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Chapter 13

European Society in the Age of the Renaissance

Learning Objectives

After reading and studying this chapter you should be able to

- Discuss the meanings of the term *renaissance*.
- Compare the significant features of the so-called Italian Renaissance with other periods of intellectual flowering during the Carolingian period and High Middle Ages.
- Explain how the Italian Renaissance affected politics, the economy, religion, and society.
- Elaborate on the evolution of medieval kingdoms into early modern nation-states and on the effects of conflicts such as the Reconquista, the Hundred Years' War, and Wars of the Roses on this process.
- Discuss the spread of Renaissance humanism northward and the characteristics of Christian humanism.

Chapter Outlines

Chapter 13: European Society in the Age of the Renaissance

- I. The Evolution of the Italian Renaissance
 - A. Economic Growth as the Basis of the Renaissance
 1. Venice, Genoa, and Milan grew rich on commerce between 1050 and 1300.
 2. Florence, where the Renaissance originated, was an important banking center by the fourteenth century.
 - B. Communes and Republics
 1. In northern Italy the larger cities won independence from local nobles and became self-governing communes of free men in the twelfth century.
 2. Local nobles moved into the cities and married into wealthy merchant families.
 3. This new class set up property requirements for citizenship.
 4. The excluded, the *popolo*, rebelled and in some cities set up republics.
 5. By 1300 the republics had collapsed, and despots or oligarchies governed most Italian cities.
 - C. The Balance of Power among the Italian City-States
 1. City patriotism and constant competition for power among cities prevented political centralization on the Italian peninsula.
 2. As cities strove to maintain the balance of power among themselves, they invented the apparatus of modern diplomacy.
 3. In 1494 the city of Milan invited intervention by the French King Charles VIII.
 4. Italy became a battleground as France, Spain, and the Holy Roman Emperor vied for dominance.
 5. In 1527 the forces of Holy Roman Emperor Charles V sacked Rome.
- II. Intellectual Hallmarks of the Renaissance
 - A. Individualism
 1. Renaissance writers stressed individual personality, greatness, and achievement, in contrast to the medieval ideal of Christian humility.
 - B. Humanism
 1. The revival of antiquity took the form of interest in archaeology, recovery of ancient manuscripts, and study of the Latin classics.
 2. The study of the classics became known as the "new learning," or humanism.

3. Humanist scholars studied antiquity not so much to find God as to know human nature and understand a different historical context.
 4. Humanists derided what they viewed as the debased Latin of the medieval churchmen.
- C. Secular Spirit
1. The secular way of thinking focuses on the world as experienced rather than on the spiritual and/or eternal.
 2. Renaissance thinkers came to see life as an opportunity rather than a painful pilgrimage toward God.
 3. Lorenzo Valla argued that sense pleasures were the highest good.
 4. Giovanni Boccaccio wrote about an acquisitive, sensual, worldly society.
 5. Renaissance popes expended much money on new buildings, a new cathedral (St. Peter's), and on patronizing artists and men of letters.
- III. Art and the Artist
- A. Art and Power
1. In the early Renaissance, corporate groups such as guilds sponsored religious art.
 2. By the late fifteenth century individual princes, merchants, and bankers sponsored art to glorify themselves and their families. Their urban palaces were full of expensive furnishings as well as art.
 3. Classical themes, individual portraits, and realistic style characterized Renaissance art.
 4. Renaissance artists invented perspective and portrayed the human body in a more natural and scientific manner than previous artists did.
- B. The Status of the Artist
1. Medieval masons were viewed as mechanical workers/artisans. Renaissance artists were seen as intellectual workers.
 2. The princes and merchants who patronized artists paid them well.
 3. Artists themselves gloried in their achievements. During the Renaissance, the concept of artist as genius was born.
 4. Renaissance culture was only the culture of a very wealthy mercantile elite; it did not affect the lives of the urban middle classes or the poor.
- IV. Social Change
- A. Education and Political Thought
1. Humanist writers were preoccupied with education for morality and virtue.
 2. Baldassare Castiglione's *The Courtier* (1528) presented an image of the ideal man as master of dance, music, the arts, warfare, mathematics, and so on.
 3. Daughters of the elite received an education similar to sons and a few went on to become renowned painters or scholars.
 4. In *The Prince* (1513), Niccolò Machiavelli argued that politics could not follow simple rules of virtue and morality—that it ought in fact to be studied as a science.
- B. The Printed Word
1. Around 1455 in the German city of Mainz, Johan Gutenberg and two other men invented the movable type printing press.
 2. Methods of paper production had reached Europe in the twelfth century from China through the Near East.
 3. Printing made government and Church propaganda much more practical, created an invisible "public" of readers, and stimulated literacy among laypeople.
- C. Clocks
1. City people involved in commerce had a need to measure time.
 2. By the early fourteenth century mechanical clocks were widespread in Europe.

3. Mechanical clocks and precise measurement of time contributed to the development of a conception of the universe in measurable, quantitative terms.
- D. Women and Work
1. Early modern culture identified women with marriage and the domestic virtues.
 2. Women were involved with all economic activity connected with the care and nurturing of the family, as well as working outside the home.
 3. Women during the Renaissance worked in a variety of businesses—for example, sailmaking—and even in a few isolated cases managed large enterprises.
 4. Wealthy women were usually excluded from the public arena and instead managed their households.
- E. Culture and Sexuality
1. Women's status in the realm of love, romance, and sex declined during the Renaissance.
 2. Writers such as Castiglione created the "double standard"^{3/4}women were to be faithful in marriage, while men need not be.
 3. Penalties for rape in Renaissance Italy were very light.
 4. In spite of statutes against "sodomy," generally referring to male homosexuality, Florentine records from the fifteenth century show a lot of homosexual activity going on, usually relations between an adult male and a boy.
- F. Slavery and Ethnicity
1. In medieval and Renaissance Europe many Slavic, Tartar, Circassian, Greek, and Hungarian slaves were imported.
 2. Beginning in the fifteenth century the Portuguese brought many black African slaves into Europe.
 3. Within Africa the economic motives of rulers and merchants trumped any cultural/ethnic/racial hostility toward Europeans. They sold fellow Africans into slavery apparently without qualms.
 4. Africans did not identify themselves as "black," but as members of more than 600 different tribal and ethnic groups.
 5. Black slaves were an object of curiosity at European courts.
 6. The Renaissance concept of people from sub-Saharan Africa was shaped by Christian symbology of light and darkness^{3/4}blacks represented the Devil. Race did not emerge as a concept until the late seventeenth century.
- V. The Renaissance in the North
- A. Northern Humanists
1. In the late fifteenth century students from northern Europe studied in Italy and brought the Renaissance home.
 2. Thomas More (1478–1535) of England argued that reform of social institutions could reduce or eliminate corruption and war.
 3. The Dutchman Desiderius Erasmus (1466–1536) was an expert in the Bible and Greek language who believed that all Christians should read the Bible.
 4. François Rabelais (1490–1553) ridiculed established institutions such as the clergy with gross humor in Gargantua.
 5. Flemish artists came to rival the Italian Renaissance painters.
- VI. Politics and the State in the Renaissance (ca 1450–1521)
- A. Centralization of Power
1. Some scholars have viewed Renaissance kingship as a new form, citing the dependence of the monarch on urban wealth and the ideology of the "strong king."

2. In France Charles VII (r. 1422–1461) created the first permanent royal army, set up new taxes on salt and land, and allowed increased influence in his bureaucracy from middle-class men. He also asserted his right to appoint bishops in the Pragmatic Sanction of Bourges.
3. Charles's son Louis XI (r. 1461–1483) fostered industry from artisans, taxed it, and used the funds to build up his army. He brought much new territory under direct Crown rule.
4. In England Edward IV ended the War of the Roses between rival baronial houses.
5. Henry VII ruled largely without Parliament, using as his advisers men with lower-level gentry origins.
6. Henry's Court of the Star Chamber tried cases involving aristocrats and did so with methods contradicting common law, such as torture.
7. Although Spain remained a confederation of kingdoms until 1700, the wedding of Isabella of Castile and Ferdinand of Aragon did lead to some centralization. Ferdinand and Isabella stopped violence among the nobles, recruited "middle-class" advisers onto their royal council, and secured the right to appoint bishops in Spain and in the Spanish empire in America.
8. Popular anti-Semitism increased in fourteenth-century Spain. In 1478 Ferdinand and Isabella invited the Inquisition into Spain to search out and punish Jewish converts to Christianity who secretly continued Jewish religious practices.
9. To persecute converts, Inquisitors and others formulated a racial theory^¾that conversos were suspect not because of their beliefs, but because of who they were racially.
10. In 1492 Ferdinand and Isabella expelled the Jews from Spain.

Glossary

communes	associations of men in Italian cities such as Milan, Florence, Genoa, and Pisa who sought political and economic independence from local nobles; members of communes wanted self-government.
court of Star Chamber	a division of the English royal council, a court that used Roman legal procedures to curb real or potential threats from the nobility, the court so called because there were stars painted on the ceiling of the chamber in which the court sat.
gabelle	French tax on salt; taille-French tax on land.
Hermandades	popular groups in Spanish towns given royal authority to serve as local police forces and as judicial tribunals with the goal of reducing aristocratic violence.
Humanism	term first used by Florentine rhetorician Leonard Bruni as a general word for the new learning the critical study of Latin and Greek literature, with the goal of realized human potential.
Individualism	another basic feature of the Italian renaissance stressing personality, uniqueness, genius, self-consciousness.

justices of the peace	English local officials in the shires appointed by the crown and given wide authority in local government.
New Christians	term applied to Jews who accepted Christianity but since many had become Christian centuries earlier, the word new is not accurate; Spanish nationalism stressed purity of blood.
Oligarchies	governments by the merchant aristocracy in Italian cities, such as Venice and Florence.
Popolo	disenfranchised people in Italian communes who resented their exclusion from power.
Pragmatic Sanction of Bourges (1438)	statement of French king Charles VII asserting royal control over church appointments and the superiority of a general council over the papacy.
The Prince (1513)	treatise by Machiavelli on ways to gain, keep and expand power, because of its subsequent impact probably the most important literary work of the Renaissance.
princely courts	the place or space where despots or oligarchs lived, conducted business, and displayed their wealth and patronage of the arts.
Renaissance	French word, translated from Italian rinascita first used by art historian and critic Giorgio Vasari (1511-1574) - meaning rebirth of the culture of classical antiquity; English-speaking students adopted the French term.
Republic	non-monarchical government in which political power theoretically resides in the people and is exercised by its chosen representatives.
royal council	the body of men who happened to be with the king at a given time and usually including his chief officials; renaissance princes tended to prefer middle class councilors to noble ones.
Secularism	attitude that tends to find the ultimate explanation of everything and the final end of human beings in what reason and the senses can discover, rather than in any spiritual or transcendental belief.
Signori	government by despot, one man rule in Italian cities such as Milan.

Chapter 14

Reform and Renewal in the Christian Church

Learning Objectives

After reading and studying this chapter you should be able to

- Discuss why the theological ideas of Martin Luther triggered political, social, and economic reactions.
- Discuss the medieval forerunners to Luther's critique of the church and consider whether the Reformation represents revolution or continuity.
- Explain how the growth of Protestantism shaped many aspects of western society, politics, and international relations.
- Describe the spread of Protestant thought throughout Europe.
- List the theological tenets and the contributions of Luther, Calvin, Knox, and the Anabaptists.
- Explain how the Catholic church withstood the onslaught of Protestantism.

Chapter Outlines

Chapter 14: Reform and Renewal in the Christian Church

- I. The Condition of the Church (ca 1400–1517)
 - A. Signs of Disorder
 1. Clerical immorality^¾priests frequently violated their vows of celibacy. They were also accused of drunkenness, gambling, and other vices.
 2. Clerical ignorance^¾many priests could barely read or write. They were less educated than most educated laity.
 3. Clerical absenteeism and pluralism^¾especially in higher-level Church officials who were often absent from their sees. Many held more than one office at a time, and some had bought their offices.
 4. Many Italian officials in Rome held benefices in England, France, or Germany, drawing income therefrom, but doing little for their sees.
 5. Upper levels of the Church hierarchy were dominated by aristocrats who lived well.
 - B. Signs of Vitality
 1. In Holland the Brethren of the Common Life lived simply, aided the poor, and taught in local schools.
 2. Church attendance and church donations remained high.
 3. Pope Julius II summoned an ecumenical council to discuss Church reform (1512–1517).
- II. Martin Luther and the Birth of Protestantism
 - A. Luther's Early Years
 1. Luther was a conscientious friar, but observance of the religious routine did not bring him a sense of security in salvation.
 2. Eventually he concluded that only simple faith in Christ led to salvation.
 - B. The Ninety-five Theses
 1. In Luther's home of Wittenburg in 1517 the Church was selling indulgences to raise money for the construction of St. Peter's Basilica in Rome
 2. By the 1500s common people believed that when they purchased an indulgence, they were purchasing from the Church full remission of penalties for sin.

3. Luther rejected the notion that good works, such as donating money to the Church through an indulgence, could lead to salvation. He was disturbed that Church friars were misleading the common people and wrote to his archbishop in protest.
4. In 1519 Luther challenged the authority of the Pope (and of a general church council) in public debate. He was excommunicated.
5. Holy Roman Emperor Charles V declared Luther an outlaw, but Duke Frederick of Saxony sheltered him.
6. Ulrich Zwingli, a Swiss priest, joined the Reformation in 1519, denouncing indulgences, monasticism, and celibacy. Like Luther, Zwingli insisted the laity should read the Bible.

C. Protestant Thought

1. Luther maintained that God's grace alone, without any element of individual good works, saved people.
2. Luther held that religious authority resided in Scripture alone, not Scripture in combination with traditional Church teachings.
3. Luther asserted that the Church consisted of the whole community of believers, not just the clergy.
4. Luther argued that all vocations were equally holy, and that monasticism was not a higher vocation.
5. Luther emphasized the invisible Church of all believers, not the visible hierarchy culminating in the Pope.
6. Luther argued that there were only three, not seven, sacraments—baptism, penance, and the Eucharist.
7. The Catholic Church claimed transubstantiation—that is, that the bread and wine of the Eucharist literally became Christ's body and blood—but Luther disagreed.
 - a. Luther argued for consubstantiation—that Christ was really present in the host in spirit, but that the bread and wine were not transformed.
 - b. Zwingli argued that the Eucharist was a memorial of the Last Supper and nothing more.
 - c. John Calvin believed with Luther in consubstantiation.

D. The Social Impact of Luther's Beliefs

1. Even before Luther city governments in Germany had been expressing resentment of clerical privilege and immunities.
2. Even before Luther town burghers, disgusted with the poor quality of priestly teaching, had endowed preacherships to support good preachers.
3. Luther's writing that "a Christian man is the most free lord of all" contributed to peasant unrest in Germany.
4. Following crop failures in 1523 and 1524, Swabian peasants in 1525 demanded an end to death taxes, new rents, and noble seizure of village common lands.
5. Luther initially backed the peasants.
6. When the peasants turned to violence, however, Luther egged the lords on as they crushed the rebellions.
7. Lutheranism came to exalt the state and subordinate church to the secular rulers.
8. Luther owed his success to the printing press, which helped him to spread his message, and to his own rhetorical skill.
9. Luther's claim that all vocations have equal merit, the Protestant rejection of monasticism and celibacy, the insistence that all laity (including women) should read the Bible, and Luther's acceptance of sexual desire (within marriage) all contributed to some improvement in women's circumstances.

III. Germany and the Protestant Reformation

- A. The Rise of the Habsburg Dynasty
 - 1. In 1477 the marriage of Maximilian I of the House of Habsburg and Mary of Burgundy united the Austrian Empire with Burgundy and the Netherlands, making the Habsburgs the strongest ruling family in the Holy Roman (German) Empire.
 - 2. The Habsburg Charles V (1500–1558) inherited Spain, and Spanish possessions in Italy, Sicily, and Sardinia, in addition to the lands mentioned above.
 - 3. In 1519 Charles was elected Holy Roman Emperor. He believed that it was his duty to maintain the unity of Christendom.
 - 4. Many German princes converted to Lutheranism because it allowed them to seize Church property.
 - 5. Charles V focused his attention elsewhere, and he needed the help of Protestant princes—for example, to fight off the Turkish attack on Vienna in 1529.
 - 6. Between 1521 and 1555 Charles V fought a series of wars with France over Burgundy. The French supported Lutheran princes within Germany against Charles.
 - 7. In the Peace of Augsburg (1555) Charles accepted the religious status quo in Germany.
- IV. The Growth of the Protestant Reformation
 - A. Calvinism
 - 1. Much of northern Europe broke with the Roman Church by 1555.
 - 2. Calvinism was the most important new form of Protestantism.
 - 3. Proceeding from the idea of God's absolute sovereignty and his omnipotence, the founder of Calvinism, John Calvin, concluded that human beings could do nothing to save themselves. God decided at the beginning of time who would be saved and who would not (predestination).
 - 4. Predestination did not lead to fatalism. Rather, Calvinists, convinced they were saved, were ready to endure great hardship in the struggle against evil.
 - 5. Calvin and the city government of Geneva attempted to regulate people's conduct in order to create a godly city on earth. Card playing, dancing, and so on were banned.
 - 6. The Genevan government prosecuted heretics, burning fifty-eight at the stake between 1542 and 1546, including the Spanish heretic Servetus.
 - 7. The Calvinist ethic of "the calling" glorified all vocations as pleasing to God. This doctrine encouraged hard work and vigorous activism.
 - B. The Anabaptists
 - 1. Anabaptists believed in adult baptism, religious tolerance, and separation of church and state. They shared property and admitted women as ministers.
 - 2. Catholics, Lutherans, Calvinists, and Zwinglians all recognized the doctrine of separation of church and state as pointing toward a secular society, and they persecuted Anabaptists.
 - C. The English Reformation
 - 1. The Catholic Church was vigorous in early sixteenth century England and there was less of a gap between clergy and educated laypeople than elsewhere in Europe.
 - 2. In 1534, in order to legitimize his divorce and subsequent marriage to Anne Boleyn, English King Henry VIII convinced Parliament to approve the Act of Supremacy, making him head of the English Church.
 - 3. Later, Henry seized monasteries and distributed their lands to the upper classes.

4. Elizabeth I (r. 1558–1603), daughter of Henry VIII, steered a middle course between Catholicism and the “Puritans” who wanted a “pure” church free of Catholic influences.
- D. The Establishment of the Church of Scotland
 1. Scottish nobles tended to support the Reformation, while the monarchs, King James V and his daughter Mary (r. 1560–1567), opposed it.
 2. James Knox, a minister who studied in Geneva with Calvin, was instrumental in getting the Scottish Parliament to set up a Calvinist church as the official state church of Scotland (Presbyterianism).
 - E. Protestantism in Ireland
 1. Although the English tried to impose their church on Ireland, the Irish resisted and remained Roman Catholic.
 - F. Lutheranism in Sweden, Norway, and Denmark
 1. In Sweden, Norway, and Denmark, monarchs took the lead in initiating the Reformation.
 2. The sixteenth century saw the establishment of Lutheranism and the consolidation of the Swedish monarchy.
 3. Christian III of Denmark and Norway secularized church property and set up a Lutheran church.
 - G. The Reformation in Eastern Europe
 1. Ethnic factors shaped the Reformation in Eastern Europe.
 2. In Bohemia, ethnic grievances of the Czech majority fused with resentment of the Roman church.
 3. By 1500 most Czechs had adopted the utraqism position.
 4. During the Counter-Reformation, a Catholic revival was promoted in Bohemia.
 5. By 1500 Poland and Lithuania were joined in a dynastic union.
 6. Luther’s ideas spread to the Baltic towns and then to the University of Cracow.
 7. King Sigismund I of Poland banned Luther’s teachings, limiting its success there.
 8. The Polish szlachta found Calvinism appealing.
 9. The Counter-Reformation cemented the identification of Poland with Catholicism.
 10. Lutheranism reached Hungary via Polish merchants.
 11. Military defeat by the Ottomans left Hungary divided into three parts.
 12. Many Magyar magnates accepted Lutheranism.
 13. Recognition of Habsburg rule led to a Catholic restoration in 1699.
- V. The Catholic Reformation and the Counter-Reformation
 - A. The Slowness of Institutional Reform
 1. Preoccupation with the Habsburg-Valois wars and resistance to the idea of a council kept the popes from acting quickly to deal with the Reformation.
 - B. The Council of Trent
 1. The Council of Trent (1545–1563) reaffirmed the equal authority of Scripture and of Church tradition. It reaffirmed also the seven sacraments and transubstantiation.
 2. The Council required bishops to reside in their own dioceses, ended pluralism and simony, and forbade the sale of indulgences.
 3. The Council ordered that for a marriage to be valid the vows had to be exchanged publicly.
 - C. New Religious Orders
 1. The new order of Ursuline nuns fought heresy with religious education for girls.
 2. Ignatius of Loyola founded the Jesuit order to fight the Reformation, again largely through education.
 - D. The Congregation of the Holy Office

1. In 1542 Pope Paul III created the Sacred Congregation of the Holy Office to manage the Roman Inquisition's battle against heresy.
 2. The Inquisition was a committee of six cardinals with authority to investigate, judge, and punish heretics. They had authority to execute.
- E. The Reformations: Revolution or Continuity?
1. Protestant historians stress that the Reformation was a radical break with the past, as the Church fragmented.
 2. Catholic historians stress continuity, noting the reform efforts underway in the Church well before the Protestant Reformation that continued after it had taken hold.

Glossary

Anabaptists	general name given to several Protestant groups who believed that only adults could make an informed decision about baptism (and thus entry into the Christian community) and who therefore refused to have their children baptized. Because of their belief in pacifism and that the Christian could not participate in civil affairs (by implication the separation of church and state) Luther, Calvin, and Catholics condemned and persecuted them.
Book of Common Prayer (1559)	official (parliament-approved) prayer book of the church of England, containing the prayers for all services, the forms for administration of the sacraments, and a manual for the ordination of deacons, priests, bishops
Consubstantiation	Lutheran doctrine of the Eucharist: after consecration, the bread and wine undergo a spiritual change, become the Real Presence, but are not transformed.
Diet of worms	series of imperial meetings (1521) at the bishops palace at Worms in the Rhineland where Luther defended his doctrines before the emperor Charles V. On 18 April Luther declared his final refusal to recant those doctrines, and on 26 May Charles V issued an imperial Edict condemning those doctrines.
ecumenical council	church assembly theoretically representing all catholic countries and peoples, but that ideal was not achieved at the Lateran Council (1512-1517) nor at the Council of Trent (1545-1563).
Elizabethan Settlement	term applied to English parliamentary laws passed early in Elizabeths reign that required conformity to the Church of England and uniformity of church worship.
German peasant revolts (1525)	widespread uprising of German country people protesting economic and social injustices, and justifying the revolt with (a misinterpretation of) Luthers doctrine.
Holy Office	official Roman Catholic agency founded in 1542 to combat international doctrinal heresy and to promote sounds doctrine on faith and morals.
Indulgence	papal statement (in document addressed to an individual) granting remission of priest-imposed penalty for sin (no one knew what penalty God would impose after death). Popular

belief, however, held that an indulgence secured complete remission of all penalties for sin, before and after death.

The Institutes of the Christian Religion (definitive edition 1559)

Calvins formulation of Christian doctrine, which became a systematic theology for Protestantism.

Jesuits

members of the Society of Jesus, founded by Ignatius Loyola and approved by the papacy in 1540, whose goal was the spread of the Roman Catholic faith through humanistic schools and missionary activity. The Society stressed modern methods in its works, and by 1600 numbered over 8,500 members; it was not founded to oppose the Reformation.

Lords Supper

Eucharistic doctrine espoused by Swiss reformer Zwingli whereby the Eucharist is a memorial of the Last Supper, but no changes occur in the elements.

Pluralism

clerical practice of holding more than one church benefice (or office) at the same time and enjoying the income from each.

Preacherships

offices, endowed by laypeople in many German towns, that required holders to give informed, well-prepared sermons; they helped pave the way for Protestant worship in which the sermon is the main part of the service.

