification in some areas and flooding and mudslides in others. Mechanical methods of hunting made fishing and whaling more effective with the result that many areas were significantly depleted even by the early 20th century, and many whale species were in danger of becoming extinct, until the discovery of petroleum products made whale oil less valuable. Improved firearms made hunting easier, often with disastrous results as animals like the bison of the North American plains were hunted almost to extinction. The invention of dynamite in 1867 opened the way to more effective removing of earth and stone, particularly for mines and tunnels.

Improvements in medicine and better diets coming from more food production led to a dramatic rise in population as well as to an increase in the average life expectancy. Global population in 1750 was 790 million. By 1900, the population had almost doubled. Urbanization increased even faster than population growth because new methods of transportation (most notably railroads and steamships) led to increases in both internal migration within a country and external migration. Cities were some of the most dramatic examples of human changes to the environment during this period.

It was also during this era, however, that concern for the environment, beyond the need to conserve for a nation's resources, first began to assert itself. Many nations formed forestry services, initially based on the French and then the American model. National parks and nature preserves were created to keep areas from being developed. Western curiosity and scientific observations began to note the interconnectedness of nature to include man's impact. Scientific methods in medicine and chemistry began to find and then develop cures and preventative measures like sanitation systems, use of soaps and disinfectants, and vaccinations for many of the diseases that had plagued mankind throughout the centuries.