

## Chapter 12

### Recovery and Rebirth: The Age of the Renaissance

#### Overview:

The meaning of the word Renaissance is “rebirth.” During 1350 and 1550, many people believed that there was a rebirth of the Greco-Roman civilization. To these people, the time before this rebirth were the middle ages that were dark because of the lack of classical culture. Jacob Burckhardt described the Renaissance as being born in Italy, which is considered the birthplace of the modern world. This world saw “the revival of antiquity, the ‘perfecting of the individual,’ and secularism as its distinguishing features.” There still was a deep religious feeling during this time. It also included continuing economics, politics, and social life in Europe, not a super sudden or dramatic cultural change from the Middle Ages. It was a very urban society that had independent cities. In this urban society, there was a growing secular spirit due to increased wealth that led to “the enjoyment of worldly things.” Mainly, the Renaissance was a time for recovery. This includes recovering from the “Black Death, political disorder, and economic recession.” Along with this recovery was the renewal of culture, especially Greco-Roman culture. People, with the use of politics and art, attempted to reunite with the past in the Classical world. Individualism was revived and was a key feature in the Renaissance. Expressed by Leon Battista Alberti, “Men can do all things if they will,” the idea of self-respect, self worth, and a understanding of the potential of an individual led to the idea that humans are “capable of achievements in many areas of life.” These characteristics were not the case for all Italians, but mainly the wealthy upper class members who only made up a small percentage of the population. This did have an indirect impact on “ordinary people” where intellectual and artistic influences occurred.

During the Renaissance, the economic and social problems in Europe began to improve. In the economy, Italian merchants were succeeding in the Mediterranean and were beginning to expand their trade routes. This led them to a direct connection to England, Venice, and the Netherlands where the merchants ran into the Hanseatic League of merchants, which bumped the Italians to the side. The Hanseatic League was made of North German coastal towns. The formation of commercial and military association created the league. The Hanseatic League continued to grow and expand its trade to many other cities. Northern European trade in “timber, fish, grain, metals, honey, and wines,” was dominated and controlled by the Hanseatic League for almost 200 years. Bruges was made the crossroad in Europe where the Hanseatic merchants came in contact with the Flanders Fleet of Venice, the Italian merchants. The League began a slow decline later due to the inability to compete with “the developing of larger territorial states.” Trade a dramatic recovery from the fourteenth century. A wealthy empire was held by the Italians and did not begin to face competition until the sixteenth century when transatlantic discoveries gave advantage to states that was near the ocean.

Hanseatic League controlled much of Northern European trade.



Economic depression during the fourteenth century had a major impact on manufacturing, especially in the northern Italian states where there were woolen industries. During the fifteenth century, the woolen industries experienced a revival and the cities in Italy had expanded industries into new items. Many important industries during this time were the textile industry that began to face competition from the new industries of printing, mining, and metallurgy. New techniques and machinery helped the development of these industries. Minerals and metals became very important as entrepreneurs were quickly coming up with “large mining operations to produce copper, iron, and silver.” Because of the increased production of iron, weapons and firearms developed more. Florence regains its banking supremacy during the fifteenth century. The city gained a huge contribution from the Medici family. The House of Medici, which expanded into banking, commerce, and real estate, was at one point the “greatest bank in Europe,” where it had expanded all over the continent and even to London. The Medici family also controlled industrial enterprises. They were also bankers for the papacy. Later in the fifteenth century, the Medici bank went on the decline where it eventually was kicked out of France and collapsed.

The social system from the Middle Ages carried over to the Renaissance. The society remained “divided in the three estates: the First Estate, the clergy, whose preeminence was grounded in the belief that people should be guided to spiritual ends; the Second Estate, the nobility, whose privileges were based on the principle that the nobles provided security and justice for society;” and then there was the Third Estate who were the peasants and commoners of towns and cities throughout Europe. During the Renaissance, the social structure changed and adapted, mainly seen in the Second Estate and the Third Estate. During the fourteenth and fifteenth century, nobility became a costly living status and maintaining nobility was getting harder. Many nobles remained, though, and the aristocracy class was beginning restoration by 1500. Although the nobles only made up around 2 to 3 percent of the