Predestination

Calvins teaching (based on his interpretation of Romans 8: 28-30, Ephesians 1: 3-14, and 2 Timothy 1:9) that by Gods decree some persons are guided to salvation, others to damnation; that God has called us not according to our works but according to His purpose and grace.

Protestant

at the Diet of Speyer (1529) princes who favored church reforms along Lutheran lines protested decisions of the Catholic princes; hence, initially, Protestant meant Lutheran, but as other groups appeared, the term Protestant meant all non-Catholic Christian sects.

The Imitation of Christ

spiritual classic authored by Thomas a Kempis (c. 1380-1471) urging Christ as the model of Christian life and simplicity in living; widely read by laypeople, as well as by clergy.

Transubstantiation

Catholic doctrine of the Eucharist (ch. 14): that when the bread and wine (the elements) are consecrated by the priest at Mass, they are transformed into the actual Body and Blood of Christ.

Chapter 15

The Age of Religious Wars and European Expansion

Learning Objectives

After reading and studying this chapter you should be able to

- Explain the causes and consequences of the religious wars in France, the Netherlands, and Germany.
- Explain the causes and consequences of the Habsburg-Valois and Thirty Years Wars; compare and contrast religious and dynastic wars.
- Discuss factors that led to the European discovery and conquest of other lands.
- Explain how Europeans influenced the peoples of other continents and how having overseas possessions affected Europe.
- Explain these topics: Portugals role in the Age of Exploration and Discovery, the significance of advanced technology in Europes expansion, the achievements of the early Spanish explorers and conquistadors.
- Discuss early modern views of ethnicity and slavery, women and appropriate gender roles.

Chapter Outlines

Chapter 15: The Age of Religious Wars and Overseas Expansion

- I. Politics, Religion, and War
 - A. A New Kind of Warfare
 1. The Treaty of Cateau-Cambrésis (1559) between France and Spain made Spain dominant in Italy. It ended an age of dynastic warfare and began an age of religious and political warfare.
 2. Warfare in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries differed from medieval warfare.
 - a. Armies were larger and more expensive.
 - b. Gunpowder weakened the notion that war was ennobling.
 - c. People did not realize that the medieval ideal of a pan-European society ruled by one emperor and one pope was dead.
 - B. The Origins of Difficulties in France (1515–1559)
 1. Depopulation caused by the Hundred Years' War and plague meant the end of serfdom in France (due to labor shortages).
 2. Inflation sapped noble income from land.
 3. To pay for the Habsburg-Valois wars, French King Francis I sold government offices, creating a tax-exempt "nobility of the robe."
 4. In the Concordat of Bologna with the Pope, Francis gained power to appoint bishops and abbots in France, a source of offices for patronage appointments (and one reason France remained officially Catholic).
 5. Protestantism, however, continued to make rapid gains in France in the sixteenth century.
 - C. Religious Riots and Civil War in France (1559–1598)
 1. French monarchs in the second half of the sixteenth century were weak.
 2. During this period almost half of the French nobility was Calvinist. Being Calvinist was a way of demonstrating independence from central power.
 3. Commoner Catholics and Calvinists wrought horrific violence against one another.

4. In the St. Bartholomew's Day Massacre in 1572, Catholics in Paris killed thousands of "Huguenots" (French Calvinists).
 5. Civil War followed, and ended only in 1598 when King Henry IV converted to Catholicism and issued the Edict of Nantes, protecting Huguenots but limiting their right to proselytize.
- D. The Netherlands under Charles V
1. Late sixteenth-century international politics centered on the Netherlands.
 2. Emperor Charles V inherited the seventeen provinces that make up present day Belgium and Holland.
 3. The Netherlands was a center of commercial activity.
 4. As elsewhere, corruption in the Roman church led to calls for reform.
 5. In 1556 Charles V divided his realm between his brother Ferdinand and his son Philip.
- E. The Revolt of the Netherlands (1566–1587)
1. By the 1560s Calvinism had made rapid progress among wealthy Netherlands merchants.
 2. Phillip II of Spain (one of two successors to Emperor Charles V) appointed his half-sister Margaret regent of the Netherlands in 1559.
 3. Margaret brought the Inquisition into the area to crush Protestantism, and raised taxes.
 4. In August 1566 Calvinists rioted, destroying churches and libraries.
 5. Philip sent troops to crush the rebellion and civil war raged for ten years (1568–1578).
 6. Ultimately the areas the Spanish managed to hold became Belgium, and the areas that declared independence in 1581 became the Netherlands (or Holland).
 7. As the Spanish invaded the Netherlands after 1581, England aided the Protestant government there.
- F. Philip II and the Spanish Armada
1. Philip II of Spain was determined to crush heresy.
 2. In 1587 Philip, at the urging of the Pope, prepared a great fleet to attack England.
 3. In 1588 this "Spanish Armada" was defeated by the English fleet and bad weather, preventing Philip from forcing northern Europe back into the Catholic church.
- G. The Thirty Years' War (1618–1648)
1. By the early seventeenth century Catholics, Lutherans, and Calvinists were violating the Peace of Augsburg in the Holy Roman Empire, proselytizing and converting rulers. The result was the formation of the Protestant Union of Lutheran princes (1608) and the opposing Catholic League (1609).
 2. A Protestant attack on German Emperor Ferdinand's officials in Prague, Bohemia, began war between Protestants and Catholics in the Holy Roman Empire.
 3. The first phase of the war (1618–1625) involved fighting in Bohemia between Ferdinand, supported by the Catholic League, and the Protestant Union. Ferdinand was victorious.
 4. The second phase of the war (1625–1629) was the Danish phase, involving intervention by King Christian IV of Denmark on the Protestant side. During this phase too Ferdinand was victorious. However, the Habsburgs' chief general, Wallenstein, alienated many Catholic princes with his high-handed and self-interested behavior.
 5. The third phase of the war (1630–1635) involved successful intervention by Swedish King Gustavus Adolphus on the Protestant side. France subsidized the Swedes to limit Habsburg power.

6. The fourth phase of the war (1635–1648) involved direct French intervention on the Protestant side.
 7. In 1648 peace was at last achieved. The Peace of Westphalia recognized the Netherlands's independence, made 300 or so German princes sovereign on their own territories, gave France gains on her eastern frontiers, and denied the Pope the right to intervene in German religious affairs. The Peace also stipulated the same terms as Augsburg, dividing up Germany among Lutheran, Catholic, and Calvinist princes.
- H. Germany after the Thirty Years' War
1. The Thirty Years' War was probably the worst economic and social disaster Germany suffered before the twentieth century.
- II. Discovery, Reconnaissance, and Expansion
- A. Overseas Exploration and Conquest
1. Political centralization in Spain, France, and England helps explain their expansion.
 2. Portugal led the expansion, seeking to Christianize Muslims, import gold from West Africa, find an overseas route to India to obtain Indian spices, and contact the mythical Christian ruler of Ethiopia, Prester John.
 3. Beginning in 1415 the Portuguese sent their ships further down the west coast of Africa until they rounded the Cape of Good Hope and reached India in 1497–1499.
 4. The Portuguese reached Brazil in 1500.
 5. The Portuguese fought Muslim rulers to control the Indian Ocean and won.
- B. Technological Stimuli to Exploration
1. With the development of large cannon and their placement on heavy-hulled sailing vessels, Europeans had a naval weapon without parallel.
 2. Advances in navigation, such as the compass and the astrolabe, helped navigation.
- C. The Explorers' Motives
1. 1. Overpopulation did not motivate the explorers; Europe wasn't overpopulated at the time.
 2. The Crusading drive was one force behind exploration.
 3. So too was a shortage of opportunity in Spain for small-time nobles and merchants.
 4. Government sponsorship encouraged the voyages.
 5. Renaissance curiosity was a motive.
 6. Mostly, though, the explorers wished to get rich, in part through the spice trade.
- D. The Problem of Christopher Columbus
1. Columbus was an extremely religious man.
 2. Columbus was very knowledgeable about the sea.
 3. Columbus aimed to find a direct sea route to Asia.
 4. Columbus described the Caribbean as a Garden of Eden.
 5. When he settled the Caribbean islands and enslaved their inhabitants, he was acting as "a man of his times."
- III. Later Explorers
- A. Expansion
1. News of Columbus's voyage quickly spread throughout Europe.
 2. The search for precious metals determined the direction of Spanish exploration and expansion.
 3. In 1519 Ferdinand Magellan, working for Spain, rounded Cape Horn and entered the Pacific Ocean, eventually circumnavigating the globe.
 4. From 1519–1522 Hernando Cortés sailed from Hispaniola to Mexico and crushed the Aztec Empire of central Mexico.
 5. Francisco Pizarro conquered the Inca Empire of the Andes between 1531 and 1536.

6. Although wealth flowed into Lisbon and Seville, in the end Flemish towns became the bankers of Europe.
 7. The Dutch East India Company expelled the Portuguese from many of their East Indian holdings in the first half of the seventeenth century. The Dutch West India Company established outposts in Africa, Spanish colonial areas, and North America.
 8. In 1497 John Cabot, working for England, explored the northeast coast of North America.
 9. From 1534–1541 Frenchman Jacques Cartier explored the St. Lawrence River region of Canada.
- B. The Economic Effects of Spain's Discoveries in the New World
1. During the 1500s and 1600s there was a huge influx of precious metals into Spain from its American colonies.
 2. Population increase in Spain and the establishment of new colonies created greater demand for goods in Spain. The economy could not meet the demands. Together with the influx of specie, this led to inflation.
 3. Inflation caused the Spanish government to go bankrupt several times.
 4. Payment of Spanish armies in bullion created inflation throughout Europe, which greatly hurt nobles on fixed incomes.
- C. The Columbian Exchange
1. The most important changes brought by the Columbian voyages may have been biosocial in nature.
 2. Flora, fauna, and diseases traveled in both directions across the Atlantic.
 3. New World foods became Old World staples.
 4. Domestic animals were brought to the New World.
 5. European diseases ravaged Amerindian populations.
 6. Sailors and settlers brought syphilis back with them to Europe.
- D. Colonial Administration
1. Spain set up four viceroyalties in its American territories, with a viceroy and an audencia of twelve to fifteen judges that made up the advisory council and a kind of higher court. Spain took one-fifth of all specie mined in America.
 2. Portugal followed Spain closely.
- IV. Changing Attitudes
- A. Uncertainty
1. New discoveries contradicted Biblical and classical accounts of geography.
 2. In spite of all the religious fervor of the age, Europeans were conquering and enslaving peoples overseas.
 3. A new spirit of inquiry was simultaneous with persecution and burning of witches.
- B. The Status of Women
1. Manuals on marriage and the family from the seventeenth century place women in the home, reject the double standard on adultery, urged marriage based on mutual respect and trust, and reject marriages arranged by parents.
 2. Religious writers of the Reformation did not express consistent views on women.
 3. Protestants all held that women and men were spiritually equal.
 4. Catholic thinkers supported the teaching that the celibate life was the highest form of Christian life.
 5. Protestants recognized a mutual right to divorce that Catholics did not.
 6. The seventeenth century was an "age of the flesh."
 - a. Protestant and Catholic governments licensed houses of prostitution.

- b. With the closing of convents in Protestant countries, marriage became the only acceptable occupation for upper-class Protestant women.
 - 7. Single women worked in many occupations and professions.
 - 8. Protestants believed that celibacy had no scriptural basis and favored the suppression of women's religious houses.
 - C. The Great European Witch-hunt
 - 1. Witch-hunting peaked between 1560 and 1660.
 - 2. Tens of thousands of "witches" were executed in this period.
 - 3. There are a variety of explanations offered by scholars for the witch-hunts.
 - a. Witches explained inexplicable misfortunes.
 - b. Communities really believed witches worshipped the devil.
 - c. Communities persecuted nonconformists through charges of witchcraft.
 - d. Unbridled sexuality attributed to witches was a psychological projection on the part of their accusers, whose sexuality was repressed by Christianity.
 - 4. Scholars can trace the broad strand of misogyny in the West, the belief that women were especially susceptible to the Devil's wiles, and the belief that women were sexually insatiable. All of these contributed to the witch scares.
 - D. European Slavery and the Origins of American Racism
 - 1. Before the 1400s virtually all slaves in Europe were white.
 - 2. The Ottoman conquest of Constantinople cut off slaves from the Black Sea region.
 - 3. With Portuguese voyages to West Africa and the occupation of the Canary and Madeira islands, slavery hooked up with sugar culture.
 - 4. Native Americans did not survive long under conditions of slavery and forced labor.
 - 5. The Spaniards brought in enslaved Africans as substitutes.
 - 6. Modern racism against blacks had its origins in medieval Christian theology and to a lesser extent, medieval Arab views of the peoples of sub-Saharan Africa.
- V. Literature and Art
 - A. The Essay: Michel de Montaigne
 - 1. Montaigne (1533–1592), a French nobleman, created the essay as a means of clarifying his own thoughts.
 - 2. Montaigne was a skeptic; that is, he rejected the notion that any single human being knew the absolute truth. He also rejected the notion that any one culture was inherently superior to any other.
 - B. Elizabethan and Jacobean Literature
 - 1. Literature and drama flowered in England during the reigns of Elizabeth I and James I (r. 1603–1625).
 - a. William Shakespeare's plays.
 - b. The King James Bible.
 - C. Baroque Art and Music
 - 1. The Baroque style had its origins in the desire of Catholic Counter-Reformation thinkers to appeal to the common people with an emotional and awe-inspiring style.
 - 2. The Baroque in architecture peaked in Italy after 1600, and then moved to Spain, Latin America, Poland, and other places.
 - 3. Peter Paul Rubens (1577–1640) was the epitome of the Baroque in painting.
 - 4. Johann Sebastian Bach (1685–1750) epitomized the Baroque style in music (although he was a Lutheran, not a Catholic).

Glossary

Astrolabe

an instrument, developed by Muslim navigators in the twelfth century, that allowed mariners to plot their latitude by determining the altitude of the sun and other celestial bodies.

Baroque

controversial term applied to late 17th -early 18th century style of art that originated in Rome and is associated with the Catholic Reformation; characterized by emotional intensity, strong self-confidence, and a proselytizing spirit.

Bourse

European stock exchange, i.e. group of people organized to provide an auction market among themselves for the buying and selling of securities in good. In the mid-16th century, the bourse at Antwerp was the largest in Europe.

Edict of Nantes (1598)

document issued by Henry IV of France granting liberty of conscience and of public worship to Calvinists in 150 towns; it helped restore peace in France.

Escorial

Spanish imperial palace built 1563-1584, combining a monastery, the tomb of Spanish Habsburgs, and a royal residence.

General History of the Indies (1547)

a book by Spanish chronicler Fernando de Oviedo, providing an informed and reliable account of plants, animals, and peoples; widely read in Europe.

Golden Century of Spain

title given to 16th century Spain, because of its enormous power and influence in Europe, a power that rested on Mexican and S. American gold and silver.

Huguenots

originally a pejorative term for French Calvinists, later the official title for members of the Reformed religion, Calvinists.

magnetic compass

Chinese invention that allowed sailors to determine their position and direction at sea; astrolabe Muslim instrument enabling navigators to plot latitude or position north and south of the equator.

Peace of Westphalia (1648)

general name of a series of treaties that concluded the Thirty Years War; recognized the sovereign authority of 300+ German princes (and thereby the end of the Holy Roman Empire as a viable state); acknowledged the independence of the United Provinces of the Netherlands; made Calvinism a permissible creed within Germany; and, by implication, reduced the role of the Roman Catholic Church in European politics.

Politiques

moderates of both religious faiths who held that only a strong monarchy could save France from total collapse.

price revolution

economic theory that the flood of South American bullion into Europe created widespread inflation or price rise; much disputed by scholars.

Protestant Union (1608)

alliance of German Lutheran princes alarmed at religious and territorial spread of Calvinism and Catholicism. Catholic princes responded with the Catholic League (1609). The two armed camps erupted in the Thirty Years War (1618-1648).

Quinto

one-fifth: amount the Spanish crown was to receive of all precious metals mined in the Americas.

Spanish Armada (1588)

fleet sent by Philip II of Spain against England, In his mind a religious crusade against Protestantism. Weather and the English fleet defeated it.

St. Bartholomews Day massacre

Begun 24 August 1572 and extending over several weeks, the most violent series of confrontations between French Catholics and Protestants, each side trying to secure control over the weak French government.

Treaty of CateauCambrésis (1559)

agreement that ended six decades of war (fought mainly in Italy) between the French (Valois) kings and the Spanish (Habsburg) rulers. France was denied power in Italy. The bankruptcy of both countries; Turkish pressure on the Habsburgs; and religious strife in France forced the countries to make peace.

Union of Utrecht (1581)

alliance of 7 northern provinces (led by Holland) that declared its independence from Spain and formed the United Provinces of the Netherlands.

Viceroyalties

for administrative purposes, Spanish possessions in the Americas were divided in to 4 units called viceroyalties. The viceroy (imperial government) held broad civil and military authority and was assisted by a council of 12-15 judges, the audiencia which held the highest judicial authority. At the local level, officials called correjidores had military and judicial authority.

Witch

person usually a woman, believed to possess evil powers acquired by contract or association with the devil.

Chapter 16

Absolutism and Constitutionalism in Western Europe (ca 1589-1715)

Learning Objectives

After reading and studying this chapter you should be able to

- Discuss factors that led to the transition from feudalism to absolutism in western Europe in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.
- Distinguish the characteristics of these new monarchies from those of their predecessors and describe the ways in which they are more modern.
- Distinguish between absolutism in England and France in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.
- Explain how Spain lost its relatively short-lived European hegemony.
- Describe how and why the seventeenth century is considered the golden age of the Netherlands.
- Discuss the evolution of constitutionalism in England in the later seventeenth century.

Chapter Outlines

Chapter 16: Absolutism and Constitutionalism in Western Europe (ca 1589-1715)

I. Absolutism

A. Absolute Monarchs

1. In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries absolute monarchs claimed absolute sovereignty based in divine right.
2. Nonetheless, at this time in history absolute monarchs generally were still bound by the law.
3. Absolute monarchs strove to eliminate competing jurisdictions and institutions in their territories. They also secured the cooperation of the nobility.
4. In contrast to medieval monarchs who negotiated taxation with nobles on a case-by-case basis, absolute monarchs set up bureaucracies that they controlled to collect taxes on a regular basis.
5. Bureaucrats in the seventeenth century began to distinguish between their public duties and private property.
6. Absolute monarchs maintained permanent standing armies.
7. Absolutist states were not totalitarian because they lacked the financial, military, and technological resources to exercise total control over society.
8. Like twentieth century totalitarian states, the absolutist regimes glorified the state above all and used war to divert attention from domestic problems.

B. The Foundations of French Absolutism: Henry IV, Sully, and Richelieu

1. Henry IV lowered taxes on peasants and his chief minister, Sully, streamlined tax collection. As the economy revived, tax receipts grew.
2. Cardinal Richelieu was appointed to the council of ministers in 1628, during the reign of Louis XIII (r. 1610-1643).
3. Richelieu curbed the power of the nobility by reshuffling the royal council, leveling castles, and executing aristocratic conspirators against the King.
4. Richelieu divided France up into thirty-two generalités supervised and monitored by one intendant each. The intendants were beholden to the king only and generally came from the newer nobility of the robe (not the older nobility of the sword).

5. The intendants recruited soldiers for the army, supervised tax collection, kept an eye on the local nobility, presided over the administration of local laws, and regulated economic activity.
 6. In 1627 Louis XIII moved to end Protestant independence, more or less revoking the Edict of Nantes.
 7. During the later seventeenth century urban revolts based on resentment of high taxation were common.
 8. Richelieu supported foundation of the French Academy and standardization of French language by the Academy.
 9. Richelieu and Louis XIII temporarily solved their financial problems by sharing the cut from increased taxation with local elites.
 10. Following the deaths of Louis XIII and Richelieu, Richelieu's successor, Mazarin provoked an aristocratic rebellion that became known as the Fronde (1648-1653). High taxes were the most important issue.
 11. The Fronde convinced King Louis XIV, then a boy, that the only alternative to anarchy was absolute monarchy, even as it also informed his decision to make local elites and nobles tax exempt.
- C. The Absolute Monarchy of Louis XIV
1. Louis XIV secured the collaboration of the nobility in projects that increased his prestige and theirs.
 2. Louis XIV's royal court at Versailles was a tool of state policy, overawing subjects and visiting dignitaries. Other European monarchs constructed their own versions of Versailles.
 3. French language and culture became fashionable at courts all over Europe.
 4. Louis used court ceremonies, entertainments, spies, and informers to reduce the power of the great nobility.
 5. Louis staffed his administration with members of the nobility of the robe or the upper middle class, to show that he was not going to share power.
- D. Financial and Economic Management under Louis XIV: Colbert
1. Financial problems weakened Louis XIV's administration.
 2. Tax revenues usually fell short of the government's needs.
 3. In Louis XIV's France, tax exemptions for elites placed the greatest tax burden on the peasantry.
 4. Louis's chief financial minister, Jean-Baptiste Colbert, used subsidies for domestic industries, tariffs, and policies to attract foreign artisans in order to make France self-sufficient and to boost French exports (mercantilism).
 5. Colbert expanded the French navy and merchant marine and promoted colonization of French territories in North America.
- E. The Revocation of the Edict of Nantes
1. In 1685 Louis XIV formally revoked the Edict of Nantes because he viewed it as an affront to his own claims to power.
 2. The French monarchy had never intended religious toleration to be permanent.
 3. Religious liberty was not a popular policy.
 4. The revocation had a negative impact on the economy and foreign affairs.
- F. French Classicism
1. French "classicism" refers to imitation of Roman and Greek artistic models together with the values of discipline, restraint, and balance in art.
 2. After the 1660s French artists and musicians generally had to glorify the state and Louis himself.
 3. Nicholas Poussin exemplifies French classicism in painting (Rape of the Sabine Women), Jean-Baptiste Lully in music, and Moliere and Racine in theater.
- G. Louis XIV's Wars
1. Louis was a conqueror^{3/4}France was at war for thirty-three of the fifty-four years of his reign.

2. Louis developed a large, efficient, disciplined army subordinate directly to himself.
 3. Louis made territorial gains in the Low Countries and Lorraine before his armies ran out of steam in the early 1680s.
 4. High taxes to support the military and bad weather from 1688-1694 led to mass starvation in some areas of France.
 5. After the death of King Charles II of Spain in 1700 passed the Spanish throne to Louis XIV's grandson, England, Holland, Austria, and Prussia united against France to preserve the European balance of power and check French maritime expansion in the Americas, Asia, and Africa. This conflict became known as the War of the Spanish Succession.
 6. The war, which ended in 1713 with the Peace of Utrecht, checked France, finished Spain as a great power, and expanded England's overseas empire.
- H. The Decline of Absolutist Spain in the Seventeenth Century
1. Spanish absolutism preceded that of the French. In the 1500s the kingdom of Castile developed the characteristics of an absolute monarchy.
 2. Gold and silver from the Americas were the basis for Spanish power.
 3. The lack of a middle class (due in part to the expulsion of Moors and Jews), agricultural crisis, population decline, and failure to invest in productive enterprises meant that by 1715 Spain was a second-rate power.
 4. Spain extended itself in wars it could not afford in the 1600s.
- II. Constitutionalism
- A. The Constitutional State
1. Constitutionalism is the limitation of government by law.
 2. A nation's constitution can be written or unwritten.
 3. Constitutional government can take a monarchical or republican form.
 4. A constitutional government is not the same as a democratic government.
- B. The Decline of Royal Absolutism in England (1603-1649)
1. In spite of a disordered and bloody seventeenth century, England emerged a constitutional monarchy.
 2. Elizabeth I's successor James I asserted his divine right to absolute power, antagonizing Parliament.
 3. The House of Commons, the members of which were largely members of a new wealthy and powerful capitalist class in England, objected.
- C. Religious Issues
1. James and his successor, Charles I (r. 1625-1649) appeared to be sympathetic to Catholicism; Puritans in the House of Commons were suspicious.
 2. In 1640 Charles had to summon Parliament to request funding to suppress a rebellion in Scotland (against the imposition of Anglican liturgy).
 3. As Parliament passed laws limiting Charles's powers, an Irish uprising precipitated civil war.
 4. In spite of the execution of Charles I in 1649 by Parliament, the civil war did not resolve the problem of sovereignty. England was a military dictatorship run by Parliament's most successful general, Oliver Cromwell, from 1649-1660.
- D. Puritanical Absolutism in England: Cromwell and the Protectorate
1. Oliver Cromwell attempted to create a community of puritanical saints.
 2. When he died in 1658, most English had had enough of this.
- E. The Restoration of the English Monarchy
1. Charles II (r. 1660-1685), invited back to England from exile in France, attempted to conciliate Parliament by creating an advisory council of five men who were also members of Parliament.

2. When Charles was caught in 1670 in secret negotiations with Louis XIV for subsidies in exchange for a gradual Catholicization of England and an alliance against the Netherlands, panic swept England.
 3. When James II (r. 1685-1688), an open Catholic, succeeded Charles II, there was trouble.
 4. James placed many Catholics in high administrative positions and declared universal religious tolerance. Seven Anglican bishops responded by refusing to read James's proclamation. They were arrested but subsequently acquitted.
 5. When James's wife produced a son, there was fear that a Catholic dynasty was now assured. Parliament offered the throne to James's Protestant daughter Mary and her Dutch husband, Prince William of Orange. In December 1688 James fled to France and William and Mary were crowned king and queen of England.
- F. The Triumph of England's Parliament: Constitutional Monarchy and Cabinet Government
1. The "Glorious Revolution"¾Parliament's expulsion of James¾was guaranteed by a Bill of Rights passed by Parliament. The Bill guaranteed the independence of the judiciary, the sole power of Parliament to make laws, and freedom of debate in Parliament. All Protestants were granted religious toleration.
 2. John Locke's Second Treatise of Civil Government (1690) was a defense of the Glorious Revolution. Locke maintained that government was a contract between ruled and ruler for the protection of life, liberty, and property.
 3. The Glorious Revolution was not a democratic revolution, because few English subjects could vote in the election of Parliament.
 4. The cabinet system of government evolved in the eighteenth century. In this system a cabinet of ministers responsible primarily to Parliament governed. The power of the monarch grew weaker and weaker.
- G. The Dutch Republic in the Seventeenth Century
1. The Dutch system of government rested on assemblies of wealthy merchants in each of the seven provinces called "Estates."
 2. A federal assembly, or "States General," ran foreign policy, but was responsible to the provincial "Estates."
 3. The States General appointed a representative or stadtholder in each province. Some men held the post of stadtholder in all seven provinces.
 4. The cohesion and power of the Dutch Republic ultimately rested on its immense commercial power and prosperity.
 5. The Netherlands was the only realm in early modern Europe with almost complete religious toleration.
 6. In 1650 the Dutch owned half of the ships in Europe and controlled much of European trade.
 7. In the seventeenth century the Dutch probably had the highest standard of living in the world.
 8. Dutch power began to decline around the time of the War of the Spanish Succession.

Glossary

Absolutism	form of government in which sovereignty is vested in a single person, the king or queen; absolute monarchs in the 16 th and 17 th centuries based their authority on the theory of the divine right of king - i.e. that they had received their authority from God and were responsible only to Him.
cabinet system	political system where heads of governmental administrative departments serve as a group to advise the head of state (Prime Minister). All these ministers are drawn from the majority party in the legislature (in Britain the House of Commons) and are responsible to it.
Constitutionalism	implies a balance between authority and power of the government on the one hand, and on the other hand the rights and liberties of the subject or citizen; also the limitation of government by law and the rule of law; a constitution may be unwritten (British and Canadian) or written (American).
Don Quixote	novel authored by Miguel de Cervantes, perhaps the greatest work of Spanish literature. A survey of the entire fabric of Spanish society that can be read on several levels: as a burlesque of chivalric romances; as an exploration of conflicting views (idealistic vs. realistic) of life and of the world.
Dutch East India Company (1602-1798)	a joint stock company chartered by the States-General of the Netherlands to expand trade and promote relations between the Dutch government and its colonial ventures. It established a colony at the Cape of Good Hope (1652), and in the 1630s it paid a return of 35% on investments.
French classicism	style of French art, architecture, and literature (ca. 1600-1750), based on admiration and imitation of Greek and Roman models but with greater exuberance and complexity.
Fronde	series of violent uprisings during the minority of Louis XIV triggered by oppressive taxation of the common people, ambitions of the nobles, and efforts of the parlement of Paris (highest French judicial body) to check the authority of the crown; the last attempt of the French nobility to resist the king by arms.
Mercantilism	prevailing economic theory of European nations in 16 th and 17 th centuries. It rested on the premise that a nation's power and wealth were determined by its supply of precious metal which were to be acquired by increasing exports (paid for with gold) and reducing imports to achieve domestic self-sufficiency; mercantilism remained the dominant theory until the Industrial Revolution and articulation of theory of laissez faire.
Peace of Utrecht (1713)	series of treaties that ended the War of the Spanish Succession, ended French expansion in Europe, and marked the rise of the British Empire.
Puritans	members of a 18 th century reform movement within the Church of England that advocated purifying it of Roman Catholic elements, such

as bishops, elaborate ceremonial, the wedding ring. Calvinist in theology, Puritanism had broad social, ethical and political implications.

raison d'état

political theory articulated by French statesmen Richelieu (1585-1642) that holds that the interests and needs of the state may take precedence over traditional moral and international law.

republican government

In Europe, the term refers to non-monarchical government. In the American context, traditionally a state governed by representatives elected on a broad basis of suffrage who serve the interests of all the people. Where election depends on the huge infusion of cash from private and corporate donors, and where scarcely 50% of eligible people vote, can the system be called republican or democratic?

Second Treatise on Civil Government (1690)

by English political philosopher John Locke, a justification of the Glorious Revolution of 1688-89 and of the peoples right of revolution; a defense of the rights of property; it supported a system of checks and balances as (later) embodied in the U.S. Constitution.

Sovereignty

the supreme authority in a political community; a modern state is said to be sovereign when it controls the instruments of justice (the courts) and the use of force (military and police powers) within geographical boundaries recognized by other states.

Stadholder

its representative, or chief executive officer in each province; in the 17th century that position was held by the sons of William the Silent of the House of Orange and was largely ceremonial.

States General

term used by the national assembly of the United Provinces of the Netherlands where the wealthy merchant class held real power; because many issues had to be referred back to the provinces, the United Provinces was a confederation, or weak union of a strong states.

Totalitarianism

a 20th century development (and thus not to be confused with absolutism) that exalted the authority of the state and claimed that right to direct all facets of a states culture-law, art, education, economy, religion, etc. in the interests of the state, those interests defined by a dictator, e.g. Hitler in Germany, Stalin in Russia.

Chapter 17

Absolutism in Eastern Europe to 1740

Learning Objectives

After reading and studying this chapter you should be able to

- Explain why the basic structure of society in eastern Europe became different from that of western Europe in the early modern period.
- Describe how eastern absolutism worked and why it came about.
- Explain who ruled the absolutist states in Austria, Brandenburg-Prussia, and Russia and how they maintained power.
- Discuss the significance of the Turkish invasion of eastern Europe and the world of peasants in eastern Europe. How did the Ottomans incorporate European religious diversity?
- Discuss how Baroque architecture enhanced the prestige of the Eastern absolutists.

Chapter Outlines

Chapter 17: Absolutism in Eastern Europe to 1740

- I. Lords and Peasants in Eastern Europe
 - A. The Medieval Background
 1. During the period from 1050 to 1300, personal and economic freedom for peasants increased, and serfdom nearly disappeared.
 2. After 1300, lords in eastern Europe revived serfdom to fight their economic woes.
 3. Laws were passed that bound peasants to land and lord.
 4. Lords confiscated peasant lands and imposed greater labor obligations on them.
 - B. The Consolidation of Serfdom
 1. Hereditary serfdom was established or reestablished in Poland, Russia, and Prussia.
 2. Weak monarchs could not or would not withstand their powerful nobles' revival of serfdom.
- II. The Rise of Austria and Prussia
 - A. Austria and the Ottoman Turks
 1. In Bohemia the Habsburgs crushed the mostly Protestant nobility, bringing in Catholic newcomers and binding local peasants to them (1618-1650).
 2. In the culturally German core of Austria the Habsburgs centralized the government and created a standing army (mid-1600s).
 3. The Ottomans reached the peak of their power under Suleiman the Magnificent (r. 1520–1566).
 4. The Ottoman Empire was built on a very non-European conception of state and society.
 5. The top ranks of the bureaucracy were staffed with the sultan's slave corp.
 6. The Ottomans were more tolerant of religious differences than Europeans were.
 7. Non-Muslim minorities co-existed with the Muslim majority.
 8. After the death of Suleiman, the empire fell into decay.
 9. The Habsburgs defeated the Turkish siege of Vienna in 1683 and began increasing their territory at Ottoman expense.

10. The Hungarian nobility, many of them Protestants, continued to insist on their traditional rights and won Habsburg recognition of these in 1713.
- B. Prussia in the Seventeenth Century
 1. The Hohenzollern family ruled the electorate of Brandenburg and Prussia.
 2. The Thirty Years' War weakened representative assemblies and allowed the Hohenzollerns to consolidate their rule.
 3. Frederick William, the Great Elector (r. 1640-1688), employed military power and taxation to unify his Rhine holdings, Prussia, and Brandenburg into a strong state.
- C. The Consolidation of Prussian Absolutism
 1. King Frederick William I (r. 1713-1740) encouraged Prussian militarism and created the most efficient army in Europe.
 2. Frederick helped lay the foundations of a militaristic nation.
- III. The Development of Russia
 - A. The Mongol Yoke and the Rise of Moscow
 1. The Russian aristocracy (boyars) and a free peasantry made it difficult to strengthen the state.
 2. The princes of Moscow served the Mongol invaders as officials.
 3. Ivan III (r. 1462-1505) assumed the leadership of Orthodox Christianity and distributed conquered land to a new class of military servicemen.
 - B. Tsar and People to 1689
 1. Ivan IV fought wars against Mongol successor khanates in the east and Poland-Lithuania in the west.
 2. He launched a reign of terror against the boyar nobility.
 3. Increased pressure on the peasants to pay for his wars led to a breakdown of the Muscovite state after his death (the Time of Troubles, 1598-1613).
 4. Michael Romanov was elected tsar by the nobility in 1613.
 - C. The Reforms of Peter the Great
 1. Peter the Great sought to reform Russia to increase its military might.
 2. He created Western-style schools to train technicians for the army.
 3. He borrowed Western technology and hired Western advisers.
 4. He modernized the army and made Russia a great power in Europe.
 5. He increased the burden of serfdom to pay for Russia's military power.
- IV. Absolutism and Baroque Architecture
 - A. Palaces and Power
 1. Architecture reflected the image and power of monarchs.
 2. The royal palace was the greatest expression of royal power.
 3. Baroque was the dominant artistic style of the age of absolutism.
 - B. Royal Cities
 1. Monarchs built new cities and expanded old ones to reflect their power and vision of the state.
 - C. The Growth of St. Petersburg
 1. St. Petersburg is a good example of the ties among architecture, politics, and urban planning.
 2. In 1702 Peter the Great began the task of building a new city.
 3. The architectural ideas that informed the city matched Peter's general political goals.
 4. Peasants were forced to work on the construction of the city and nobles were ordered to build houses there.

Absolutism

system of ruling were monarchs reduced the political power of the landlord nobility as they gained and monopolized their own political power.

Autocracy	a form of government led by a ruler with absolute power.
Baroque	a style of art that grew out of the revitalized Catholic Church of the late sixteenth century. Its complex, emotional style was used by many rulers, including Louis XIV of France, to glorify their power.
Bohemian Estates	the representative body of the different estates, or legal orders in Bohemia.
boyard nobility	the nobility in the feudal division of the eastern Slavic territories.
Cossacks	free groups and outlaw armies that were formed to fight Ivan in an attempt to escape his rule.
Eastern Orthodoxy	religion that rejects the authority of the pope, which is the main difference in religious and moral beliefs dividing it from Roman Catholicism
elector of Brandenburg	the leader of the Brandenburg who had the right to choose the Holy Roman emperor with six other electors bestowed prestige but had not military power
hereditary subjugation	bound to their lords from one generation to the next as well as to the land.
Junkers	the nobility and landowning classes of the Estates of Brandenburg and Prussia.
millet system	a system used by the Ottomans whereby subjects were divided into religious communities with each millet (nation) enjoying autonomous self-government under its religious leaders.
Mongol Yoke	the name for the Mongolian rule over eastern Slavs for more than two hundred years.
Pragmatic Sanction	proclaimed by Charles VI in 1713, it stated that the Habsburg possessions were never to be divided and were always to be passed intact to a single heir, who might be female.
Serfdom	system used by nobles and rulers where peasants were bound first to the land they worked and then, by degrading obligations to the lords they served.
service nobility	a newly emerging class who held the tsars land on the explicit condition that they serve in the tsars army.
Sultan	leader of Ottoman Empire who owned all the agricultural land of the empire and exploited it as he saw fit.

Chapter 18 Toward a New World-view

Learning Objectives

After reading and studying this chapter you should be able to

- Define and describe the scientific revolution.
- Explain how the Newtonian world-view differed from the medieval world-view.
- Define and describe the Enlightenment and its ideas about society, religion, the economy, and politics. How was the Enlightenment influenced by the scientific revolution?
- Discuss how Enlightenment ideas influenced the actions of the eighteenth-century absolutist monarchs.

Chapter Outlines

Chapter 18: Toward a New World-View

- I. The Scientific Revolution
 - A. Scientific Thought in 1500
 1. Scientific thought in the early 1500s was based on ancient and medieval ideas.
 2. European notions about the universe were based on Aristotelian principles.
 3. A chief feature of this view was the belief in a motionless, static earth at the center of the universe.
 4. Ten crystal spheres moved around the earth.
 - B. The Copernican Hypothesis
 1. Copernicus overturned the medieval view of the universe.
 2. He postulated that the earth revolved around the sun and that the sun was the center of the universe.
 3. This heliocentric view was a departure from the medieval view endorsed by both Catholic and Protestant churchmen.
 - C. From Brahe to Galileo
 1. Scholars from Brahe to Galileo refined and collected evidence in support of Copernicus's model.
 2. Brahe built an observatory and collected data.
 3. Galileo discovered the laws of motion using the experimental method.
 - D. Newton's Synthesis
 1. Newton synthesized the integral parts into a whole.
 2. Newton integrated the astronomy of Copernicus and Kepler with the physics of Galileo.
 3. He formulated a set of mathematical principles to explain motion.
 4. At the core of Newton's theory was the universal law of gravitation.
 - E. Causes of the Scientific Revolution
 1. Medieval universities had provided the framework for the new view.
 2. The Renaissance stimulated science by rediscovering ancient mathematics.
 3. Better ways of obtaining knowledge about the world, including improved tools such as telescopes and sextants, improved the scientific method.
 4. Bacon advocated empirical, experimental research.
 5. Descartes emphasized deductive reasoning and was the first to graph equations.
 - F. Some Consequences of the Scientific Revolution

1. The Scientific Revolution helped create the international scientific community.
2. It resulted in the development of the scientific method.
3. The Scientific Revolution had few economic and social consequences for the masses until the eighteenth century.

II. The Enlightenment

- A. The Emergence of the Enlightenment
 1. The overriding idea of the Enlightenment was that natural science and reason can explain all aspects of life.
 2. The scientific method can explain the laws of nature.
 3. Progress is possible if the laws are understood and followed.
- B. The Philosophes and the Public
 1. Many writers made Enlightenment thought accessible to a wide range of people.
 2. Fontenelle stressed the idea of progress.
 3. Skeptics such as Bayle believed that nothing can be known beyond all doubt.
 4. Locke stressed that all ideas are derived from experience.
 5. The French philosophes were committed to the fundamental reform of society.
 6. Montesquieu's theory of the separation of powers was fundamental.
 7. Voltaire challenged traditional Catholic theology.
- C. The Later Enlightenment
 1. The later Enlightenment writers (Condorcet, Rousseau) created inflexible and dogmatic systems.
- D. Urban Culture and Public Opinion
 1. The European market for books grew dramatically in the eighteenth century.
 2. Popular titles addressed a wide range of subjects.
 3. The illegal book trade included titles denouncing high political figures.
 4. The nature of reading changed.
 5. The reading public joined with the philosophes to call for the autonomy of the written word.
 6. Salons were centers of discussion and debate.

III. The Enlightenment and Absolutism

- A. Enlightened Absolutism
 1. Until the American Revolution, most Enlightenment thinkers outside of England and the Netherlands believed that political change could best come from above.
 2. Absolutist rulers had mixed results ruling in an "enlightened" manner.
- B. Frederick the Great of Prussia
 1. Frederick II built on the accomplishments of his father.
 2. He fought successfully to defend Prussia from external threats.
 3. Frederick allowed religious freedom and promoted education and legal reform.
 4. He was unwilling to change Prussia's social structure and rejected calls for civil rights for Jews.
- C. Catherine the Great of Russia
 1. Catherine deposed her husband Peter III and became empress of Russia.
 2. Catherine imported Western culture to Russia, supported the philosophers, and introduced limited legal and penal reforms to her adopted country.
 3. Pugachev's rebellion put an end to Catherine's efforts to reform serfdom.
 4. Under Catherine, Russia continued to expand.
- D. The Austrian Habsburgs
 1. Joseph II (r. 1780–1790) and Maria Theresa (1740–1780) introduced reforms in Austria.

2. Maria Theresa introduced measures aimed at limiting the power of the papacy in her realm, strengthening the central bureaucracy, and improving the lot of the agricultural population.
 3. Joseph II pursued reforms aggressively when he came to the throne in 1780.
 4. His rapid reforms sent Austria into turmoil and, after Joseph's death, his brother was forced to repeal his radical edicts.
- E. Absolutism in France
1. The effect of the Enlightenment on France was complex.
 2. Financial difficulties forced French monarchs to attempt governmental and economic reforms.
- F. The Overall Influence of the Enlightenment
1. France diverged from its neighbors in its political development in the eighteenth century.
 2. In eastern and east-central Europe, proponents of reform from above dominated.
 3. Absolutist monarchs wanted reforms that would strengthen the state.

Glossary

Cartesian dualism	Descartes view of the world as consisting of two fundamental entities matter and mind.
Copernican hypothesis	the idea that the sun, not the earth, was the center of the universe; this had enormous scientific and religious implications.
Empiricism	theory of inductive reasoning where you should go beyond speculation and begin to compare and analyze the subject.
enlightened absolutism	the adaptation, albeit varied of enlightened governing into the rule of absolute monarchs often at the insistence of philosophes.
Enlightenment	a world-view has played a large role in shaping the modern mind. The three central concepts of the Enlightenment were the use of reason, the scientific method, and progress.
experimental method	Galileo's greatest achievement; rather than speculate about what might or should happen in an experiment, he conducted controlled experiments to find out what actually did happen.
general will	is sacred and absolute, reflecting the common interests of all the people who have displeased the monarch as the holder of sovereign power, it is not necessarily the will of the majority.
law of inertia	a law formulated by Galileo that stated that rest was not the natural state of object. Rather, an object continues in motion forever unless stopped by some external force.
law of universal gravitation	every body in the universe attracts every body in the universe in a precise mathematical relationship, whereby the force of attraction is proportional to the quantity of matter of the objects and inversely proportional to the square of the distance between them.

Philosophes	intellectuals in France who proclaimed that they were bringing the light of knowledge to their ignorant fellow creatures in the Age of Enlightenment.
Progress	the idea that with the proper method of discovering the laws of human existence, it was possible for humans to create better societies and better people.
Rationalism	nothing was to be accepted on faith, everything was to be submitted to the rational, critical, scientific way of thinking.
Salons	elegant private drawing rooms where talented and rich Parisian women held regular social gatherings to discuss literature, science and philosophy.
separation of powers	the idea that despotism could be avoided when political power was divided and shared by a variety of classes and legal estates holding unequal rights and privileges.
Skepticism	belief that nothing can ever be known beyond all doubt and that humanity's best hope was open-minded toleration.
tabula rasa	a blank tablet, incorporated into Lockes belief that all ideas are derived from experience, and that the human mind at birth is like a blank tablet on which the environment writes the individuals understanding and beliefs.
the public	all the French (and European) economic and social elites who were seen as the educated or enlightened public.
world-view	a basic outlook on life.

Chapter 19

The Expansion of Europe in the Eighteenth Century

Learning Objectives

After reading and studying this chapter you should be able to

- Compare and contrast farming methods and the supply of food before and after the Agricultural Revolution.
- Account for the dramatic population increase in Europe during the eighteenth century.
- Discuss the development of cottage industry and its impact on rural life and economy.
- Explain how European nations developed world trade during the eighteenth century.
- Discuss the consequences of European expansion for the common people.

Chapter Outlines

Chapter 19: The Expansion of Europe in the Eighteenth Century

- I. Agriculture and the Land
 - A. The Open-Field System
 1. The open-field system was the great accomplishment of medieval agriculture.
 2. Three field rotations helped keep fields fertile.
 3. Traditional village rights reinforced traditional patterns of farming.
 4. Peasants were exploited in a number of ways, with those in eastern Europe generally the worst off.
 - B. The Agricultural Revolution
 1. The use of more complex systems of crop rotation increased cultivation.
 2. Grain crops were alternated with nitrogen-storing crops.
 3. The open-field system was ended by "enclosing" the fields, particularly in England.
 4. The enclosure movement meant an end to common lands and to the independence of the rural poor who relied on them to survive.
 - C. The Leadership of the Low Countries and England
 1. The Dutch advantage was due to a very dense population.
 2. Jethro Tull gained fame in experimental agriculture and animal husbandry.
 3. By the mid-eighteenth century, English agriculture was in the process of a radical transformation.
 - D. The Cost of Enclosure
 1. Half of all English land was enclosed by 1750.
 2. By 1700 a distinctive pattern of landownership and production existed in England.
 3. Tenant farmers were the key to mastering new methods of farming.
 4. Enclosure marked the emergence of market-oriented estate agriculture and of a landless rural proletariat.
- II. The Beginning of the Population Explosion
 - A. Limitations on Population Growth
 1. Famine, disease, and war were the usual checks on growth.
 2. Europe's population growth was kept fairly low.
 - B. The New Pattern of the Eighteenth Century
 1. Fewer deaths occurred, in part due to the disappearance of the plague.
 2. Advances in medicine did little to decrease the death rate.
 3. Improved sanitation promoted better public health.