population in most European countries, they managed to dominate society. They served as military officers or held positions in politics, and in the sixteenth century, many nobles sought education to keep their roles in government. "The Book of the Courtier" by Castiglione was similar to a handbook that described the fundamentals of being part of aristocracy. Castiglione listed the three characteristics of being the "perfect courtier." The first attribute is "nobles should possess fundamental native endowments, such as impeccable character, grace, talents, and noble birth." The next trait is to gain certain achievements. These included military participation and exercise. I also included a classical education. This included pursuing the arts like playing a musical instrument, drawing, and painting. Lastly, the nobles were expected to follow a certain standard of conduct. They should make a good impression and be modest but they shouldn't hide their accomplishments. "The aim of the perfect noble, then, was to serve his prince in an effective and honest way." The nobles followed these beliefs for hundreds of years as they dominated society. The Third Estate made up most of society in Europe, and most of the Third Estate was made up of peasants. As the manorial system declined in the fourteenth century so did serfdom. Later, when a money economy was introduced, rent was paid in money but a lot of labor was also used. The reduced peasant population after the Black Death helped speed up the process as lords granted freedom to the peasants and accepted rents. This led to a decline in serfdom and peasants continued to be free. The rest of the Third Estate was made up of the commoners who were the skilled merchants and artisans who constituted the bourgeoisie. The people lived in towns and cities and were widely varied economically and socially. The aristocrats dominated the society in urban communities economically, socially, and politically. After the aristocrats were the people who provided goods and services and below them were the poor workers who earned close to nothing. The cellar dwellers of the urban communities, though, were not the poor but the slaves. Due to economic reasons, agricultural slavery had declined since the Middle Ages. After disappearing for a while, it reappeared because of the shortage of workers after the Black Death. This began in Italian cities where slaves were used as skilled workers or household workers. Women were used as nursemaids and boys as playmates or companions. Some European men had affairs with the slaves. Slaves could come from the Mediterranean and the Black Sea area or from Africa. As the fifteenth century was coming to an end, there was a decline in slavery as many had been freed for humanitarian reasons. There was also a lack of slaves in the Black Sea area as the prices had increased dramatically. The slaves were also thought of as dangerous. Portuguese had imported many slaves for European markets during the fifteenth century where the slaves were from Africa. This increased the number of blacks in society.

Family in the Renaissance was very important. Family included the parents, children, and in wealthy families, servants. Grandparents, widowed mothers, and sisters who haven't married could also be included. Families that shared a common surname lived in the same area most of the time and could have control of that area. There were also prestigious families like the Medici. The bond between families as

the Medici created security to protect each other. This caused vendettas, which were violent battles of vengeance. In the Renaissance, marriages were arranged by the parents, which could strengthen family ties, or for business reasons. A marriage contract could bind a marriage when kids were two or three. The contract also included dowry. The dowry served as an indicator "whether the bride was moving upward or downward in society." This was important for the whole family that the bride was coming from. The father or husband of the household was the center of Italian families. "He gave it his name, was responsible for it in all legal matters, managed all finances, and made the crucial decisions that determined his children's lives." The father "ruled" over the children until his death or legally freed them. Children were not adults until one of the two occurred. Emancipation usually took place from early teens to late twenties. Wives' jobs as part of the family were to manage the household, but most importantly, to bear children. Many upper-class wives could give birth to eight kids in ten years. Childbirth also had many risks that included pain or possibly death. Children could also die early which is why most families would try to bore as many children as possible, hoping that at least one male would survive. When it came to relationships in the Renaissance, men, such as princes and their courts, could get sexual licenses for extramarital relationships. Women on the contrary were not allowed to have another affair and if they were caught, extreme punishments were in order. The need of extramarital relationships may be caused by the disliking of arranged marriage, a large age difference between husband and wife, and "though females married between the ages of sixteen and eighteen, environment, wealth, and demographic trends favored relatively late ages for the first marriages of males, who were usually in their thirties or even early forties." Because of this, prostitution was considered necessary and could not be taken care of. This was to please the young, unmarried males.

In Italy, there were five major powers in the fifteenth century: Milan, Venice, Florence, the Papal States, and Naples. The northern part of Italy included Milan and Venice. Francesco Sforza came to rule Milan and "worked to create a highly centralized territorial state." Success was gained when he was able to produce a large amount of revenues for the government by a system of taxation that he and his fellow Sforza rulers came up with. Venice was a very politically stable state that was governed by a small oligarchy of merchant-aristocrats. Because of commercial trade and its Southeast coast connected to water, Venice had a vast amount of revenues. To protect its supply of food and inland trade routes, Venice had a goal of becoming a territorial state. Expansion frightened Milan and Florence. Florence was in control of the Tuscany region and a small merchant oligarchy governed Florence. The oligarchy was taken over by Cosimo de' Medici. The Medici family ran government in the look of a republic but it was really not a republic. The Medici, including Cosimo's grandson Lorenzo the Magnificent, were very successful in controlling Florence, which at the time was the "center of the cultural Renaissance." In central Italy were the Papal States. The states were supposed to be ruled by the political control of the papacy, yet Urbino, Bologna, and Ferrara had become independent

states because of the Great Schism. Popes during the Renaissance had a goal of reestablishing control over all the Papal States. Southern Italy controlled by the kingdom of Naples. Naples was not as involved in the Renaissance culture as the other states as it had a very high population of poor people. City-states became a major center of Renaissance culture. City-states were controlled by ruling families such as Urbino, which was ruled by the Montefeltro dynasty. Federigo da Montefeltro helped Urbino become a cultural and intellectual center of the Renaissance. During the Renaissance, women who had an education and intelligence could make contributions in smaller courts, like Isabella d'Este. She was known for political intelligence and wisdom. In the Mantuan court, she helped assemble a huge library and effectively helped rule Mantua for a long time as a clever negotiator. Because all the Italian states were split up, a balance of power was used to prevent any one state from dominating. The Peace of Lodi ended a long war and helped keep peace throughout the states. Alliance systems were also formed but failed in keeping order among the major powers. There was also powerful monarchical growth in the states that caused war between France and Spain as Italy was used as a battleground. After the break down of the balance of power, Spain and France came in and fought over control of Italy. After Spain took over Rome, they came to dominate Italy. Continuous invasions in Italy would not make unification possible until 1870.