4. An increase in the food supply meant fewer famines and epidemics.
- III. The Growth of the Cottage Industry
- A. The Putting-Out System
 1. The two main participants in the putting-out system were the merchant capitalist and the rural worker.
 2. Merchants loaned, or "put out," raw materials to workers who processed the raw materials and returned finished goods to the merchant.
 3. The putting-out system grew because it had competitive advantages.
 4. Rural agriculture did not spread across Europe at an even rate.
 - B. The Textile Industry
 1. Throughout most of history, the textile industry has employed more people than any other industry.
 2. Most participants in cottage industry worked in textiles.
 3. Cottage industry was a family enterprise.
 4. Relations between workers and employers were often marked by conflict.
- IV. Building the Atlantic Economy
- A. Mercantilism and Colonial Wars
 1. English mercantilism was characterized by government regulations that served the interests both of the state and of private individuals. Mercantilism in other European countries generally served only state interests.
 2. The Navigation Acts of 1651-1663 were a form of economic warfare against Dutch domination of Atlantic shipping. They gave British merchants and ship owners a near monopoly on trade with Britain's North American colonies.
 3. After defeating the Dutch, England fought a series of wars with France for maritime domination of the world.
 - a. War of the Spanish Succession (1701-1713)
 - b. War of the Austrian Succession (1740-1748)
 - c. The Seven Years' War (1756-1763) ended with British winning full control over India and North America.
 - B. Land and Labor in British America
 1. In Britain's North American colonies cheap land and scarce labor resulted in the following:
 - a. rapid increase in the colonial population in the eighteenth century.
 - b. import of African slaves to tobacco plantations in southern colonies.
 - c. growing prosperity for British colonists.
 - C. The Growth of Foreign Trade
 1. Britain and especially England profited from the mercantile system.
 2. As trade with Europe stagnated, colonial markets took up the slack.
 3. English exports grew more balanced and diverse.
 - D. The Atlantic Slave Trade
 1. The forced migration of millions of Africans was a key element in the Atlantic system and western European economic expansion.
 2. After 1700, Britain was the undisputed leader of the slave trade.
 3. Increasing demand led to rising prices for African slaves.
 4. Africans participated in the trade.
 5. After 1775, a campaign to abolish slavery developed in Britain.
 - E. Revival in Colonial Latin America
 1. Under Philip V (r. 1700-1746) Spain recovered economically and successfully defended her American colonies.
 2. Rising silver exports in the eighteenth century helped create a class of wealthy Creole (American-born white) merchants.
 3. Creole estate owners dominated much of the peasant population through debt peonage, really a form of serfdom.

- F. Adam Smith and Economic Liberalism
1. Smith challenged mercantilist ideas with his defense of free trade and his argument for keeping government interference in the economy to a minimum (*The Wealth of Nations* [1776]).
 2. Smith was one of the Enlightenment's most original thinkers.
 3. His work became the basis of the classic argument for economic liberalism and unregulated capitalism.

Glossary

agricultural revolution	the period from the mid-seventeenth century on in Europe during which great agricultural progress was made and the fallow was gradually eliminated.
Atlantic slave trade	forced migration of millions of Africans to work in servitude during the eighteenth century. By the peak decade of the 1780s, shipments of black men and women averaged about 80,000 per year.
common lands	the open meadows maintained by villages for public use.
cottage industry	domestic industry, a stage of rural industrial development with wage workers and hand tools that necessarily preceded the emergence of large-scale factory industry.
Creoles	people of Spanish blood born in America.
crop rotation	the system by which farmers would rotate the types of crops grown in each field as to not deplete the soil of its natural resources.
economic liberalism	based on the writings of Adam Smith, it is the belief in free trade and competition. Smith argued that the invisible hand of free competition would benefit all individuals, rich and poor.
Enclosure	the idea to enclose individual share of the pastures as a way of farming more effectively.
famine foods	the foods eaten by a desperate population chestnuts, bark, dandelions and grass in attempts to escape starvation.
Mercantilism	system of economic regulations aimed at increasing the power of the state.
Mestizos	the offspring of Spanish men and Indian women.
Navigation Acts	the result of the English desire to increase both military power and private wealth, required that goods imported from Europe into England and Scotland be carried on British-owned ships with British crews or on ships of the country producing the article etc.
open-field systems	a system of village farming developed by peasants where the land was divided into several large fields which were in turn cut into strips. There were no divided fences or hedges and it was farmed as a community.
putting-out system	term used to describe the 18th century rural industry.

Chapter 20

The Changing Life of the People

Learning Objectives

After reading and studying this chapter you should be able to

- Describe the living conditions of the people and the changing attitudes about marriage, pregnancy, women, children, and education.
- Describe in what ways and why diet and medical care changed for the masses.
- Describe the influence of religion and the church in everyday life and the mixing of religion and leisure.

Chapter Outlines

Chapter 20: The Changing Life of the People

- I. Marriage and the Family
 - A. Extended and Nuclear Families
 1. The nuclear family was the most common in preindustrial Europe, unlike in traditional Africa and Asia.
 2. Common people married late (mostly in their late twenties) in this period.
 - B. Work Away from Home
 1. Girls and boys both learned independence by working away from home as servants, apprentices, and laborers.
 2. Service in another family's home was the most common job for single girls.
 3. Servant girls worked hard, had little independence, and were in constant danger of sexual exploitation.
 - C. Premarital Sex and Community Controls
 1. The evidence suggests a low rate of illegitimate births.
 2. In rural villages there were tight community controls over premarital sex and adultery.
 3. Once married, couples generally had several children.
 - D. New Patterns of Marriage and Illegitimacy
 1. Cottage industry enabled young men and women to become independent earlier.
 2. Young villagers who moved to the city entered into new sexual relationships free of community control.
 3. Rates of illegitimacy rose sharply between 1750 and 1850.
- II. Children and Education
 - A. Child Care and Nursing
 1. Women of the lower classes generally breast-fed their children for a longer period of time than is customary today.
 2. The well-off generally hired poor wet nurses to breast-feed their children.
 - B. Foundlings and Infanticide
 1. Rates of infant mortality were high.
 2. Many children were abandoned soon after birth and foundling homes existed to care for some of these children.
 3. There is some evidence that infanticide remained common.
 - C. Attitudes Toward Children
 1. Parents and other adults tended to be emotionally detached from children.
 2. The medical establishment was seldom interested in the care of children.
 3. Emotional detachment often shaded into abuse.

4. From the middle of the eighteenth century, this pattern came under increasing attack.
 - D. Schools and Popular Literature
 1. Protestants and Catholics encouraged common people to read the Bible.
 2. Some European governments encouraged primary school education for children of the common people (Prussia, other Protestant principalities in Germany, Scotland, England, the Austrian Empire).
 3. Basic literacy rose rapidly between 1600 and 1800.
- III. Food and Medical Practice
- A. Diets and Nutrition
 1. The poor ate whole grain bread, beans, peas, vegetables—a healthy diet except for shortage of vitamins A and C in late winter.
 2. The rich gorged on meat, sweets, and liquor and suffered from gout and shortages of vitamins A and C.
 - B. The Impact of Diet on Health
 1. The diet of the poor in normal times was adequate, but seasonal shortages and famines undermined health.
 2. The diet of the rich caused other health problems.
 3. As the century progressed, food consumption became more varied.
 4. New foods introduced from the Americas (corn, squash, tomatoes, potatoes) improved calorie per acre production and nutrition.
 - C. Medical Practitioners
 1. Medical practitioners in the 1700s included faith healers, pharmacists, physicians, surgeons, and midwives.
 2. Over time women were increasingly excluded from medical practice outside midwifery.
 3. Few treatments by any of these practitioners were effective.
 - D. Hospitals and Medical Experiments
 1. In France, Diderot's critique of hospital conditions led to some improvements in cleanliness and ventilation.
 2. In mental hospitals patients were restrained with chains and kept under control with bleeding and cold water.
 3. Experimentation with inoculation against smallpox led eventually to vaccination with cowpox, which was effective in preventing the disease (Edward Jenner, 1798).
- IV. Religion and Popular Culture
- A. The Institutional Church
 1. Protestants quickly created bureaucratized churches controlled by the secular powers.
 2. Catholic rulers increasingly took control of the Catholic Church in their domains (as in Spain).
 - B. Protestant Revival
 1. Pietism sought to revive the emotional fervor of early Protestantism.
 2. Influenced by Pietism, John Wesley (1703-1791) propagandized Methodism among the English populace.
 - C. Catholic Piety
 1. Catholic authorities tended to compromise with the pagan elements and festivity of popular Catholicism.
 2. Inspired by the Counter-Reformation, Catholic clergy sought increasingly to "purify" popular religious practices.
 3. Such efforts created tension between the attitudes of educated elites and the common people.
 - D. Leisure and Recreation
 1. Carnival illustrates the combination of religious celebration and popular recreation.
 2. Towns and cities offered a wide range of amusements.

3. Blood sports were popular with the masses.
4. Within Europe there was a growing division between "high culture" and popular culture, with elite reformers tending to see the latter as sin, superstition, disorder, and vulgarity.

Glossary

blood sports	bullbaiting and cockfighting, sports that remained popular with the masses.
Carnival	a time of reveling and excess in Catholic and Mediterranean Europe.
community controls	a pattern of cooperation and common action which was mobilized by perceived threats to the economic, social and moral stability of the closely knit community.
extended family	a family that is a big, three- or four-generation clan, headed by a patriarch or perhaps a matriarch, and encompassing everyone from the youngest infant to the oldest grandparent.
illegitimacy explosion	the result of a break down of late marriages and few births out of wedlock that began occurring in the second half of the 18th century.
Infanticide	the willful destruction of newborn children.
Jesuits	the Society of Jesus, they were extraordinary teachers, missionaries, and agents of the pope.
just price	the belief that prices should be fair, protecting both the consumers and the producers and imposed by government decree if necessary.
killing nurses	the name given the nurses with whom no child ever survived.
Methodists	the name given to a Protestant religious group started by John Wesley, so named because of their methodical devotion.
Pietism	the name for the Protestant revival that began in Germany; it stressed enthusiasm, the priesthood of all believers, and the practical power of Christian rebirth in everyday affairs.
Purging	the practice of giving strong laxatives to the rich as a method of maintaining good health and treating illness.
smallpox inoculation	the practice of vaccinating people so that they do not come down the smallpox.
wet-nursing	a widespread and flourishing business in the 18th century where women would suckle the children of middle- to upper-class women's children for money.

Chapter 21 The Revolution in Politics, 1775-1815

Learning Objectives

After reading and studying this chapter you should be able to

- Describe the causes of the era of revolution.
- Explain the effect of these revolutions on the people.
- Discuss the gains and losses for privileged groups and for ordinary people in this generation of war and upheaval.
- Consider the ways in which the revolutions differed from each other and why.

Chapter Outlines

Chapter 21: The Revolution in Politics, 1775–1815

- I. Liberty and Equality
 - A. Revolutionary Goals
 1. Revolutions came in the wake of Enlightenment ideas.
 2. The Judeo-Christian tradition of individualism supported the liberalism of the Enlightenment.
 3. Liberalism was attractive to both the aristocracy and the middle class.
 4. Liberty meant human rights and freedoms and the sovereignty of the people.
 5. Equality meant equal rights under the law and equality of opportunity, rather than economic equality.
- II. The American Revolutionary Era, 1775-1789
 - A. The Origins of the Revolution
 1. Conflict between British government and the American colonies escalated after the mid-eighteenth century.
 2. The American colonists believed they had the right to make their own laws.
 3. The conflict over increased taxation following the Seven Years' War increased the discontent of the colonists.
 4. The British wanted the Americans to pay their share of imperial expenses.
 5. Americans actually paid very low taxes.
 6. Parliament passed the Stamp Act to raise revenue.
 7. Colonial protests forced the ultimate repeal of the Stamp Act.
 8. Conflict broadened to include questions about control over colonial legislatures, representation, and the right to legislate.
 9. The British refused to compromise and lost the support of many colonists.
 - B. Independence
 1. Revolutionary fervor moved the crisis from debate to open hostilities.
 2. Armed conflict erupted in April 1775.
 3. The Continental Congress signed the Declaration of Independence on July 4, 1776.
 4. Assistance from France contributed to the eventual American victory.
 5. After eight years of fighting, Britain recognized the independence of the thirteen colonies (1783).
 - C. Framing the Constitution
 1. The United States was formed and defined by its Constitution (1787).
 2. Under a federal system the central government was given important powers such as the right to tax and to regulate trade.

3. Representative self-government reflected the colonists' antagonism to British authority.
 4. A system of checks and balances was designed to balance governmental powers.
- D. The Revolution's Impact on Europe
1. The American Revolution strongly influenced Europe and especially France.
 2. Europeans were deeply interested in the political lessons of the American Revolution.
- III. The French Revolution, 1789-1791
- A. The Breakdown of the Old Order
1. Many French soldiers served in America during the American Revolution and were inspired by it.
 2. After the Seven Years' War and the American War of Independence the French government was nearly bankrupt.
 3. King Louis XVI was unwilling or unable to cancel government debt.
 4. He would have to reform the tax-collection system and raise taxes. This precipitated the revolutionary crisis.
- B. Legal Orders and Social Realities: Origins of the French Revolution
1. For two generations before the 1970s most historians saw the Revolution's origins in growing tension between bourgeoisie and nobility.
 2. Recently many "revisionists" have challenged this view with the following arguments.
 - a. The nobility remained an open order. It was possible to buy entrance.
 - b. Many nobles endorsed liberal views.
 - c. The nobility and the bourgeoisie had similar interests and pursued similar goals in the economic sphere.
 3. French society was still legally organized according to the medieval system of "three orders," but in reality France was a country where elite status was based on wealth and education, not the medieval caste system.
- C. The Formation of the National Assembly
1. To make tax reforms, Louis XVI was forced to call the Estates General into session for the first time since 1614 (May 1789).
 2. After intense debate over voting procedure, the Third Estate left the meeting of the Estates General and declared itself the National Assembly (June 1789).
- D. The Revolt of the Poor and Oppressed
1. In Paris common people who were hungry and facing unemployment due to harvest failure organized to prevent dismissal of the king's finance minister.
 2. On July 13, 1789, an angry crowd stormed the Bastille and seized weapons stored there.
 3. Peasant uprisings in the countryside led the National Assembly to abolish feudal dues and other peasant obligations to the nobility (August 1789).
- E. A Limited Monarchy
1. Also in August 1789, the National Assembly issued a Declaration of the Rights of Man, stating "Men are born and remain free and equal in rights."
 2. The National Assembly created a constitutional monarchy with the reluctant consent of King Louis XVI. A new constitution went into effect in 1791.
 3. Peasants reacted negatively to the National Assembly's attempt to increase state control over the Catholic Church.
- IV. World War and Republican France, 1791-1799
- A. Foreign Reactions and the Beginning of War
1. Edmund Burke published the classic critique of the French Revolution, *Reflections on the Revolution in France*, in 1790.

2. Mary Wollstonecraft published her rebuttal, *A Vindication of the Rights of Man* in the same year.
 3. Wollstonecraft and the Frenchwoman Olympe de Gouges argued that women should be included in the liberal ideal of equality.
 4. In the summer and fall of 1791 the Revolution was radicalized by several events.
 - a. Louis XVI's attempt to escape France
 - b. Austria and Prussia's declaration of readiness to intervene in France under certain conditions
 - c. The election of a new Legislative Assembly under a new constitution
 5. By the summer of 1792 France was at war with Austria and Prussia and the Legislative Assembly had removed Louis XVI from the throne.
- B. The Second Revolution
1. Members of the newly elected National Convention declared France a Republic in September 1792.
 2. Revolutionaries tried to create a new revolutionary French culture.
 3. The Convention tried and executed Louis XVI on charges of treason.
 4. The sans culottes, or working people of Paris, exercised a strong influence on the Convention.
- C. Total War and the Terror
1. Military defeats prompted the revolutionary government, led by the Committee of Public Safety, to establish a primitive sort of centrally controlled economy, with fixed prices for bread, rationing, tight control of munitions industry, and other controls.
 2. The Terror aimed to crush all opponents of the Revolution. About 40,000 French were executed in the Terror and 300,000 suspects were arrested.
 3. France mobilized a huge number (800,000) of motivated soldiers by instituting a draft and encouraging patriotic sentiment.
 4. Outnumbering their opponents by perhaps 4 to 1, France won great battlefield victories.
- D. The Thermidorian Reaction and the Directory, 1794-1799
1. The Convention, fearing the expansion of the Terror, executed Maximilien Robespierre in July 1794.
 2. A new executive, the five-man directory, ruled France from 1795-1799, essentially as dictators.
 3. The end of economic controls hit the poor in Paris hard, and resulted in riots that were suppressed by force.
 4. In rural France villagers, especially women, restored a normal, structured lifestyle, based in part on the Catholic Church.
- V. The Napoleonic Era, 1799-1815
- A. Napoleon's Rule of France
1. Napoleon confirmed the gains of the peasantry and reassured the middle class by defending property.
 2. He strengthened the central bureaucracy of France.
 3. By the Concordat of 1801 he simultaneously reinstated freedom of worship for Catholics and maintained tight control of the Church.
 4. Napoleon's new law code reduced women's legal and property rights.
 5. Napoleon established a police state and strict censorship to silence political dissent.
- B. Napoleon's Wars and Foreign Policy
1. The Treaty of Amiens with Great Britain (1802) gave France Holland, the Austrian Netherlands, the west bank of the Rhine, and most of the Italian peninsula.
 2. In May 1803 Napoleon renewed war with Britain, but his plans to invade the island were shattered by the naval battle of Trafalgar (1805).

3. Austria, Russia, and Sweden joined Britain in the Third Coalition against Napoleon (1805). Napoleon defeated the Coalition's continental partners.
4. In 1806 Napoleon crushed Prussia.
5. French occupation of much of Europe eventually produced nationalist reactions, as the conquered areas attempted to throw off French rule.
6. In June 1812 Napoleon invaded Russia. He was defeated.
7. Joined by Austria and Prussia, Russia and Great Britain defeated Napoleon in 1814.
8. The victorious allies set up a constitutional monarchy in France under Louis XVIII.

Glossary

Bourgeoisie	well-educated, prosperous, middle-class groups.
checks and balances	the idea that in government the executive, legislative and judicial branches would systematically balance each other and that the government would be checked by the power of the individual states.
classical liberalism	exemplified by the American Constitution and the Bill of Rights, liberty meant individual freedoms, and political safeguards, equality meant equality before the law, not equality of political participation or wealth.
constitutional monarchy	a monarchy where the king remains head of state but all lawmaking power goes to the hands of another governing body such as the National Assembly.
Estates	orders, the way in which France's inhabitants were legally divided: the clergy, the nobility, and everyone else.
family monarchy	a monarchy where the power of the husband and father was absolute over the wife and the children as that of Napoleon over his subjects.
Girondists	a group contesting control of the National Convention in France named after a department in southwestern France.
Great Fear	the fear of vagabonds and outlaws that seized the countryside and fanned the flames of rebellion.
Jacobins	in Revolutionary France, a political club whose members were a radical republican group.
liberty and equality	the two ideas that fuelled the revolutionary period in both America and Europe.
manorial rights	privileges of lordship that allowed them to tax the peasantry for their own profit.
Nationalism	French nationalism exploded with a common language and tradition reinforced by the idea of popular sovereignty and democracy as the French were stirred by a common loyalty.
planned economy	a plan created by Robespierre and his coworkers that involved the government in the economy - the government would set maximum

allowable prices for key products rather than letting supply and demand determine prices.

Reign of Terror (1793-1794)

Robespierre used revolutionary terror to solidify the home front, in special courts rebels and enemies of the nation were tried for political crimes.

representative government

this did not mean democracy, rather it was voting for representatives as being restricted to those who owned property.

sans-culottes

the name for the laboring poor and the petty traders.

second revolution

a phase when the fall of the French monarchy marked a rapid radicalization of the Revolution.

Sovereignty

the idea that people alone had the authority to make laws limited an individuals freedom of action, in practice this system of government meant choosing legislators who represented the people and were accountable to them.

the Mountain

a group contesting control of the National Convention in France led by Robespierre and Georges Jaques Danton.

Thermidorian reaction

a reaction to the Reign of Terror where middle class professionals reasserted their authority.

Chapter 22

Chapter 22

The Revolution in Energy and Industry

Learning Objectives

After reading and studying this chapter you should be able to

- Define what the Industrial Revolution was and discuss the factors that caused it.
- Explain the effects of the Industrial Revolution on peoples lives and traditional industry.
- Analyze the positive and negative outcomes of the Industrial Revolution and the population growth that occurred at the same time.
- Compare the Revolution in Britain with that on the continent.

Chapter Outlines

Chapter 22: The Revolution in Energy and Industry

- I. The Industrial Revolution in Britain
 - A. Eighteenth-Century Origins
 1. Social and economic factors influenced England's takeoff.
 - a. Colonial markets for manufactured goods contributed.
 - b. The canal network constructed in Britain after 1770 contributed.
 - c. Productive English agriculture meant capital available for investment and spending money for ordinary people to purchase industrial goods.
 2. A stable government and an effective central bank also fostered industrial growth in England.
 - B. The First Factories
 1. A growing demand for textiles led to the creation of the world's first large factories.
 2. The putting-out system could not keep up with the demand.
 - C. The Problem of Energy
 1. The cotton textile industry could not have continued to grow using existing energy sources.
 2. Britain experienced an energy shortage as the wood supply shrank.
 - D. The Steam Engine Breakthrough
 1. Part of the general revolution was the transformation from wood burning to coal burning.
 2. Transportation and manufacturing were revolutionized by steam power.
 3. The early steam engines of Savery and Newcomen converted coal into energy.
 4. James Watt increased the efficiency of the steam engine.
 5. Steam power was used in many industries.
 - E. The Coming of the Railroads
 1. Beginning in the 1830s, railroads transformed the economy, society, and culture.
 2. Railroads reduced the cost and uncertainty of overland shipping.
 3. The construction of railroads created demand for unskilled labor.
 - F. Industry and Population
 1. In 1860 Britain produced 20 percent of the world's industrial goods.
 2. Increases in production led to increases in GDP and a population boom.

3. Industrialization and the growth of an urban working class led to the theories of Malthus and Ricardo about the likely consequences of overpopulation and the likely stagnation of workers' standard of living ("the iron law of wages").
- II. Industrialization in Continental Europe
- A. National Variations
 1. There were several variations on the industrialization theme. Different countries followed different routes.
 2. Belgium and the United States followed Britain's lead.
 3. France showed only gradual growth in the early nineteenth century.
 4. By 1913 Germany and the United States were challenging British leadership in industrialization.
 - B. The Challenge of Industrialization
 1. Continental countries had a number of disadvantages in industrialization.
 - a. The Napoleonic Wars had devastated the European continent.
 - b. It was difficult for continental manufacturers to compete with inexpensive imported British goods.
 - c. As industrial enterprises grew larger, greater and greater investments were required to set them up.
 - d. Continental workers lacked the technological skills British workers had developed.
 2. Continental countries also had advantages.
 - a. Most continental countries had a tradition of a successful putting-out system.
 - b. Continental countries could simply borrow advanced British technology.
 - c. Continental countries had strong independent governments.
 - C. Agents of Industrialization
 1. In Belgium, France, and Prussia the state provided important financial assistance to industrialization.
 2. German nationalist Friedrich List promoted economic nationalism, the idea that to industrialize a country needed trade barriers to protect its manufacturers.
 3. Changes in banking on the continent, such as the creation of limited liability corporations, also facilitated industrialization.
- III. Capital and Labor
- A. The New Class of Factory Owners
 1. Early industrialists operated in a highly competitive environment.
 2. Industrialists came from a variety of backgrounds.
 3. Over time, entry into well-developed industries became more difficult.
 4. Wives and daughters found it increasingly difficult to participate in the business world.
 - B. The New Factory Workers
 1. Factory workers emerged as a new group in society.
 2. Many writers portrayed the harsh working conditions for factory workers.
 3. Engels lashed out at factory owners in his *The Condition of the Working Class in England* (1844).
 4. Ure and Chadwick argued that industrialization had improved the quality of life for people.
 5. Recent statistical studies suggest that workers' standard of living began to rise after 1820.
 - C. Conditions of Work
 1. Factory work meant more discipline and loss of personal freedom.
 2. Child labor increased.
 3. Children and parents worked long hours.
 4. Parliament sought to limit child labor (the Factory Act of 1833).

- D. The Sexual Division of Labor
 1. Family employment carried over into early factories.
 2. A variety of factors contributed to the reorganization of work along gender lines.
 3. Eventually the Industrial Revolution strengthened the notion of a woman's "separate sphere," as women increasingly stayed home to take care of the household while men went to the factories.
- E. The Early Labor Movement in Britain
 1. Working-class solidarity developed in small workshops and large factories.
 2. Poor working conditions, starvation wages, and the liberal capitalist legal attack on artisan guilds led to the development of workers' organizations (trade unions).
 3. The next stage in the British trade union movement was the effort to create a single national union.
 4. British workers also engaged in direct political activity in defense of their own interests.

Glossary

body linen	the name of underwear which was made out of a expensive linen cloth and generally only available to the wealthy due to the prohibitive cost.
class-consciousness	conflicting classes existed, in part, because many individuals came to believe they existed and developed an appropriate sense of class feeling.
Coke	a form of coal that was unlimited in supply and therefore easier and better to use.
Combination Acts	passed in 1799, these acts outlawed unions and strikes.
Crystal Palace	the location of the Great Exposition in 1851 in London, an architectural masterpiece made entirely of glass and iron, both of which were now cheap and abundance.
economic nationalism	the idea that countries should protect and foster their own businesses by imposing high protective tariffs on imported goods as well as eliminating tariffs within the country.
Factory Act of 1833	this act limited the factory workday for children between nine and thirteen to eight hours and that of adolescents between fourteen and eighteen to twelve hours.
Grand National Consolidated Trades Union	organized by Owen in 1834, this was one of the largest and most visionary early national unions.
Industrial Revolution	a term used to describe the burst of major inventions and technical changes they had witnessed in certain industries.
iron law of wages	because of the pressure of population growth, wages would always sink to subsistence level, meaning that wages would be just high enough to keep workers from starving.

Luddites

handicraft workers who attacked whole factories in northern England in 1812 and after smashing the new machines that they believed were putting them out of work.

Mines Act of 1842

this act prohibited underground work for all women as well as for boys under ten.

Rocket

the name given to George Stephenson's effective locomotive that was first tested in 1825 on the Liverpool and Manchester Railway at 16 miles per hour.

spinning jenny

a spinning machine by James Hargreaves in 1765 that used six to twenty-four spindles mounted on a sliding carriage to spin a fine thread.

steam engine

a breakthrough invention by Thomas Savery in 1698 and Thomas Newcomen in 1705 that both burned coal to produce steam which was then used to operate a pump, although inefficient they were still used successfully in English and Scottish mines.

tariff protection

a government's way of supporting and aiding their own economy by laying high tariffs on the cheaper, imported goods of another country, ex . when France responded to cheaper British goods flooding their country with high tariffs on British imports.

water frame

a spinning machine by Richard Arkwright that had a capacity of several hundred spindles and used water power thereby required a larger and more specialized mill but the thread it spun was thicker, generally the thread was then spun on a Spinning Jenny to achieve the desired thickness.

Chapter 23 Ideologies and Upheavals, 1815-1850

Learning Objectives

After reading and studying this chapter you should be able to

- Describe the goals of the leaders of the Congress of Vienna and how the balance of power was reset.
- Discuss how and why artists and writers of the Romantic movement revolted against the age of classicism and the French Revolution.
- Define and describe *socialism*, *liberalism*, and nationalism.
- Describe the political reforms accomplished and attempted in Britain between 1800 and 1840.
- Explain why revolutionaries triumphed briefly in 1848 only to fail almost completely.

Chapter Outlines

Chapter 23: Ideologies and Upheavals, 1815–1850

- I. The Peace Settlement
 - A. The European Balance of Power
 1. At the Congress of Vienna (1815) Britain, Prussia, Russia, and Austria attempted to establish a balance of power in Europe.
 2. They dealt with France moderately.
 3. Members of the Quadruple Alliance settled their own differences.
 - B. Intervention and Repression
 1. Austria, Russia, and Prussia formed the Holy Alliance in 1815.
 2. Klemens von Metternich, the Austrian foreign minister, organized the intervention of Austrian and French troops to destroy revolutionary governments in Spain and Sicily.
 - C. Metternich and Conservatism
 1. Metternich was born into the landed nobility of the Rhineland.
 2. He believed liberalism had led to a generation of war and bloodshed.
 3. Metternich came to symbolize the conservative reaction to the French Revolution.
 4. As a leader of the Austrian Empire, which included many different nationalities, Metternich could only fear the rise of nationalism in Europe.
- II. Radical Ideas and Early Socialism
 - A. Liberalism
 1. Liberalism was not defeated by the settlement of 1815.
 2. Liberalism faced more radical ideological competitors in the early nineteenth century.
 3. After 1815 liberalism came to be identified with the class interests of the capitalists.
 - B. Nationalism
 1. Nationalists argued that each people had its own mission and cultural unity.
 2. Nationalists sought to turn cultural unity into political unity and national independence.
 3. The rise of industrial and urban society required common culture and common language, leading to standardization in these areas.
 4. Much of “traditional” national culture was actually invented by nationalists.

5. In the early 1800s nationalism was generally linked to liberal republican ideology.
 6. The very act of defining "the nation" excluded or even demonized others, setting up a potentially dangerous "we-they" dichotomy.
- C. French Utopian Socialism
1. Socialism generally included the ideas of government planning of the economy (the Jacobin example), greater economic equality, and state regulation of property.
 2. St. Simon
 3. Fourier
 4. Blanc
 5. Proudhon
- D. The Birth of Marxian Socialism
1. Karl Marx predicted the proletariat (workers) would overthrow capitalists in a violent revolution.
 2. Marx was "the last of the classical economists," influenced strongly by David Ricardo and his "iron law of wages."
 3. Marx's thinking built on the philosophy of Hegel.
- III. The Romantic Movement
- A. Romanticism's Tenets
1. "Storm and Stress"
 2. Rejection of materialism
 3. Break with classicism's rationality and order in favor of emotion
 4. Views of nature and the Industrial Revolution
- B. Literature
1. Britain was the first country where romanticism emerged fully in literature.
 2. William Wordsworth was a leading figure of English romanticism.
 3. Walter Scott personified the romantic fascination with history.
 4. French romantics encouraged the repudiation of classical models.
 5. In central and eastern Europe, romanticism and nationalism reinforced each other.
- C. Art and Music
1. Eugène Delacroix was the greatest French romantic painter.
 2. Joseph Turner and John Constable painted scenes of nature that embodied romanticism.
 3. Liszt and Beethoven created emotional, romantic, music.
- IV. Reforms and Revolutions
- A. National Liberation in Greece
1. National, liberal revolution succeeded first in Greece.
 2. The Greeks revolted against the Islamic Turks in 1821.
 3. In 1827, the Great Powers tried to force Turkey to accept an armistice with the Greeks.
 4. Turkish refusal led to armed conflict and the declaration of Greece's independence by the Great Powers in 1830.
- B. Liberal Reform in Great Britain
1. In 1815 Tories passed Corn Laws to protect big landholding aristocracy from imports of foreign grain.
 2. In the face of resulting protests Tories suspended habeas corpus and right of assembly.
 3. The Reform Bill of 1832 enfranchised many more voters.
 4. Tories competed for working-class support with Whigs by passing factory reform bills.
- C. Ireland and the Great Famine
1. In Ireland dependence on the potato for food, a potato blight, and gross exploitation of the peasants by absentee Protestant landlords led to famine between 1845 and 1851.

2. The government took little action to save the starving.
- D. The Revolution of 1830 in France
 1. Louis XVIII's Constitutional Charter of 1814 was basically a liberal constitution, but it was not democratic.
 2. Charles X wanted to repudiate the Charter and, in 1830, used a military adventure in Algeria to rally support for his position.
 3. Following victories in Algeria, he took steps to reestablish the old order.
 4. Popular reaction forced the collapse of the government and Charles fled.
 5. Louis Philippe claimed the throne, accepted the Charter, and ruled much as his cousin had.
- V. The Revolutions of 1848
 - A. A Democratic Republic in France
 1. The 1840s were hard economically and tense politically.
 2. The government's unwillingness to consider reform led to Louis Philippe's abdication on February 22, 1848.
 3. The revolutionaries quickly established universal male suffrage and other push forward a variety of reforms.
 4. Voting in April produced a new Constituent Assembly.
 5. Socialist revolution in Paris frightened much of the population.
 6. Conflict between moderate republicans and radicals came to a head in 1848.
 7. Three days of fighting in June left thousands dead and injured and the moderates in control.
 - B. The Austrian Empire in 1848
 1. Revolution in France sparked revolutions throughout Europe.
 2. The revolution in the Austrian Empire began in Hungary.
 3. An unstable coalition of revolutionaries forced Ferdinand I to capitulate and promise reforms and a liberal constitution.
 4. National aspirations and the rapid pace of radical reform undermined the revolution.
 5. Conservative forces regrouped and the army crushed the revolution.
 6. Francis Joseph was crowned emperor of Austria in December 1848.
 - C. Prussia and the Frankfurt Assembly
 1. After the fall of Louis Philippe, Prussian liberals pressed for the creation of liberal constitutional monarchy.
 2. Urban workers wanted a more radical revolution and the Prussian aristocracy wanted no revolution at all.
 3. A self-appointed group of liberals met in May in Frankfurt to write a federal constitution for a unified German state.
 4. The Assembly was absorbed with the issue of Schleswig and Holstein.
 5. In March 1849 the Assembly completed its draft constitution and elected Frederick William of Prussia the new emperor of the German national state.
 6. Frederick William rejected the Assembly and retook control of the state.

Glossary

Battle of Peterloo	a protest that took place at Saint Peters Fields in Manchester that was broken up by armed cavalry in reaction to the revision of the Corn Laws.
Bourgeoisie	the middle class.
Carlsbad Decrees	issued in 1819, these decrees required the 38 German member states to root out subversive idea in their universities and newspapers.

Congress of Vienna	a meeting of Russia, Prussia, Austria and Great Britain to fashion a peace settlement having defeated France.
Corn Laws	laws revised in 1815 that prohibited the importation of foreign grain trade unless the price at home rose to improbable levels.
Doers	the leading scientists, engineers and industrialists (according to Count Henri de Saint-Simon the doers would plan the economy and guide it forward by undertaking public works projects and establishment investment banks).
dual revolution	a term that historian Eric Hobsbawn used for the economic and political changes that tended to fuse, reinforcing each other.
Great Famine	the result of four years of crop failure in Ireland, a country that had grown dependent of potatoes as a dietary staple.
Holy Alliance	an alliance formed by Austria, Russia and Prussia in September of 1815 that became a symbol of the repression of liberal and revolutionary movements all over Europe.
laissez faire	economic liberalism that believes in unrestricted private enterprise and no government interference in the economy.
Liberalism	the principle ideas of which are equality and liberty, demanded representative government and equality before the law as well as individual freedoms such as freedom of press, freedom of speech, freedom of assembly and freedom from arbitrary arrest.
Nationalism	the idea that each people had its own genius and its own cultural unity this cultural unity was self-evident, manifesting itself especially in a common language, history and territory.
Parasites	the court, the aristocracy, lawyers and church men (according to Count Henri de Saint-Simon the key to progress was social organization and this required parasites to give way to doers).
Proletariat	the modern working class.
Romanticism	a movement that was revolting against classicism and the Enlightenment, it was characterized by a belief in emotional exuberance, unrestrained imagination, and spontaneity in both art and personal life.
Socialism	a backlash against the emergence of individualism and fragmentation of society it was a move towards cooperation and a sense of community, the key ideas were panning, greater economic equality and state regulation of property.
Sturm und Drang	Storm and Stress, German early Romantics of the 1770s and 1780s who lived lives of tremendous emotional intensity suicides, duels, madness and strange illnesses were common.

Chapter 24

Life in the Emerging Urban Society

Learning Objectives

After reading and studying this chapter you should be able to

- Explain what life was like in the cities and how it changed.
- Describe the impact urbanization had on various classes of people, their family life, and concepts of gender in western society in the nineteenth century.
- Discuss changes in science and public health including Louis Pasteur's contributions to public health and the development of Positive philosophy.
- Summarize the ways in which literature reflected these changes in society.

Chapter Outlines

Chapter 24: Life in the Emerging Urban Society

- I. Taming the City
 - A. Industry and the Growth of Cities
 1. The challenge of urban growth was felt first and most acutely in Britain.
 2. In the 1820s and 30s people in France and Britain began to worry about the condition of their cities.
 3. Rapid urbanization without any public transportation worsened already poor living conditions in cities in the nineteenth century.
 4. Government was slow to improve sanitation and building codes.
 - B. Public Health and the Bacterial Revolution.
 1. Advances in public health, urban planning, and urban transport ameliorated these conditions by 1900.
 2. Edwin Chadwick in England advocated improved sewage systems.
 3. Louis Pasteur in France discovered that bacteria caused disease (1860s).
 - C. Urban Planning and Public Transportation
 1. In Paris and other European cities urban planners demolished buildings and medieval walls to create wide boulevards and public parks.
 2. Mass public transport, including electric streetcars, enabled city dwellers to live further from the city center, relieving overcrowding.
- II. Rich and Poor and Those in Between
 - A. Social Structure
 1. Wealth was distributed very unevenly throughout Europe.
 2. Only 20 percent of the population was middle class or wealthy.
 - B. The Middle Classes
 1. The urban middle class was diverse.
 2. The upper middle class included the most successful industrialists, bankers, and merchants. Increasingly, it merged with the aristocracy.
 3. Middle ranks included doctors, lawyers, and moderately successful bankers and industrialists.
 4. The lower middle class included small business owners, salespeople, store managers, clerks, and other white-collar employees.
 - C. Middle-Class Culture
 1. Middle-class people were loosely united by a certain style of life and culture.
 2. They were also united by a shared code of behavior and morality.
 - D. The Working Classes

1. Skilled workers lived very different lives from the semiskilled and unskilled.
 2. Skilled workers' income approached that of the lower middle classes.
 3. Skilled workers tended to embrace the middle-class moral code.
 4. Semiskilled and unskilled workers included many different occupations, from carpenters and bricklayers to longshoremen, street vendors, and domestic servants.
 5. Domestic servants were a large proportion of the population.
- E. Working-Class Leisure and Religion
1. Working-class leisure included drinking in taverns; watching sports, especially racing and soccer; and attending music hall performances.
 2. Working-class church attendance declined in the nineteenth century.
- III. The Changing Family
1. Premarital Sex and Marriage
 1. For the middle classes, economic considerations continued to be paramount in choosing marriage partners through most of the nineteenth century.
 2. Increasing economic well-being allowed members of the working class to select marriage partners based more on romance.
 2. Prostitution
 1. Prostitution was common.
 2. Middle- and upper-class men frequently visited prostitutes.
 3. Kinship Ties
 1. Kinship ties helped working-class people to cope with sickness, unemployment, death, and old age.
 4. Gender Roles and Family Life
 1. The status of women changed during the nineteenth century.
 2. The division of labor became more defined by gender.
 3. Economic inferiority led some women to organize for equality and women's rights.
 4. As society increasingly relegated women to the domestic sphere, women gained control over household finances and the education of children.
 5. Married couples developed stronger emotional ties to each other.
 5. Child Rearing
 1. Attitudes toward children also changed during this period.
 2. Emotional ties between mothers and infants deepened.
 3. There was more breast-feeding and less swaddling and abandonment of babies.
 4. Increased connection often meant increased control, including attempts to repress the child's sexuality (for example, to prevent masturbation).
- IV. Science and Thought
- . The Triumph of Science
 1. Theoretical discoveries resulted in practical benefits, as in chemistry and electricity.
 2. Scientific achievements gave science considerable prestige.
 - A. Social Science and Evolution
 1. Charles Darwin formulated his theory of evolution by natural selection.
 2. New "social sciences" used data collected by states to test theories.
 3. Auguste Comte's "positivism" presented the scientific method as the pinnacle of human intellectual achievement.
 4. Social Darwinists such as Spencer applied Darwin's ideas to human affairs.
 - B. Realism in Literature
 1. The Realist movement in literature reflected the ethos of European society.
 2. This was an expression of writers who sought to depict life as it really was.

Glossary

antiseptic principle	developed by English surgeon Joseph Lister, it was the idea that a chemical disinfectant applied to a wound dressing would destroy aerial bacteria.
Benthamite	follower of the radical philosopher Jeremy Benthamite who taught that public problems should be dealt with on a rational, scientific basis and according to the greatest good for the greatest number.
defense mechanisms	Freuds postulation that much of human behavior is motivated by unconscious emotional needs whose nature and origins are kept from conscious awareness by various mental devices.
Evolution	the idea, applied by thinkers in many fields, that stresses gradual change and continuous adjustment.
germ theory	the idea, contrary to miasmatic theory, that disease was spread through filth and not caused by it.
illegitimacy explosion	period between 1750 and 1850 marked by a high number of illegitimate births by the 1840s, as many as one birth in three was occurring outside of wedlock in many large cities.
labor aristocracy	highly skilled workers who made up about 15% of the working classes at the turn of the 20 th Century.
miasmatic theory	the belief that people contract disease when they breathe the bad odors of decay and putrefying excrement.
organic chemistry	the study of the compounds of carbon.
Pasteurization	process developed by Louis Pasteur that suppressed the activity of living organisms in a beverage by heating it.
positivist method	Auguste Comptes discipline of sociology, which postulated that each branch of our knowledge passes successively through three different theoretical conditions; the Theological, or fictitious; the Metaphysical, or abstract; and the Scientific, or positive.
Realism	literary movement which stressed that literature should depict life exactly as it was.
separate spheres	a rigid gender division of labor with the wife as mother and homemaker and the husband as wage earner.
Social Darwinists	group of thinkers popular with the upper middle class who saw the human race as driven forward to ever-greater specialization and progress by the unending economic struggle which would determine the survival of the fittest.
Thermodynamics	a branch of physics built on Newtons laws of mechanics that investigated the relationship between heat and mechanical energy.

Chapter 25 The Age of Nationalism, 1850-1914

Learning Objectives

After reading and studying this chapter you should be able to

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- Describe the impact urbanization had on various classes of people, their family life, and concepts of gender in western society in the nineteenth century.
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 - B. Realism in Literature
 1. The Realist movement in literature reflected the ethos of European society.
 2. This was an expression of writers who sought to depict life as it really was.
 3. Realism stressed the hereditary and environmental determinants of human behavior.

Glossary

antiseptic principle	developed by English surgeon Joseph Lister, it was the idea that a chemical disinfectant applied to a wound dressing would destroy aerial bacteria.
Benthamite	follower of the radical philosopher Jeremy Benthamite who taught that public problems should be dealt with on a rational, scientific basis and according to the greatest good for the greatest number.
defense mechanisms	Freuds postulation that much of human behavior is motivated by unconscious emotional needs whose nature and origins are kept from conscious awareness by various mental devices.
Evolution	the idea, applied by thinkers in many fields, that stresses gradual change and continuous adjustment.
germ theory	the idea, contrary to miasmatic theory, that disease was spread through filth and not caused by it.
illegitimacy explosion	period between 1750 and 1850 marked by a high number of illegitimate births by the 1840s, as many as one birth in three was occurring outside of wedlock in many large cities.
labor aristocracy	highly skilled workers who made up about 15% of the working classes at the turn of the 20 th Century.
miasmatic theory	the belief that people contract disease when they breathe the bad odors of decay and putrefying excrement.
organic chemistry	the study of the compounds of carbon.
Pasteurization	process developed by Louis Pasteur that suppressed the activity of living organisms in a beverage by heating it.
positivist method	Auguste Comptes discipline of sociology, which postulated that each branch of our knowledge passes successively through three different theoretical conditions; the Theological, or fictitious; the Metaphysical, or abstract; and the Scientific, or positive.
Realism	literary movement which stressed that literature should depict life exactly as it was.
separate spheres	a rigid gender division of labor with the wife as mother and homemaker and the husband as wage earner.
Social Darwinists	group of thinkers popular with the upper middle class who saw the human race as driven forward to ever-greater specialization and progress by the unending economic struggle which would determine the survival of the fittest.
Thermodynamics	a branch of physics built on Newtons laws of mechanics that investigated the relationship between heat and mechanical energy.

Chapter 25 The Age of Nationalism, 1850-1914

Learning Objectives

After reading and studying this chapter you should be able to

- Explain how and why nationalism became an almost universal faith in Europe and the United States.
- Describe the unifications of both Germany and Italy in terms of cause, process, result.
- Describe how Napoleon III used nationalism to create his Second Empire in France, and how and why nationalism in Russia was linked to modernization.
- Discuss the role of Marxism and socialist parties in the age of nationalism.
- Explain how more progressive states responded to the needs of the working classes and their motivations for doing so.

Chapter Outlines

Chapter 25: The Age of Nationalism, 1850–1914

- I. Napoleon III in France
 - A. The Second Republic and Louis Napoleon
 1. Louis Napoleon Bonaparte easily won the presidential election of December 1848.
 2. Louis Napoleon believed that government should give particular focus to helping the people economically.
 3. When the National Assembly failed to change the constitution so Louis Napoleon could run for a second term, he dismissed the Assembly and seized power in 1851.
 4. He called on the French people to legitimize this action and received the overwhelming majority of the vote.
 - B. Napoleon III's Second Empire
 1. Louis Napoleon, proclaimed Napoleon III, experienced both success and failure between 1852 and 1870.
 2. Napoleon III granted workers the right to form unions and embraced other pro-labor measures.
 3. In the 1860s, he liberalized his empire.
 4. In 1870 he granted France a new constitution, moving France further in the direction of democracy.
- II. Nation Building in Italy and Germany
 - A. Italy to 1850
 1. Three approaches to unifying Italy:
 - a. Mazzini's centralized democratic republic.
 - b. Vincenzo Gioberti's federation of existing states headed by the Pope.
 - c. Italian nation built around aristocratic kingdom of Sardinia-Piedmont.
 - B. Cavour and Garibaldi in Italy
 1. Cavour (head of Sardinian government, 1850-1861) sought to unify northern and central Italy under Sardinian rule.
 2. With French aid, he defeated Austria in 1859 and gained Lombardy.
 3. Central Italy voted to join Sardinia.

4. Giuseppe Garibaldi led a patriotic expedition to the kingdom of Two Sicilies, overthrew the government, and presented southern Italy and Sicily to Sardinia (1860).
- C. Germany Before Bismarck
 1. German customs union (Zollverein) unified the northern German states, but excluded Austria.
 2. The national uprising in Italy made a profound impression in the German states.
 3. William I of Prussia sought to reform the army and strengthen the state.
 4. The parliament rejected the new military budget in 1862 and the liberals triumphed in new elections.
 5. William called on Otto von Bismarck to head a new ministry and defy the parliament.
 - D. Bismarck and the Austro-Prussian War, 1866
 1. Bismarck collected taxes without permission of the Prussian parliament.
 2. Prussia and Austria defeated Denmark in 1864 war over Schleswig-Holstein.
 3. The Austro-Prussian War of 1866 resulted in a Prussian victory and the establishment of the North German Confederation under Prussian leadership.
 - E. The Taming of the Parliament
 1. Bismarck conciliated parliamentary opposition and established universal manhood suffrage.
 - F. The Franco-Prussian War, 1870–1871
 1. Bismarck used a diplomatic pretext to spark a war with France.
 2. The war gained Bismarck the support of the southern German states.
 3. Franco-Prussian War of 1870-1871 ended in Prussian victory and the absorption of southern Germany into the new German Empire.
- III. Nation Building in the United States
- A. Growth and Division
 1. Split between slave-holding South based on big plantation agriculture and North built on smaller family farms.
 2. Industrialization in North linked to development of large-scale cotton cultivation in South.
 3. Conflict over whether lands seized from Mexico in Mexican-American War of 1848 should be slave or free.
 4. Secession of eleven southern states from Union following Abraham Lincoln's election as president led to civil war (1860-61).
 5. Northern victory strengthened U.S. industrialization, nationalism; freed black slaves in South but ultimately confirmed their second-class status.
- IV. The Modernization of Russia
- A. The "Great Reforms"
 1. Crimean War of 1853-1856 versus Britain, France, Sardinia, Ottoman Empire showed backwardness of Russian transport system, military.
 2. Serfs freed as part of modernization program (1861).
 3. Other reforms followed: strengthening of local self-government, modernization of legal system, relaxation of censorship.
 - B. The Industrialization of Russia
 1. Two waves of industrialization:
 - a. Construction of privately owned railroads (1860-1880).
 - b. Construction of state-owned railroads, coal and steel industry financed by foreign investment under Minister of Finance Sergei Witte (1892-1903).
 - C. The Revolution of 1905

1. Lost war with Japan (1904-1905) plus demands of business and professional people, workers, and peasants for political power led to Revolution of 1905.
 2. In response Tsar granted new constitution, with elective assembly, the Duma.
- V. The Responsive National State, 1871-1914
- A. The German Empire
 1. Bismarck conciliated liberals, waged Kulturkampf against Catholics, 1870-1878.
 2. A drop in world agricultural prices led Germany to high tariffs to protect German farmers.
 3. In 1883-1884 Bismarck passed social security laws to prevent the spread of socialism. These included old-age pensions and national health and accident insurance.
 4. In 1890 the new German Emperor, William II, fired Bismarck.
 - B. Republican France
 1. Rebellion in Paris against conservative cession of Alsace-Lorraine to Germans, March 1871 (Paris Commune). Defeated in bloody fighting.
 2. Moderate republicans Leon Gambetta, Jules Ferry established free compulsory education for girls and boys (1886), legalized unions.
 3. Teachers in new public school system spread republican ideas, undermined grip of Catholic Church schools on rural thinking.
 4. In 1898-99 Dreyfus affair increased tension between republicans and Catholics (Alfred Dreyfus was a Jewish army captain falsely accused of treason).
 - C. Great Britain and Ireland
 1. Extension of franchise in 1832, 1867, 1884 (universal manhood suffrage).
 2. Between 1906-1914 Liberal party defeated aristocratic conservatives in House of Lords, raised taxes on rich to fund national health insurance, unemployment benefits, pensions, and so on.
 3. Irish nationalists demanded political autonomy and Irish Protestants in north resisted.
 - D. The Austro-Hungarian Empire
 1. Due to ethnic divisions the Austro-Hungarian Empire was unable to harness nationalism as other major European states did after 1870.
 - E. Jewish Emancipation and Modern Anti-Semitism
 1. Removal of most of Jews' legal disabilities between 1791 (France) and 1871 (Germany).
 2. Jews became prominent in journalism, medicine, law, finance, railroad building.
 3. Stock market crash of 1873 catalyzed vicious anti-Semitism. Conservative and extremist nationalist politicians used anti-Semitism to mobilize support; for example, in Vienna.
 4. In Russia from 1881 government officials used anti-Semitism to channel popular resentment. They encouraged pogroms.
- VI. Marxism and the Socialist Movement
- A. The Socialist International
 1. The Socialist International nominally integrated socialist parties throughout Europe.
 - B. Unions and Revisionism
 1. Several factors combined to blunt the radical thrust of socialism.
 2. Nationalist and patriotic appeals were at least as attractive to workers as socialism.
 3. Workers' standard of living rose substantially in the second half of the 1800s.

4. The growth of labor unions and their legalization reflected increased focus of worker and socialist activists on “bread-and-butter” wage issues rather than the violent seizure of political power.
5. “Revisionist” Marxists such as German Edward Bernstein argued for “evolutionary socialism” that will not involve violent seizure of political power.
6. Socialism varied from country to country.

Glossary

Bloody Sunday

massacre of peaceful protesters at Winters Square in St. Petersburg in 1905 that turned ordinary workers against the tsar and produced a wave of general indignation.

Dreyfus affair

a divisive case in which Alfred Dreyfus, a Jewish captain in the French army was falsely accused and convicted of treason. The Catholic Church sided with the anti-semites against Dreyfus; because of this, the French government severed all ties between the state and church.

Duma

Russian parliament opened in 1906, elected indirectly by universal male suffrage but with absolute veto power from the tsar.

Homestead Act

result of the American Civil War that gave western land to settlers, reinforcing the concept of free labor in a market economy.

Kulturkampf

struggle for civilization, Bismarck's attack on the Catholic church resulting from Pius IX's declaration of papal infallibility in 1870.

Modernization

the changes that enable a country to compete effectively with the leading countries at a given time.

October Manifesto

the result of a great general strike in October 1905, it granted full civil rights and promised a popularly elected duma (parliament) with real legislative power.

Peoples Budget

proposed after the liberal party came to power in England in 1906 and vetoed by the lords, it was designed to increase spending on social welfare issues.

Red Shirts

guerrilla army of Giuseppe Garibaldi who invaded Sicily in 1860 in an attempt to liberate it and won the hearts of the Sicilian peasantry.

Reichstag

the popularly elected lower house of government of the new German Empire after 1871.

Revisionism

an effort by various socialists to update Marxian doctrines to reflect the realities of the time.

revolution of 1905

result of discontent from Russian factory workers and peasants as well as an emerging nationalist sentiment among the empire's minorities.

Zemstvo

a new institution of local government in reformed Russia, whose members were elected by a three-class system of towns, peasant villages, and noble landowners.

Chapter 26 The West and the World

Learning Objectives

After reading and studying this chapter you should be able to

- Describe the development of a world economy and how world wealth shifted in favor of Europe and North America.
- Define imperialism and describe why western imperialism speeded up between 1880 and 1900.
- Explain the impact of imperialism on European and non-western societies.
- Compare and analyze nineteenth-century imperialism with imperialism in other historical periods.
- Describe the responses of non-western countries to the New Imperialism.
- Describe the origin and destination of European emigrants from 1851 to 1960.

Chapter Outlines

Chapter 26: The West and the World

- I. Industrialization and the World Economy
 - A. The Rise of Global Inequality
 1. In 1750 the European standard of living approximated that of the rest of the world.
 2. Industrialization opened the gap between Europe and the rest of the world, with Britain leading.
 3. Third World income per person stagnated before 1945.
 4. Two schools of interpretation of resulting income differences:
 - a. The West used science, technology, and capitalism to create wealth.
 - b. The West used superior power to steal much of its riches from the rest of the world.
 - B. The World Market
 1. Britain led the world in manufacturing and, after 1846, as a market for goods from other countries.
 2. Railroads, steam vessels, and the Panama and Suez Canals helped expand trade.
 3. From the mid-1800s France, Germany, and Britain invested massively abroad.
 4. Most of this capital actually went to Europe itself or to the Americas.
 - C. The Opening of China and Japan
 1. The British and French forced the reluctant Qing Dynasty to open China to their trade (1839-1860).
 2. The United States Navy forced Japan to open its ports to foreign trade (1853-1858).
 - D. Western Penetration of Egypt
 1. Muhammad Ali modernized the Egyptian army and government, hired Europeans, and made Egypt autonomous within the Ottoman Empire (first half of 1800s).
 2. Ali's encouragement of commercial agriculture turned peasants into tenant farmers.
 3. Ali's grandson, Ismail (r. 1863-1879) continued modernization.
 - a. Arabic replaces Turkish as official language.

- b. French company built Suez Canal (1869).
- c. Cairo got modern boulevards.
- d. Large-scale export of cotton.
- 4. Inability of Egyptian government to pay off massive debts due to modernization.
- 5. The British occupied Egypt to force payment (1882).

II. The Great Migration

A. The Pressure of Population

- 1. Emigration peaked in the decade before World War I.
- 2. About one-third of all European emigrants came from the British Isles.
- 3. German emigration peaked later than British (1880s), and Italian even later (increasing through 1914).
- 4. Less than one-half of European emigrants went to the U.S. Others went to Asiatic Russia, Canada, Argentina, Brazil, Australia, and New Zealand.

B. European Migrants

- 1. Most European migrants were young, unmarried peasant farmers or village craftsmen.
- 2. Some ethnic groups, such as Italians, had a high rate of return to their homelands.
- 3. For some emigrants, such as Jews from the Russian Empire, emigration was escape from oppression.

C. Asian Migrants

- 1. About three million Asians (as opposed to 60 million Europeans) moved abroad before 1920.
- 2. In the 1840s Spain recruited Chinese laborers for Cuban plantations. Peruvian landlords also brought workers from China.
- 3. European settlers objected to Asian migration for racist reasons and because they feared competition from cheap labor. From the 1880s Americans and Australians were developing "whites only" immigration policies.

III. Western Imperialism

A. The Scramble for Africa

- 1. Before 1880 European penetration of Africa was limited to French control of Algiers, British and Dutch settlers in South Africa, and Portuguese coastal enclaves in western Africa.
- 2. By 1900 European powers ruled all of Africa except Ethiopia and Liberia.
- 3. The South African War (1898-1902) led to British creation and control of the Union of South Africa.
- 4. The Congress of Berlin (1884-1885) established that European claims on African territory had to be secured by "effective occupation." This led to a rush into the interior.

B. Imperialism in Asia

- 1. After 1815 the Dutch expanded their control of the Indonesian archipelago.
- 2. The French took Indochina.
- 3. The Russians expanded in Central Asia and along the north Chinese frontier.
- 4. U.S. took the Philippines in the Spanish-American War of 1898.

C. Causes of the New Imperialism

- 1. Tariff barriers limiting imports to much of Europe and to the U.S. led major industrial powers to seek new markets.
- 2. In reality, most new colonies were not profitable.
- 3. Colonies were seen however, as important for military bases and naval coaling stations.
- 4. Colonies were also important for national prestige.

5. Social Darwinist theory predicted death for societies that did not compete in the colonial race.
 6. Technological superiority (machine guns, quinine, telegraph, steamships) made conquest of new colonies feasible.
 7. Conservative political leaders fostered pride in empire as a means of damping down social tension.
 8. Shipping companies, military men, and missionaries all advocated colonial expansion.
 9. Europeans often discussed colonial expansions in terms of a "civilizing mission," an imperative to bring Europe's supposedly superior civilization, Christianity, and so on, to "backward" peoples.
- D. Critics of Imperialism
1. Some Europeans criticized imperialism.
 2. Hobson and others argued that colonies only benefited the wealthiest elites in Europe and actually cost ordinary taxpayers money.
 3. Other critics, such as Joseph Conrad, saw European imperialism as racist, exploitative, and contrary to the West's own liberal values.
- IV. Responses to Western Imperialism
- A. Stages of Response
1. The initial response, as in China, Japan, and Sudan, was to try to drive foreigners away with force.
 2. When this failed, many Asians and Africans retreated to a defense of traditional culture.
 3. Others, such as Ismail, the khedive of Egypt, sought to modernize and match the West.
 4. "The masses" in Asia and Africa were not used to political participation and initially accepted European rule without too much protest.
 5. Later, European liberalism provided resisters with an ideology of political self-determination and nationalism.
- B. Empire in India
1. The last attempt to drive the British from India by force was the Sepoy Rebellion (1857-1858).
 2. After 1858 Britain ruled India directly through a small body of white civil servants.
 - a. The British offered some Indians, especially upper-caste Hindus, opportunities to serve in government.
 - b. Nonetheless, British rule rested ultimately on racism and dictatorship.
 - c. This provoked the development of Indian nationalism and the foundation of the Indian National Congress in 1885.
- C. The Example of Japan
1. The initial appearance of Europeans and Americans in Japan provoked violence from radical samurai who wished to expel them by force.
 2. In 1868 a group of patriotic samurai overthrew the shogun, restored the Emperor to political power, and undertook an intensive modernization program.
 - a. They abolished the feudal state and created a strong central government.
 - b. They created a free economy.
 - c. They built a modern navy and army.
 - d. The Japanese studied the West, and Japan hired many Western specialists.
 - e. Japan itself became an imperial power in Formosa, Manchuria, and Korea.
- D. Toward Revolution in China

1. In 1894-1895 defeat by Japan in the Sino-Japanese War short-circuited Qing reform efforts in China.
2. From 1895 to 1898 European powers rushed to carve out zones of influence in China.
3. Radical reformers such as Sun Yatsen aimed to overthrow the Qing and establish a republic.
4. Traditionalists turned toward ancient practices and sought to expel the foreigners. One aspect of this response was the Boxer Rebellion (1899-1900).
5. In 1912 the Qing Dynasty collapsed.

Glossary

Afrikaners	descendants of the Dutch in the Cape Colony.
Berlin conference	held in 1884 and 1885 in order to lay down some basic rules for imperialist competition in sub-Saharan Africa, it established the principle that European claims to African territory had to rest on effective occupation in order to be recognized by other states.
great migration	a great movement that was the central experience in the saga of Western expansion, one reason why the West's impact on the world in the nineteenth century was so powerful and many-sided.
Great Rebellion	the 1857 and 1858 insurrection by Muslim and Hindu mercenaries in the British army which spread throughout northern and central India before finally being crushed, primarily by loyal native troops from southern India. Britain thereafter ruled India directly.
great white walls	laws designed by Americans and Australians to keep Asians out.
hundred days of reform	launched in 1898 by the Chinese government in an attempt to meet foreign challenge.
new imperialism	the drive to create vast political empires abroad, recalling the old European colonial empires of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries and contrasting with the economic penetration of non-Western territories between 1816 and 1880.
opium trade	grown legally in British-occupied India and smuggled into China by means of fast ships and bribed officials, opium became a destructive and ensnaring vice of the Chinese.
Samurai	Japanese warrior nobility who were often poor, restless, and intensely proud.
Shogun	the hereditary governor in feudal Japan.
Third World	a term widely used by international organizations and by scholars to group Africa, Asia, and Latin America into a single unit.
white mans burden	the idea that Europeans could and should civilize more primitive, nonwhite peoples and that nonwhites would eventually receive the benefits of modern economics, cities, advanced medicine, and higher standards of living.

Chapter 27

The Great Break: War and Revolution

Learning Objectives

After reading and studying this chapter you should be able to

- List and discuss the causes of World War I.
- Discuss the impact of World War I and its major results including how the war affected the common people.
- Describe the Russian Revolution, its causes, and its results.
- Discuss the peace settlement and its consequences.

Chapter Outlines

Chapter 27: The Great Break: War and Revolution

- I. The First World War
 - A. The Bismarckian System of Alliances
 1. After the German victory over France in 1871 Bismarck strove successfully to maintain peace between Austria-Hungary and Russia, and to keep France diplomatically isolated.
 2. The Three Emperors' League linked Austria-Hungary, Germany, and Russia.
 3. Bismarck maintained good relations with Britain and Italy.
 - B. The Rival Blocs
 1. In 1890 the new emperor, William II of Germany, dismissed Bismarck, partly because of his friendly policy towards Russia.
 2. William then refused to renew the neutrality treaty between Germany and Russia (the Russian-German Reinsurance Treaty).
 3. As a result, France and Russia concluded a military alliance in 1894.
 4. Commercial rivalry and expansion of the German fleet led to tensions between Britain and Germany.
 5. Between 1900 and 1904 Britain improved relations with France and the U.S. and signed a formal alliance with Japan.
 - C. The Outbreak of War
 1. The weakening of the Ottoman Empire, the rise of independent and fiercely nationalist states in the Balkans, and Austrian attempts to expand in the area raised tension between Austria and Russian-backed Serbia.
 2. In June 1914 a Serbian nationalist assassinated Francis Ferdinand, heir to the Austrian throne.
 3. Austria decided to destroy Serbia and issued an ultimatum.
 4. Germany offered Austria unconditional support and Russia backed the Serbs.
 5. Fearful of falling behind in mobilization, all the major powers rushed toward war.
 6. As part of its war plan against France, Germany attacked neutral Belgium. In response, Britain joined the Franco-Russian war against Germany.
 - D. Reflections on the Origins of the War
 1. German encouragement of the Austrian attack on Serbia, plus Germany's precipitous attack on Belgium and France, created a European war.
 2. German leaders after 1890 felt that Germany's "Great Power" status was threatened.

3. Some historians argue that German leaders deliberately sought war to reduce social tension and the political power of socialism in Germany.
 4. Nationalism certainly played a major role in motivating the war's outbreak.
- E. Stalemate and Slaughter
1. The French stopped the initial German advance into France at the Battle of the Marne.
 2. The western front then settled into bloody, brutal, and indecisive trench warfare.
 3. In the East warfare was more mobile, and the Russians and Austrians took heavy casualties.
- F. The Widening War
1. In May 1915 Italy joined the Triple Entente of Great Britain, France, and Russia.
 2. In October 1914 the Ottoman Empire joined Austria and Germany in the Central Powers.
 3. The entry of the Ottomans brought the war into the Middle East.
 4. In 1915 the Ottoman government ordered a genocidal mass deportation of the Armenians.
 5. The British had some success inciting Arab revolts against the Turks.
 6. War also spread to East Asia and Africa.
 7. Unrestricted submarine warfare against merchant vessels by Germany brought the U.S. into the war in April 1917 on the Allied side.
- II. The Home Front
- A. Mobilizing for Total War
1. At first there was mass enthusiasm for the war, even among socialists.
 2. Demands for munitions and other matériel far exceeded supplies, leading to central government coordination of economies.
 3. In Germany Walter Rathenau, head of the nation's largest electric company, directed the War Raw Materials Board that inventoried and rationed every useful material from oil to barnyard manure.
 4. After the Battles of the Somme and Verdun in 1916, the military leaders Hindenburg and Ludendorff were de facto rulers of Germany.
 5. In late 1916 Germany introduced forced labor for adult males.
 6. Food rations dropped to just over 1,000 calories per day by the end of the war.
 7. In Germany total war led to the creation of the first "totalitarian" society.
- B. The Social Impact
1. War created full employment. Labor unions cooperated with government and private industry.
 2. Large numbers of women left home to work in industry, transport, and offices. Women also served as nurses and doctors at the front.
 3. In some countries, notably Britain, full employment greatly improved the material lot of the poor.
- C. Growing Political Tensions
1. Pressures of total war eventually led to strikes, mutinies and demonstrations in the combatant powers by 1916.
 2. In Austria nationalist dissatisfaction with the Empire grew.
- III. The Russian Revolution
- A. The Fall of Imperial Russia
1. Russian armies suffered from a lack of supplies and equipment.
 2. Russia's political system, with its weak Duma and powerful Tsar, was not conducive to total war mobilization.
 3. The tsar, Nicholas II, distrusted the Duma and resisted calls to share power with his subjects.

4. In September 1915 the tsar took direct command of armies at the front, leaving his wife, Alexandra, and her adviser Rasputin in real control of the government.
 5. In March 1917 troops in St. Petersburg mutinied as women rioted, demanding bread. The Duma formed a provisional government and the Tsar abdicated.
- B. The Provisional Government
1. The Provisional Government made Russia the freest country in the world on paper, with equality before the law, freedom of religion, the right to strike, and so on.
 2. The Provisional Government shared power with the Petrograd Soviet of Workers' and Soldiers' Deputies.
 3. Following the failure of Russia's summer 1917 offensive, the army began to dissolve.
- C. Lenin and the Bolshevik Revolution
1. Early Life of Lenin
 2. Lenin's political ideas:
 1. Only violent revolution could destroy capitalism.
 2. Socialist revolution was possible even in a backward country such as Russia.
 3. Human leadership rather than historical laws made real revolutions.
 4. Unlike many other socialists Lenin did not rally round the flag in 1914.
 3. In April 1917 Germans smuggled Lenin out of exile in Switzerland and into Russia.
 4. In the summer of 1917 Bolsheviks won support in Petrograd and by October gained a small majority in the Soviet.
- D. Trotsky and the Seizure of Power
1. In early November militant Bolsheviks under the leadership of Leon Trotsky seized power from the Provisional Government in the name of the Petrograd Soviet.
 2. Reasons for Bolshevik success:
 - a. By late 1917 Russia was in anarchy. Power was available to anyone who would seize it.
 - b. Bolshevik leadership was superior to that of the Imperial or Provisional Governments.
 - c. In 1917 the Bolsheviks succeeded in appealing to many soldiers and urban workers.
- E. Dictatorship and Civil War
1. The Bolsheviks immediately legalized peasant seizures of land.
 2. The Bolsheviks made peace with Germany in March 1918.
 3. In January 1918 the Bolsheviks dispersed by force the democratically elected Constituent Assembly, which was to write a constitution for Russia.
 4. The Bolshevik destruction of democracy led to civil war in Russia from 1918-1921.
 5. The Bolsheviks won the civil war for several reasons.
 - . They controlled the strategic center of the country.
 - a. The Bolsheviks' "White" opponents were divided and lacked a single clear political program.
 - b. Trotsky created a superior army to the Whites.
 - c. The Bolsheviks mobilized the home front, introducing forced labor, grain requisitioning, and rationing.
 - d. The Bolsheviks used terror to maintain discipline and subdue opposition.

- e. Allied military intervention against the Bolsheviks allowed the latter to appeal to Russian patriotic sentiment against foreign invasion.
- IV. The Peace Settlement
- A. End of the War
 1. After a renewed German offensive in summer 1918 failed, newly arrived American troops helped the French and British turn the tide and begin a war-winning attack.
 2. In November 1918 German military discipline collapsed, the Kaiser abdicated, and socialist leaders declared a German republic.
 3. On November 11 new leaders of the republic agreed to Allied terms for an armistice.
 - B. Revolution in Germany
 1. In Austria-Hungary as in Russia, defeat led to revolution, but nationalist revolution. Independent Austrian, Hungarian, and Czech states were established.
 2. In Germany as well, revolution broke out and took two directions, moderate socialist and radical communist, as in Russia. Unlike in Russia the moderate socialists won.
 - C. The Treaty of Versailles
 1. At the Paris Peace Conference of 1919, U.S. President Woodrow Wilson sought the creation of a League of Nations to avoid future international conflict. Wilson also wanted lenient terms for Germany.
 2. Lloyd George of Britain and Georges Clemenceau of France were indifferent to the League and sought harsher terms for Germany. France in particular feared future German attack.
 3. Terms of the Treaty of Versailles
 - . German colonies went to France, Britain, and Japan.
 - a. Alsace-Lorraine returned to France.
 - b. German army limited to 100,000.
 - c. Germany to pay war reparations.
 4. Separate peace treaties were concluded with the other defeated powers.
 5. The Ottoman Empire was broken up and Britain and France expanded their power in the Middle East.
 6. The Balfour Declaration of November 1917 declared that Britain favored a "National Home for the Jewish People" in Palestine.
 - D. American Rejection of the Versailles Treaty
 1. The U.S. Senate rejected the Treaty of Versailles.
 2. Republicans led by Senator Henry Cabot Lodge disliked the League of Nations' power to require member states to take collective action against aggression.
 3. The United States refused to back up the peace settlement, leaving France to face Germany alone.

Glossary

Army Order No. 1	a radical order of the Petrograd soviet that stripped officers of their authority and placed power in the hands of elected committees of common soldiers.
Balfour Declaration	a 1917 British mandate that declared British support of a National Home for the Jewish People in Palestine
Bolsheviks	majority group, Lenins camp of the Russian party of Marxian socialism.

Cheka	the re-established tsarist secret police, which hunted down and executed thousands of real or suspected foes, sowing fear and silencing opposition.
Constituent Assembly	a freely elected assembly promised by the Bolsheviks, but permanently disbanded after one day under Lenins orders after the Bolsheviks won less than one fourth of the elected delegates.
League of Nations	a permanent international organization established during the peace conference in Paris in January 1919, designed to protect member states from aggression and avert future wars.
Lusitania	the British passenger liner sunk by a German submarine that claimed 1,000 lives.
Petrograd Soviet	a huge, fluctuating mass meeting of two thousand to three thousand workers, soldiers and socialist intellectuals, modeled on the revolutionary soviets of 1905.
Three Emperors League	a conservative alliance which linked the monarchs of Austria-Hungary, Germany and Russia against radical movements.
total war	in each country during the First World War, a government of national unity which began to plan and control economic and social life in order to make the greatest possible military effort.
Treaty of Versailles	treaty by which Germanys army was limited to 100,000 men and Germany was declared responsible for the war and had therefore to pay reparations equal to all civilian damages caused by the war.
trench warfare	fighting behind rows of trenches, mines and barbed wire, the cost in lives was staggering and the gains in territory minimal.
Triple Entente	Alliance of Great Britain, and France, and Russia in the First World War. (p. 894)
war communism	the application of the total war concept to a civil conflict, the Bolsheviks seized grain from peasants, introduced rationing, nationalized all banks and industry, and required everyone to work.
War Raw Materials Board	masterminded by Walter Rathenau, set up by the German government to ration and distribute raw materials.

Chapter 28 The Age of Anxiety

Learning Objectives

After reading and studying this chapter you should be able to

- Discuss the impact of the Lost Peace of 1919.
- Explain the political climate in Germany and France during the 1920s.
- Discuss why people were alienated after the First World War and how the postwar alienation was reflected in the arts, psychology, philosophy, and literature.
- Discuss the causes and consequences of the Great Depression

Chapter Outlines

Chapter 28: The Age of Anxiety

- I. Uncertainty in Modern Thought
 - A. Modern Philosophy
 1. Before World War I Friedrich Nietzsche proclaimed that the optimistic Christian order of the West was obsolete, and that it stifled creativity and excellence. He called for superior individuals to recognize the emptiness of social convention and the meaninglessness of individual life.
 2. The Frenchman Henri Bergson argued that immediate experience and intuition were at least as important as rational thinking and science.
 3. Georges Sorel described Marxian socialism as an inspiring religion, not a scientific truth. He believed that after the workers' revolution a small revolutionary elite would have to run society.
 4. World War I accelerated change in philosophical thought. Change took two main directions.
 5. In English-speaking countries logical empiricism dominated.
 - a. Ludwig Wittgenstein reduced philosophy to the study of language, arguing that philosophers could not make meaningful statements about God, freedom, morality, and so on.
 6. On the Continent existentialism dominated.
 - a. Existentialists generally were atheists, but they sought moral values in a world of terror and uncertainty.
 - b. Jean-Paul Sartre argued that human beings are forced to define themselves by their choices. If they do so consciously, they can overcome life's meaninglessness.
 - c. Existentialism first gained popularity in Germany in the 1920s as Martin Heidegger and Karl Jaspers attracted followers.
 - d. Existentialism flowered during and right after World War II. The existentialists Sartre and Albert Camus were both active in the French resistance against Hitler.
 - B. The Revival of Christianity
 1. Loss of faith in human reason and progress led to renewed interest in Christianity.
 2. Among the theologians and thinkers who turned toward faith in God as the only answer to the loneliness and anxiety of the world after the Great War were Karl Barth, Gabriel Marcel, T. S. Eliot, W. H. Auden, Evelyn Waugh, Aldous Huxley, Max Planck, and many others.
 - C. The New Physics
 1. The research of Marie Curie and Max Planck showed that atoms were not simple hard balls.

2. Albert Einstein undermined Newtonian physics by postulating the equivalence of mass and energy and by demonstrating that space and time are relative to the viewpoint of the observer.
 3. Werner Heisenberg hypothesized that it was impossible to know precisely the position and speed of an individual electron.
 4. The stable, rational world of Newtonian physics dissolved into a universe of tendencies and probabilities.
- D. Freudian Psychology
1. Prior to Freud most professional psychologists believed that human behavior was the result of rational calculation by the conscious mind.
 2. Beginning in the late 1880s, Sigmund Freud argued that unconscious and instinctual drives were important factors in determining human behavior.
 3. After 1918 Freudian psychology was popularized in the U.S. and Europe.
- E. Twentieth-Century Literature
1. Nineteenth-century authors had written typically as all-knowing narrators describing characters and their relationships.
 2. In the early twentieth century authors such as Marcel Proust, Virginia Woolf, William Faulkner, and James Joyce wrote from the point of view of a single, confused individual or multiple individuals.
- II. Modern Art and Music
- A. Architecture and Design
1. From the 1890s onward, architects in Europe and the U.S. pioneered new building styles that stressed functionalism and efficiency of design and used cheap steel and reinforced concrete.
 2. In Germany the Bauhaus school of architecture developed this trend in the 1920s and 1930s.
- B. Modern Painting
1. Modern painting developed as a reaction to the "superrealism" of Impressionism.
 2. After 1905 art became increasingly nonrepresentational/abstract.
 3. Modern art began by painting real objects but with primary attention to the arrangement of color, line, and form (Cézanne, Picasso).
 4. It developed toward the representation of pure form without reference to real objects (Kandinsky) and to attacks on all accepted conventions of art and behavior (the surrealists and the Dadaists).
- C. Modern Music
1. Composers moved in the direction of dissonance and entirely atonal music without recognizable harmonies (Schönberg).
- III. Movies and Radio
- A. Movies
1. Movies became a form of mass entertainment that replaced traditional arts and amusement for rural people.
 2. By the 1930s, movies were weekly entertainment for much of the population in Europe and North America.
- B. Radio
1. Radio became commercially viable in the 1920s.
 2. By the late 1930s, most households in Britain and Germany had inexpensive individual sets.
 3. Radio was an extremely powerful outlet for political propaganda.
- IV. The Search for Peace and Political Stability
- A. Germany and the Western Powers
1. After Versailles the British were ready for conciliation with Germany, while the French took a hard line.
 2. In April 1921 the Allied reparations commission ordered Germany to pay huge reparations.

3. In 1922 the German (Weimar) Republic refused to pay, prompting Franco-Belgian occupation of the Ruhr. As the German government printed money to pay striking Ruhr workers unemployment benefits, runaway inflation destroyed the savings of retirees and the middle class.
 4. The Dawes Plan stabilized the situation, cutting reparations and providing private American loans to pay for what remained.
- B. Hope in Foreign Affairs, 1924–1929
1. Agreements signed among European nations at Locarno, Switzerland, in 1925 gave Europeans a sense of growing international security.
- C. Hope in Democratic Government
1. After 1923, democracy seemed to take root in Weimar Germany.
 2. In Britain, the rise of the Labour party and passage of welfare measures guaranteed social peace and maintained relative equality among the classes.
- V. The Great Depression, 1929-1939
- A. The Economic Crisis
1. In the late 1920s, American investment in the stock market boomed as direct investment in factories, farms, equipment, and so on fell.
 2. Much of the stock market investment was “on margin”; that is, bought with loans. As the stock market began to fall in October 1929, investors began a mass sell-off which caused the market to collapse.
 3. Recall of private loans by American banks caused the world banking system to fall apart.
 4. The financial crisis caused world production of goods to fall by more than one-third between 1929 and 1933.
 5. Traditional economic theory did not recognize that government deficit spending to stimulate the economy was a possible solution in this situation.
- B. Mass Unemployment
1. The need for large-scale government spending was tied to mass unemployment.
 2. Unemployment posed grave social problems.
- C. The New Deal in the United States
1. In 1933 newly elected U.S. President Franklin Delano Roosevelt began using government intervention in the economy to fight the Depression.
 2. Roosevelt’s administration passed the Agricultural Adjustment Act that aimed to raise prices and farm income by limiting production.
 3. Roosevelt’s National Recovery Administration was supposed to fix wages and prices for the benefit of all, but the Supreme Court declared it unconstitutional in 1935.
 4. Under Roosevelt, the U.S. government hired many unemployed workers through the Works Progress Administration.
 5. The United States also created a national social security system and legalized collective bargaining by unions in this period.
- D. The Scandinavian Response to the Depression
1. The Swedish Social Democratic party had great success dealing with the Depression by increasing social welfare benefits and using government deficit spending to finance big public works projects.
- E. Recovery and Reform in Britain and France
1. British manufacturing’s reorientation from international to national markets for consumer goods alleviated the worst of the Depression.
 2. In France, political disunity prevented effective action to deal with the economic crisis. The only attempt to do so was that of Leon Blum’s Popular Front government, a coalition of communist and moderate left parties.

Glossary

Bauhaus

a German interdisciplinary school of fine and applied arts that brought together many leading modern architects, designers, and theatrical innovators.

Dawes Plan

the product of the reparations commission headed by Charles G. Dawes that was accepted by Germany, France, and Britain, and reduced Germanys yearly reparations, made payment dependant on German economic prosperity, and granted Germany large loans from the United States to promote recovery.

Existentialism

a highly diverse and even contradictory system of thought that was loosely united in a courageous search for moral values in a world of terror and uncertainty.

Functionalism

the principle that buildings, like industrial products, should serve as well as possible the purpose for which they were made.

Great Depression

a world-wide economic depression from 1929-1933, unique in its severity and duration and with slow and uneven recovery.

id, ego, and superego

Freudian terms to describe human behavior, which Freud saw as basically irrational.

logical empiricism

a revolt against established certainties in philosophy that rejected most of the concerns of traditional philosophy, from the existence of God to the meaning of happiness, as nonsense and hot air.

Mein Kampf

book written by Adolph Hitler, in which he outlines his theories and program for a national socialist revolution.

New Deal

Franklin Delano Roosevelts plan to reform capitalism through forceful government intervention in the economy.

Popular Front

A New Deal-inspired party in France led by Leon Blum that encouraged the union movement and launched a far-reaching program of social reform, complete with paid vacations and a forty-hour workweek.

Social Democrats

a flexible and nonrevolutionary socialist government in Scandinavia that grew out of a strong tradition of cooperative community action. In the 1920s, it passed important social reform legislation for both peasants and workers, gained practical administrative experience, and developed a unique kind of socialism.

stream-of-consciousness technique

literary technique, used by James Joyce and others, using interior monologue to explore the human psyche.

Chapter 29

Dictatorships and the Second World War

Learning Objectives

After reading and studying this chapter you should be able to

- Describe conservative and radical (totalitarian) dictatorship. How are they similar and how are they different?
- Explain how unsolved problems that lingered after the First World War helped ignite another worldwide conflict.
- Compare and contrast political, social, and economic events in Mussolini's Italy, Stalin's Russia, and Hitler's Germany.
- Discuss the origins of the Second World War and how the Allies were able to defeat Nazi Germany and the Axis powers in this conflict.

Chapter Outlines

Chapter 29: Dictatorships and the Second World War

I. Authoritarian States

A. Conservative Authoritarianism

1. Traditional authoritarian governments aimed to preserve their power and the status quo using repressive measures. They did not seek to control the daily lives of their subjects.
2. After World War I this kind of authoritarian government revived.
 - a. In the eastern part of Europe all states except Czechoslovakia were more or less authoritarian by 1938.
 - b. Spain and Portugal were also authoritarian dictatorships.
 - c. Large landowners and the Church were still powerful in these areas. They were the bulwarks of authoritarian regimes.

B. Radical Totalitarian Dictatorships

1. In the Soviet Union, Germany, and to some extent in Italy a new type of regime emerged by the 1930s.
2. By the 1930s British, American, and German commentators were using the word totalitarian to describe these regimes' subordination of all institutions and classes to the state's aims.
3. Totalitarian states used modern technology to achieve complete political power. The state also attempted to control economic, social, intellectual, and cultural life.
4. Totalitarian states were a radical revolt against liberal commitment to rationality, peaceful progress, and economic freedom. They sought to use violence and total mobilization to achieve state goals regardless of individual rights.
5. There were differences between Stalin and Hitler's regimes. The Soviet regime seized all private property for the state and crushed the middle classes. Hitler did not.
6. Comparative studies of fascism across Europe have shown that fascist regimes shared extreme nationalism, antisocialism, alliances with powerful capitalists and landowners, a dynamic and violent leader, and glorification of war and the military.
7. Although recent scholars have emphasized the unique aspects of the Soviet and Nazi regimes, the term totalitarian does serve to emphasize their total claim on the belief and behavior of their subjects.

II. Stalin's Soviet Union

A. From Lenin to Stalin

1. Following the destruction and chaos of the Russian civil war, Lenin's New Economic Policy aimed to restore the economy by ending forced requisitioning of grain and allowing small-scale private business and trade.
2. In the struggle for power following Lenin's incapacitation and death (1924), Joseph Stalin defeated Leon Trotsky because he controlled the Central Committee apparatus, and hence, the party.

B. The Five-Year Plans

1. The "First Five Year Plan" (1928-1932) was in fact a second revolution.
2. Stalin and allies hoped to stamp out NEP's incipient capitalism.
3. They wanted to raise production.
4. They wanted to industrialize and catch up to the West.
5. They aimed to make the peasants pay for this revolution by forcing them onto collective farms.
6. Collectivization became an economic and human disaster, as the regime deported and murdered millions of peasants and stood by as millions of others starved.
7. The industrialization drive was more successful. Soviet industry produced about four times as much in 1937 as in 1928.
8. Labor unions were crushed during the First Five Year Plan.

C. Life and Culture in Soviet Society

1. Living standards for ordinary Soviet subjects, including workers and peasants, declined, at least through 1940.
2. The regime did provide old-age pensions, free medical services, free education, free day care, and full employment.
3. Personal advancement through technical education was possible.
4. Women's rights broadened as divorce and abortion became easier in the 1920s. Some determined women were able to enter the professions or become skilled technical specialists.
5. Women really had to work outside the home because incomes were so low.
6. In the 1930s the party/state took complete control of culture.

D. Stalinist Terror and the Great Purges

1. Dissent within the party against collectivization and the 1934 assassination of party leader Sergei Kirov helped provoke Stalin's massive purge of the party.
2. Ordinary citizens were also caught up in the purge.
3. Millions were deported to forced labor camps and/or executed (1936-1939).

III. Mussolini and Fascism in Italy

A. The Seizure of Power

1. World War I discredited the liberal parliamentary government, as great sacrifices led to little gain at Versailles.
2. The Russian Revolution inspired revolutionary socialists in Italy to begin seizing factories and land.
3. Benito Mussolini, a veteran of World War I and former socialist, organized other veterans into a fascist political movement that used violence to intimidate socialists.
4. The fascists created enough disorder to discredit the liberal regime, then marched on Rome, where King Victor Emmanuel asked Mussolini to form a government.

B. The Regime in Action

1. Under the slogan "everything in the state, nothing outside the state, nothing against the state," Mussolini abolished freedom of the press, fixed

- elections, ruled by decree, arrested political opponents, disbanded independent labor unions, and put fascists in control of the schools.
 - 2. Italy never really became totalitarian, however, because Mussolini never truly controlled big business, the Catholic Church, or the army.
- IV. Hitler and Nazism in Germany
 - A. The Roots of Nazism
 - 1. Hitler developed his political beliefs as a young man living in Vienna. He was strongly influenced by Viennese mayor Karl Luger.
 - 2. Hitler hated Jews and Slavs, and explained everything by supposed machinations of Jewish conspirators. He also espoused the most extreme Social Darwinism.
 - 3. Service in the German (not Austrian) Army in World War I gave Hitler's life meaning. When Germany lost he blamed Jews and Marxists.
 - 4. By 1921 Hitler controlled a small party known as the German Workers' Party, which espoused "national socialism."
 - B. Hitler's Road to Power
 - 1. Imprisoned for a coup attempt against the Weimar Republic, Hitler wrote *Mein Kampf* ("My Struggle"). His basic themes in this work were anti-Semitism, Germany's need to conquer "living space," and the necessity of a leader-dictator (Führer) with unlimited power.
 - C. The Great Depression caused many small businessmen, office workers, artisans, and peasants to vote Nazi. Hitler promised to use government programs to end the economic crisis.
 - D. The Nazi party was dominated by youth and strongly appealed to them.
 - E. After May 1930, German President Hindenburg authorized Chancellor Heinrich Brüning to rule by decree. Brüning's cuts in government spending and in wages and prices worsened the Depression in Germany.
 - F. In January 1933 conservative and nationalist Germans supported Hindenburg's appointment of Hitler as chancellor.
- V. The Nazi State and Society
 - 1. When fire damaged the Reichstag building in spring 1933, Hitler blamed the communists and persuaded President Hindenburg to sign dictatorial emergency decrees.
 - 2. Hitler then convinced the Reichstag to endorse emergency powers for himself and moved to establish a one-party state.
 - 3. The Nazis took over the German bureaucracy, professional organizations, publishing houses, and universities.
 - 4. The Nazis persecuted Jews, driving them from their jobs and from public life, and destroying their property.
- VI. Hitler's Popularity
 - 0. Military and public works spending improved profits for business and real wages for German workers in the mid-1930s, increasing Hitler's popularity
- VII. Hitler's nationalism remained popular.
- /III. Although Nazi propaganda claimed that Germany was becoming a more egalitarian society, in reality there was little change.
- IX. Resistance to the Nazis first appeared among communists and socialists. Later, Protestant and Catholic churchmen sought to preserve independent religious life. Even later, there were plots against Hitler in the army.

Nazi Expansion and the Second World War

- A. Aggression and Appeasement, 1933-1939
 - 1. Early in his rule, Hitler proclaimed his peaceful intentions but did withdraw from the League of Nations (October 1933).

2. After 1935 British appeasement prevented the formation of a united front against Hitler. When German troops entered the demilitarized Rhineland in March 1936, Britain refused to support French action against them.
 3. Many British conservatives saw Hitler as a bulwark against communism.
 4. In 1935 Mussolini invaded Ethiopia. Hitler supported him and formed an alliance. From 1936, the Fascists and Nazis supported Francisco Franco's fascist movement against the Spanish republic.
 5. In 1938 Hitler occupied Austria and the Sudetenland, with British approval.
 6. In 1939 he took all of Czechoslovakia and then demanded territory from Poland. Britain and France promised to fight should he invade Poland.
 7. After concluding an alliance with the Soviet Union to divide Poland, Hitler invaded on September 1, 1939. Britain and France soon declared war.
- B. Hitler's Empire, 1939-1942
1. After overrunning Poland with new "lightning warfare" that used tanks and aircraft to break enemy lines, the German army conquered Denmark, Norway, Holland, Belgium, and France in the spring and summer of 1940.
 2. British victory in the epic air battle known as the "Battle of Britain" prevented German invasion of the home islands (fall 1940).
 3. In April 1941 Hitler conquered Greece and Yugoslavia and subjugated the entire Balkans.
 4. In June the German Army attacked the U.S.S.R., in accordance with Hitler's own dream of "living space" in the East.
 5. In the winter of 1941-1942 the Soviets stopped the German advance just outside Moscow.
 6. In December 1941, Japan launched a surprise attack on the United States, bringing America into the war.
 7. The Nazi empire was a brutal machine of mass murder.
 - a. All conquered areas were heavily taxed and exploited. Many had to provide forced labor to Germany.
 - b. German rule in the occupied East was most brutal. Four out of five Soviet POWs died while incarcerated. Peasants were displaced and often murdered.
 - c. The special target of Nazi murder was the Jews. The Nazis, with the help of the German war machine, attempted to kill off all the Jews of Europe. The Nazis killed about 6 million Jews.
- C. The Grand Alliance
1. After the Japanese attack on the U.S. in December 1941 Britain, the U.S., and the U.S.S.R. found themselves allied. Britain and the U.S. decided to focus on defeating Germany before Japan.
 2. The economic strength of this Grand Alliance was tremendous.
 - a. The U.S. had immense industrial resources and could draw on Latin American raw materials.
 - b. Britain had a strong, fully mobilized economy.
 - c. The Soviets managed to move many of their factories east to the Ural Mountains to maintain war production.
 3. The Alliance also had the help of resisters to the Nazis inside Europe.
- D. The Tide of Battle
1. In late 1942 the tide of war turned in the Soviet Union, North Africa, and the Pacific.
 1. The Soviets surrounded and destroyed the German Sixth Army at Stalingrad.
 2. In the Pacific the United States won a major naval victory in June 1942 (Midway) and a major land victory on the island of Guadalcanal.
 3. By the spring of 1943 the Allies had driven the Germans and Italians from North Africa.

Glossary

Appeasement

British policy that granted Hitler everything he could reasonably want (and more) in order to avoid war.

Black Shirts

a private army under Mussolini who destroyed socialist newspapers, union halls, and Socialist party headquarters, eventually pushing Socialists out of the city governments of Northern Italy.

Collectivization

the forcible consolidation of individual peasant farms into large, state-controlled enterprises.

Enabling Act

act pushed through the Reichstag by the Nazis which gave Hitler absolute dictatorial power for four years.

Europe first

American policy that promised huge military aid and helped solidify the anti-Hitler coalition.

Fascism

a movement characterized by extreme, often expansionist nationalism, an antisocialism aimed at destroying working-class movements, alliances with powerful capitalists and landowners, a dynamic and violent leader, and glorification of war and the military.

five-year plan

launched by Stalin and termed revolution from above, the ultimate goal of the plans was to generate new attitudes, new loyalties, and a new socialist humanity.

Kulaks

better-off peasants who were stripped under Stalin of land and livestock. They were generally not permitted to join the collective farms and many of them starved or were deported to force-labor camps for re-education.

Lateran Agreement

a 1929 agreement that recognized the Vatican as a tiny independent state, with Mussolini agreeing to give the church heavy financial support. In turn, the pope expressed his satisfaction and urged Italians to support Mussolini's government.

Nazism

a movement born of extreme nationalism and racism and dominated by Adolph Hitler for as long as it lasted.

New Economic Policy (NEP)

Lenin's policy to re-establish limited economic freedom in an attempt to rebuild agriculture and industry in the face of economic disintegration.

New Order

Hitler's program based on the guiding principle of racial imperialism, which gave preferential treatment to the Nordic peoples. The French, an inferior Latin people, occupied a middle position. Slavs in the conquered territories to the east were treated with harsh hatred as subhumans.

Totalitarianism

a dictatorship that exercises unprecedented control over the masses and seeks to mobilize them for action.

Chapter 30

Cold War Conflicts and Social Transformations, 1945-1985

Learning Objectives

After reading and studying this chapter you should be able to

- Discuss the causes of the cold war.
- Explain how and why western Europe and the Soviet Union recovered from the Second World War and which was more successful.
- Describe how people lived in the postwar era and explain why a revolutionary surge built and broke in the 1960s.
- Explain the changing nature of global economic and international relations during the cold war, including decolonization.
- Discuss the challenges of the later cold war and the changing nature of soviet policy.

Chapter Outlines

Chapter 30: Cold War Conflicts and Social Transformations, 1945-1985

- I. The Division of Europe
 - A. Origins of the Cold War
 1. At conferences in Teheran in late 1943 and Yalta in early 1945 Stalin, Churchill, and Roosevelt agreed to divide Germany along a north-south line, leaving Soviet troops to liberate eastern Europe.
 2. According to the Yalta agreements, eastern European governments were to be freely elected but pro-Russian.
 3. At Potsdam, new U.S. President Harry Truman insisted on immediate free elections in eastern Europe; Stalin refused. This was the origin of the Cold War.
 - B. West Versus East
 1. In May 1945 Truman cut off aid to the U.S.S.R.
 2. In October he declared that the U.S. would not recognize governments established by force against the will of their people.
 3. In the meantime, Soviet agents used French and Italian Communist parties to agitate against "American plots" to take over Europe.
 4. The U.S.S.R. also put pressure on Iran, Turkey, and Greece. Along with the Chinese civil war, this convinced Americans that Stalin was bent on exporting communism by subversion throughout the world.
 5. U.S. response was the "Truman Doctrine," aimed at containing communism. President Truman asked Congress for and obtained military aid to Greece and Turkey.
 6. Stalin's blockade failed to force West Berlin into submission as the U.S. and Britain airlifted supplies into the city.
 7. In 1949 the U.S. led the formation of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization; eventually, the U.S.S.R. organized its eastern European satellites into the Warsaw Pact.
 8. Communist victory in the Chinese civil war followed by the Korean War only deepened Americans' fear of a communist conspiracy to dominate the globe.
- II. The Western Renaissance, 1945-1968
 - A. The Postwar Challenge
 1. In politics, Catholic "Christian Democratic" parties dedicated to democratic ideals dominated Italy and West Germany in the postwar generation. Both

- socialists and Christian Democrats maintained or expanded European welfare states.
 - 2. U.S. military protection and American Marshall Plan financial aid also helped western Europe to recover from the war.
 - 3. France combined flexible government planning with a "mixed" economy of public and private ownership to achieve high growth rates.
 - 4. Western European nations abandoned protectionism to create a large "Common Market" that certainly stimulated economic growth.
 - B. Toward European Unity
 - 1. Europe made progress toward economic unity (the "Common Market" was created in 1957) but not political unity.
 - C. Decolonization
 - 1. The most basic cause of imperial collapse was the rising demand of Asian and African peoples for national self-determination, racial equality, and personal dignity.
 - 2. The power difference between rulers and ruled in European colonies greatly declined after 1945.
 - 3. Opponents of imperialism gained influence in postwar Europe.
 - 4. India played a pivotal role in decolonization.
 - 5. India's nationalism drew on Western parliamentary liberalism.
 - 6. Chinese nationalism developed in the framework of Marxist-Leninist ideology.
 - 7. Most Asian countries followed the pattern of either India or China.
 - 8. In the Middle East, the movement toward political independence continued after World War II.
 - 9. The establishment of a Jewish state in Palestine led to decades of conflict between Israelis and the Arab states and between Israelis and Palestinians.
 - 10. Gamal Abdel Nasser led a nationalist revolution in Egypt.
 - 11. Nasser's success inspired nationalists in Algeria.
 - 12. In much of Africa south of the Sahara, decolonization proceeded much more smoothly.
 - 13. European countries increased their economic and cultural ties with former African colonies in the 1960s and 1970s.
 - D. America's Civil Rights Revolution
 - 1. In the 1950s and 1960s blacks and their liberal allies in the Democratic party challenged and reversed discriminatory laws and practices that had made African Americans second-class citizens.
 - 2. After Lyndon Johnson's landslide victory in the 1964 presidential election, Congress and the administration set up a social welfare system and antipoverty program similar to the social programs of European states.
- III. Soviet Eastern Europe, 1945-1968
 - A. Stalin's Last Years, 1945-1953
 - 1. Following 1945, Stalin returned the U.S.S.R. to a rigid dictatorship, focusing investment on heavy industry, reestablishing tight control of culture, and purging millions of subjects.
 - 2. Stalin exported his system, including forced-draft industrialization and collectivization, to the countries of Eastern Europe. Among East European communist leaders, only Josip Broz Tito in Yugoslavia maintained independence from Stalin.
 - B. Reform and De-Stalinization, 1953-1964
 - 1. Stalin's successor as party leader, Nikita Khrushchev, launched a program of "liberalization" or "de-Stalinization."
 - a. He denounced Stalin's Great Purges to the 20th Party Congress.
 - b. He shifted investment somewhat from heavy industry to consumer goods and agriculture.

- c. De-Stalinization created a literary ferment as authors such as Boris Pasternak and Aleksandr Solzhenitsyn wrote about the terror and concentration camps of the Stalin years.
 - d. Khrushchev declared that "peaceful coexistence" with the capitalist West was possible. He let occupied Austria become truly independent in 1955.
 - e. Khrushchev's reforms stimulated rebellion in the East European satellites.
 - f. In 1956 riots in Poland led to formation of a new government, which won more autonomy from the U.S.S.R.
 - g. In Hungary, a reformist government fell to Soviet invasion after promising free elections and leaving the Warsaw Pact (1956).
 - C. The End of Reform
 - 1. In 1964 party leaders deposed Khrushchev and replaced him with Leonid Brezhnev. Khrushchev's liberal policies were a threat to the party's monopoly on political power.
 - 2. One reason Khrushchev fell was apparent Soviet humiliation in the Cuban missile crisis, when an American naval blockade of Cuba forced Khrushchev to remove Soviet missiles from the island.
 - 3. Brezhnev's "neo-Stalinist" direction was confirmed in 1968, when the Soviet Union intervened militarily in Czechoslovakia to stop Communist party leader Alexander Dubcek's reforms.
- IV. Postwar Social Transformations, 1945-1968
 - A. Science and Technology
 - 1. During World War II scientists in the major combatant powers generally worked for the state to create or improve weapons.
 - 2. The development of the atomic bomb by the U.S. was the most dramatic result of this development.
 - 3. World War II inspired a new model for science: combining theoretical work with sophisticated engineering and massive government support. This model became known to some as "Big Science."
 - 4. After 1945 about one-quarter of all men and women trained in science or engineering in the West worked full-time to produce weapons.
 - 5. One result was the space race between the U.S.S.R. and the U.S., culminating in the U.S. landing men on the moon in 1969.
 - 6. The number of scientists in Western societies escalated rapidly after 1945. They were highly specialized and had to work in large, bureaucratic organizations.
 - B. The Changing Class Structure
 - 1. After World War II a new middle class of managers and experts working for huge organizations replaced the traditional middle class of small property owners, professionals, and independent businessmen.
 - 2. Members of this new middle class often came from working-class backgrounds.
 - 3. The new middle class was based on specialized skills and high levels of education, and was more insecure, open, and democratic than the old one.
 - 4. There was a mass exodus from farms to the cities in Europe. White-collar and service industry jobs increased in number.
 - 5. More social security benefits, such as national health care systems, established a humane floor of well-being.
 - 6. Government-sponsored pension programs made people more willing to go into debt and purchase newly available and cheap consumer products cars, televisions, and so on and to travel.
 - C. New Roles for Women
 - 1. From the late nineteenth century onward improved diet, higher incomes, the use of contraception, and urbanization caused birthrates to drop.

2. Consequently, married women's whole lives were no longer occupied with child raising.
 3. Three factors helped women get into the workforce in the West after World War II.
 - a. The postwar economic boom.
 - b. The shift to white-collar and service industries, in which women had already been employed for generations.
 - c. Young women gained access to the expanding postwar education system.
 4. The trend toward employment of women went furthest in communist eastern Europe.
 5. For many women, entering the workforce meant an exhausting "double day" of work and domestic duties.
 6. As women came to expect to work for most of their lives, they were less willing to accept lower pay, sexism, and discrimination in the workplace.
- D. Youth and the Counterculture
1. Economic prosperity, a more democratic class structure, and the postwar "baby boom" helped create a distinctive youth culture.
 2. By the late 1950s in certain U.S. urban neighborhoods, the young fashioned a subculture that combined leftist politics, experimentation with drugs and communal living, and new artistic styles.
 3. Greater sexual freedom was part of the new youth culture, as many couples chose to live together without marrying.
 4. Several factors contributed to the emergence of international youth culture in the 1960s.
 - a. Mass communications and youth travel
 - b. Postwar baby boom
 - c. Prosperity and greater equality meant that youth had more purchasing power.
 - d. Prosperity also meant that young job seekers were in demand and could behave with relative freedom.
 5. Youth culture and counterculture fused in the late 1960s in opposition to middle-class conformity and the perceived excesses of Western imperialism^¾particularly to the Vietnam War.
 6. Expanding university populations in Europe and the U.S., together with attendant stresses, helped catalyze the student rebellions of 1968 in France and elsewhere.
- V. Conflict and Challenge in the Late Cold War, 1968-1985
- A. The United States and Vietnam
1. After French withdrawal, the United States became heavily involved in Vietnam due to the policy of containment of communism.
 2. President Lyndon Johnson greatly expanded American involvement.
 3. American strategy was to escalate the war through bombing of North Vietnam, insertion of U.S. troops in the South, and military aid to the South. The U.S. did not want to escalate so much as to provoke Soviet or Chinese intervention, however, and so never invaded or blockaded the North.
 4. Criticism of the war grew rapidly in the United States, beginning on college campuses.
 5. After the communist Tet Offensive against South Vietnamese cities, Johnson called for negotiations with the North and withdrew from the presidential election.
 6. Johnson's successor, Richard Nixon, gradually pulled out of Vietnam. In 1972 he reached a rapprochement with communist China, and in 1973 he signed a peace agreement with the North Vietnamese.

7. In the Watergate scandal Nixon was eventually fingered for ordering an illegal break-in to Democratic party headquarters in Washington, D.C. In 1974 he resigned the presidency.
- B. Détente or Cold War?
1. Détente began with West German chancellor Willy Brandt's policy of improving relations with East Germany and eastern Europe in general (beginning in December 1970).
 2. Détente peaked when the U.S., Canada, and most European nations signed the Helsinki Accords, accepting existing political frontiers and guaranteeing human rights and political freedoms.
 3. The Brezhnev regime in the Soviet Union ignored the Helsinki Accords in practice, and in 1979 Soviet invasion of Afghanistan ended détente.
 4. The U.S. responded with a massive military buildup, begun by President Jimmy Carter and continued by the more conservative Ronald Reagan.
- C. The Women's Movement
1. In the 1970s a broad-based feminist movement that aimed at securing gender equality through political action emerged in Europe and the U.S.
 2. One work that influenced the movement strongly was Simone de Beauvoir's *The Second Sex* (1949).
 3. Betty Friedan founded the National Organization of Women in the United States in 1966 to press for women's rights.
 4. The new women's movements aimed to change laws regarding women. They pressed for equal pay for equal work, affordable day care, the right to divorce (in Catholic countries), legalized abortion, and protection from rape and physical abuse.
 5. The achievements of the women's movements encouraged mobilization by other groups that were frequent targets of discrimination and harassment, including the disabled, and gay and lesbian men and women.
- D. The Troubled Economy
1. From the early 1970s through the middle 1980s Western economies stagnated. Causes were multiple.
 - a. In heavy foreign debt, the United States went off the gold standard in 1971.
 - b. The oil embargo by the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries following the Arab-Israeli War of 1973 raised crude oil prices by four times.
 - c. The Iranian Revolution of 1979 caused Iranian oil production to collapse and again raised oil prices.
- E. Society in a Time of Economic Uncertainty
1. The welfare states of the West cushioned the material impact of economic stagnation. The impact of the recession was rather psychological—a more pessimistic mood.
 2. In the 1980s, a reaction to the rapid growth of government spending set in, particularly in Britain. In the United States, President Ronald Reagan cut taxes in 1981 but did not cut the federal budget. A huge deficit resulted.
 3. Economic troubles made university students much more practical and less idealistic than the students of the 1960s.

Glossary

Big Science

the combining of theoretical work with sophisticated engineering in a large organization in order to attack extremely difficult problems.

Big Three

Russia, the United States, and England.

Brezhnev Doctrine	doctrine created after the Soviet invasion of Czechoslovakia in 1968, according to which the Soviet Union and its allies had the right to intervene in any socialist country whenever they saw the need.
Christian Democrats	progressive Catholics and revitalized Catholic political parties that became influential after the Second World War.
cold war	the period after World War II during which the world was politically divided between Western/democratic and Eastern/communist nations.
Common Market	the European Economic Community, created by the six nations of the Coal and Steel Community in 1957.
Decolonization	the reversal of Europe's overseas expansion caused by the rising demand of Asian and African peoples for national self-determination, racial equality, and personal dignity.
de-Stalinization	the liberalization of the post-Stalin Soviet Union, led by reformer Nikita Khrushchev.
Détente	the progressive piecemeal relaxation of cold war tensions.
Marshall Plan	Secretary of State George C. Marshall's plan of economic aid to Europe to help it rebuild, which Stalin refused for all of Eastern Europe.
misery index	the combined rates of inflation and unemployment.
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organization, an anti-Soviet military alliance of Western governments.
Neocolonialism	a system designed to perpetuate Western economic domination and undermine the promise of political independence, thereby extending to Africa (and much of Asia) the economic subordination that the United States had established in Latin America in the nineteenth century.
OPEC	the Arab-led Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries.
Watergate	scandal in which Nixon's assistants broke into the Democratic Party headquarters in July 1972.

Chapter 31

Revolution, Rebuilding, and New Challenges: 1985 to the Present

Learning Objectives

After reading and studying this chapter you should be able to

- Describe why the efforts to reform the communist system failed and why the anticommunist revolutions succeeded.
- Describe why and how the Soviet Union disintegrated and disappeared and the changes the end of the cold war brought to Warsaw Pact countries (including East Germany).
- Discuss the subsequent growth in European unity and the formation of the European Union and European Constitution.
- Describe the common developments and challenges facing Europe in the 1990s including the problems in the former Yugoslavia.
- Describe why Europe is facing a demographic decline and a massive immigration invasion. What are the consequences of these developments?
- Explain why many Europeans have adopted the idea of expanded protection of human rights in Europe and the world.
- Discuss some of the major challenges facing the West in the twenty-first century and how the situation at the beginning of the new millennia has affected relations between Europe and the United States.

Chapter Outlines

Chapter 31: Revolution, Rebuilding, and New Challenges: 1985 to the Present

- I. The Decline of Communism in Eastern Europe
 - A. The Soviet Union to 1985
 1. The 1968 invasion of Czechoslovakia showed Soviet leaders were ready to use force to maintain the Soviet Empire.
 2. At the same time, rising living standards and relatively low levels of outright terror kept the Soviet domestic situation stable.
 3. Russian nationalism was also a key stabilizing factor in Brezhnev's U.S.S.R.
 4. Revolutionary social changes were underway in Russia, however.
 1. Urbanization continued.
 2. The number of highly trained scientists, managers, and specialists increased four times between 1960 and 1985.
 3. Education and freedom for experts to explore their specializations led to the growth of "public opinion" in Russia.
 - B. Solidarity in Poland
 1. In 1956 the Soviets had to back off from collectivization in Poland after riots.
 2. In 1970 worker unrest led Polish communist leaders to borrow massively from the West.
 3. The "oil shock" of 1973 created a severe recession in Poland.
 4. In 1978 the Pole Karol Wojtyla was elected Pope.
 5. In 1980 massive strikes by Polish workers forced Polish authorities to legalize noncommunist trade unions.
 6. The new trade union, "Solidarity," became a nation-wide organization.
 7. In December 1981, communist leader Wojciech Jaruzelski imposed martial law and arrested Solidarity leaders.
 8. Solidarity survived underground and the regime never imposed full-scale terror.

- C. Gorbachev's Reforms in the Soviet Union
 1. When he became head of the Soviet Communist party in 1985, Mikhail Gorbachev realized the U.S.S.R. was falling behind Western capitalism and technology. He aimed to revitalize Soviet communism.
 2. Gorbachev began his tenure with attacks on alcoholism and bureaucratic corruption.
 3. He moved on to economic decentralization (lifting some price controls, legalizing cooperatives), encouragement of limited criticism of government, and eventually free elections.
 4. Democratization produced demands for independence by non-Russian minorities.
 5. In foreign affairs, Gorbachev withdrew troops from Afghanistan and aimed to end the arms race with the United States.
- II. The Revolutions of 1989
 - A. The Collapse of Communism in Eastern Europe
 1. In 1989 Solidarity forced Polish leaders to run free elections to a plurality of the seats in the parliament.
 2. In the subsequent election the Communists lost control of the parliament. Solidarity leader Lech Walesa became president of Poland.
 3. The new government applied "shock therapy" to the economy, ending state planning and price controls.
 4. Hungary, East Germany, and Czechoslovakia followed Poland out of the Communist orbit in late 1989.
 5. In Romania, dictator Nicolae Ceausescu resisted revolution and was captured and executed.
 - B. The Disintegration of the Soviet Union
 1. In February 1990 the Communist party lost local elections all over the U.S.S.R.
 2. In August 1991 hardline communist leaders opposed to change attempted a coup against Gorbachev. Russian Federation president Boris Yeltsin rallied the Moscow populace and some of the armed forces successfully against the coup.
 3. An anti-communist revolution swept the Soviet Union as the constituent republics, including Russia, declared independence. The Soviet Union ceased to exist on December 25, 1991.
 - C. German Unification and the End of the Cold War
 1. In the summer of 1990, German reunification was negotiated.
 2. Arms cuts in Europe, the U.S., and the Soviet Union followed.
 3. In 1991 Soviet loss of confidence and superpower status enabled the U.S. to fight and defeat Iraq following Iraqi leader Saddam Hussein's occupation of Kuwait.
- III. Building a New Europe in the 1990s
 - A. Common Patterns and Problems
 1. Most European leaders in the 1990s accepted the neoliberal vision of capitalist development.
 2. In doing so, Europeans followed the lead of the "victorious" United States (victorious in the Cold War) and the new rules of the global economy.
 3. The computer and electronics revolution helped motivate the move to a global economy.
 4. Defenders of the achievements of Western welfare states resisted these changes, especially in France and Germany, where socialist parties and labor unions remained strong.
 5. Nearly all European countries undertook truly competitive elections and guaranteed basic civil liberties.
 6. American scholar Francis Fukuyama claimed that "the end of history" had arrived. Liberal democracy had bested Nazism and then communism.

7. Nationalist resurgence led to tragedy and bloodshed, as in Yugoslavia.
- B. Recasting Russia
1. In January 1992, the Yeltsin government followed Poland in undertaking "shock therapy" for the economy, ending price controls and rapidly privatizing industry.
 2. Prices increased rapidly and production fell, possibly by 50 percent.
 3. The existence of de facto monopolies, popular perceptions of business as crime, and the "mafia" culture of the managerial elite undermined the reforms.
 4. Much of the old communist elite perpetuated its power as new business owners and organized crime thrived.
 5. Ordinary people lost their savings and life expectancy declined as living standards fell.
 6. The new constitution approved in 1993 gave the president (Yeltsin) a great deal of power, but free elections took place in 1996 and 2000.
 7. Russian military spending declined and Russia maintained good relations with foreign countries.
 8. In 1994 Yeltsin tried to crush an independence movement in the autonomous republic of Chechnya, and failed. The war continues as of this writing.
- C. Progress and Tragedy in Eastern Europe
1. In Poland, Czechoslovakia, and Hungary economic and democratic reforms were relatively successful.
 2. In 1993, Czechoslovakia split peacefully into the Czech Republic and Slovakia.
 3. Poland, Hungary, and the Czech Republic joined NATO in 1997.
 4. Tragedy struck in Yugoslavia.
 - a. After Tito's death in 1980, power devolved to the constituent republics of Yugoslavia.
 - b. Economic decline and revived memory of World War II massacres inspired by ethnic hatred caused more ethnic division.
 - c. In 1991, Croatia and Slovenia declared their independence and defended it from Serbia, led by President Slobodan Milosevic.
 - d. In 1992, civil war spread to Bosnia-Herzegovina, where the Serbs (30 percent of the population) refused to live under Bosnian Muslim rule.
 - e. The ensuing civil war involved rape, murder of civilians, and widespread use of concentration camps.
 - f. In 1995, intervention by NATO air forces against the Bosnian Serbs led to a negotiated settlement dividing Bosnia between Serbs and Bosnians.
 - g. Ethnic conflict broke out in Kosovo as Albanians strove for independence and Serbs began a campaign of intimidation and ethnic cleansing.
 - h. In March 1999, NATO began bombing Yugoslavia, forcing the Serbs to withdraw from Kosovo (after expelling 750,000 Albanians).
 - i. In July 2001, Serbs voted Milosevic out of office and the new Serb government turned him over to the War Crimes Tribunal in the Netherlands.
- D. Unity and Identity in Western Europe
1. In 1993, members of the European Community created a single market, to be known as the European Union.
 2. In 1991, negotiators at Maastricht, in Holland, agreed on a plan for monetary unification of Europe by 1999.
 3. Western European elites tended to support Maastricht because monetary unification would enable Europeans to solve difficult economic problems,

and potential political unification would enable them to deal with the U.S. on equal terms.

4. Ordinary people often opposed monetary union, because it undermined popular sovereignty through national politics and required cuts in social benefits. Popular votes on joining the union were often close.

IV. New Challenges in the Twenty-first Century

A. The Prospect of Population Decline

1. European birthrates continue to drop.
2. If the decline continues, it could undermine the social welfare system and the economy.
3. Explanations for population decline vary, but changing gender roles are an important factor.

B. The Growth of Immigration

1. The influx of refugees and illegal immigrants into Europe raise new questions about European identity.
2. Until 1973, western Europe drew heavily on North Africa and Turkey for manual laborers. Rising unemployment motivated governments to stop the inflow at that time.
3. In the 1990s, European governments accepted hundreds of thousands of refugees from Yugoslavia, Afghanistan, Iraq, Somalia, Rwanda, and so on.
4. Illegal immigration also increased to perhaps 500,000 annually.
5. Russian organized crime smuggled many people into western Europe.
6. Immigration became a source of political conflict.

C. Promoting Human Rights

1. In the 1990s European intellectuals began to see promotion of human rights and peace in poorer lands as a new historic mission.
2. This would require more curbs on the sovereign rights of states.
3. This new mission meant interventions to stop civil wars and prevent tyrannical governments from slaughtering their own people.
4. Europeans condemned the death penalty in the U.S., Saudi Arabia, China, and other countries.
5. European socialist parties won elections throughout the European Union in 2001.

D. The Al-Qaeda Attack of September 11, 2001

1. In the aftermath of September 11, the United States led a military campaign to destroy the al-Qaeda network and the Taliban.
2. Civil war and terrorism have been linked throughout the twentieth century.
3. Beginning in the 1920s, many nationalist movements used terrorism.
4. In the Vietnam War era, far-left tried to use "revolutionary terror" to cripple the Western heartland.
5. The September 11 attacks were part of a third wave of terrorism, one linked to underlying political conflicts and civil war.

E. The West Divided and War in Iraq

1. Western unity dissolved in the face of U.S. efforts to build support for a war against Iraq.
2. President Bush and his advisers began considering the question of overthrowing Saddam Hussein as soon as they took office.
3. Many throughout the United States and Europe had grave doubts about the wisdom of attacking Iraq.
4. American fears of renewed terrorism fueled support for war.
5. Weapons inspectors found no evidence of weapons of mass destruction in Iraq and much of the world argued for continued inspections as an alternative to war.
6. The U.S. invaded Iraq in March 2003 and quickly overwhelmed the Iraqi army.

7. The confident assumption of a peaceful pro-American Iraq shared by administration officials was impaired by serious errors of American judgment.
8. In late June 2004, the United States and Britain proclaimed a "fully sovereign" Iraqi government, headed by an Iraqi exile with close ties to the CIA and the Pentagon.
9. The war split the West because the occupation had gone poorly and the legitimacy of the new government was in doubt.

Glossary

Alliance for Germany

a political party that was set up in East Germany calling for the unification of East and West Germany, which they felt would lead to an economic bonanza in East Germany. In March 1990 they won almost 50 % of the votes in East German parliamentary election thereby beating out the Socialist party.

baby bust

at the opening to the 21 st century, Europe was experiencing falling birthrates that seemed to promise a shrinking and again population in the future.

European Union

the new name as of 1993 for the European Community.

Gdansk Agreement

a working class revolt in the Lenin shipyards of Gdansk that resulted in the workers gaining their revolutionary demands including the right to form free trade unions, freedom of speech, release of political prisoners, and economic reforms.

Glasnost

openness, part of Gorbachevs campaign to tell it like it is marked a break from the past were long banned writers sold millions of copies of their works, and denunciations of Stalin and his terror were standard public discourse.

Globalization

the emergence of a freer global economy; it also refers to the exchange of cultural, political, and religious ideas throughout the world

Great Russians

party leaders that identified themselves with Russian patriotism, stressing their role in saving the country during WWII by protecting it from foreigners; they were leaders within the Communist party in non-Russian republics.

Kosovo Liberation Army (KLA)

formed in 1998 by frustrated Kosovar militants who sought to fight for their independence.

Maastricht treaty

a treaty created in 1991 that set strict financial criteria for joining the proposed monetary union, with it single currency and set 1999 as the start date for its establishment.

new world order

President Bushs vision after the US defeat of Iraqi armies in the Gulf War that would feature the US and a cooperative United Nations working together to impose peace and stability throughout the world.

Paris Accord

a general peace treaty that brought an end to World War II and the cold war that followed it called for a scaling down of all armed forces and the acceptance of all existing borders as legal and valid.

Perestroika

economic restructuring reform implemented by Gorbachev that permitted an easing of government price controls on some goods, more independence for state enterprises, and the setting up of profit-seeking private cooperatives to provide personal services for consumers.

re-Stalinization

referring to the installation of a dictatorship in Russia that was collective rather than personal and where coercion replaced terror and that lasted until Gorbachev in 1985.

shock therapy

the Solidarity-led governments radical take on economic affairs that were designed to make a clean break with state planning and move to market mechanisms and private property.

Solidarity

led by Lech Walesa, this group of workers organized their free and democratic trade union and quickly became the union of a nation with a full-time staff of 40,000 and 9.5 million union members by March 1981.

third way

a plan for East German government supported by East German reform communists who wanted to preserve socialism by making it democratic and responsive to the needs of the people. They advocated going beyond failed Stalinism and capitalism, and called for closer ties, yet not unification, with West Germany.

Velvet Revolution

the moment when communism died in 1989 with an ousting of Communist bosses in only ten days; it grew out of popular demonstrations led by students, intellectuals and a dissident playwright.