The states in Italy were fragmented during the Renaissance.



"The modern diplomatic system was a product of the Italian Renaissance." The idea of an ambassador from the Middle Ages changed due to political situations in Italy. Because there were so many states, security was a threat, especially to the smaller ones; so diplomatic agents began to be sent to other states for information. This eventually spread to the rest of Europe. The purpose of the ambassador was to be a servant of the government and to do what is best for his state. This was the beginning of modern politics, "when the interests of the state supersede all other considerations." Niccolò Machiavelli described the Renaissance preoccupation of political power the best. The Prince, written by Machiavelli included his ideas on politics, which came from two reasons, he knew about ancient Rome and the current political problems in Italy. In "The Prince," Machiavelli says that a leader must set aside morals and focus on what is best for his state, even if some of the things are unethical. This was against the medieval political theorists who thought morals should be Christian principles. To Machiavelli, the prince must do what is best for the common good of the people, which he found in Cesare Borgia, "who used ruthless measures to achieve his goal of carving out a new state in central Italy."



Machiavelli's political ideas involved abandoning morals if that's what is best for a prince's state.

The two main characteristics of the Renaissance were individualism and secularism, which was best seen in the intellectual and artistic areas. "Italy was the cultural leader of Europe," and had a wealthy society that led to the literary and intellectual movement known as humanism. Humanism was based off of Greek and Roman literacy and included the studying of the liberal arts, which are "grammar, rhetoric, poetry, moral philosophy or ethics, and history." All of these were studied off of the works of classical literature in the Greco-Roman culture. These were the humanities. Many humanists were teachers, professors, or secretaries and were not usually part of the clergy. Petrarch, considered "the father of Italian Renaissance humanism," helped with the development of Renaissance humanism. He had an interest in the classics and the way they were more secularized. A new route was taken in the humanist movement in Florence, fifteenth century. It was now related to civics, which led to civic humanism. Early humanists had no interest in family and participating within a community, but later there was a new role for the intellectuals. Roman Cicero modeled this saying that "it was the duty of an intellectual to live an active life for one's state." He said a person must also grow morally, not just intellectually. This led many humanists to serve as chancellors, councilors, and advisors. Humanists also had an interest in the classical Greek civilization, which was seen in Leonardo Bruni. The humanists studied many Greek works, such as the works of Plato and by the fifteenth century, an awareness of being humanists had come about, as seen in the life of Lorenzo Valla.

The later half of the fifteenth century saw a huge interest in the works of Plato, when people began translations and discussion groups. The Platonic philosophy was studied, known as Neo-Platonism. The philosophy was based on two main ideas, the hierarchy of substances and a theory of spiritual love. In the hierarchy of



substances, there was a huge chain from the lowest parts of physical matter, which were plants, to the highest and most pure God. In this idea, humans were near the middle and that it was the goal of the humans to climb up the ladder in the hierarchy and they were “the link between the material world and the spiritual world.” In the theory of spiritual love, it stated that in communities humans were bonded together by love, which was similar to the way the rest of the universe was bonded. Along with Neo-Platonism, there was Hermeticism. Hermetic manuscripts were translated and contained two writing types. The first was involved with science, especially astrology, alchemy, and magic. The next script had a focus on “theological and philosophical beliefs and speculations.” There was also the promotion of pantheism, which was saying that God was in all parts of nature. The Hermetics said that “human beings had been created as divine beings endowed within divine creative power but had freely chosen to enter the material world,” which was nature. To regain divinity, humans must purify their soul by gaining new knowledge of God. The Hermetics thought they could gain powers to use nature for advantageous purposes. The magi, as they were called, could gain this knowledge of God. Two main magi during the fifteenth century were Ficino and Pico della Mirandola. Pico wrote the most famous piece of writing, which was *Oration on the Dignity of Man*. Pico said humans had unlimited potential. The intellectuals thought of education as the force that could change human beings. Schools were established that were based on the ideas of the intellectuals and books were also written that were on education. The most famous school was in Mantua, founded by Vittorino da Feltre. The liberal studies were the core of the academics and Pietro Paolo Vergerio, who wrote *Concerning Character*, which talked about why the liberal arts were important, influenced this. He said that they enabled true freedom and allowed full potential of individuals. The liberal studies included, “history, moral philosophy, eloquence, letters, poetry, mathematics, astronomy, and music.” The goal was to educate the people who follow the path of virtue and wisdom. At the school in Mantua, physical education was also taught and included a various amount of activities. Education during the Renaissance was mainly only available to the elite boys, and the people who ruled their communities. Education for women was still limited and in most cases not given. Education had the goal of creating a complete citizen who could “participate in the civic life of their communities.” Humanist schools used the classics and Christianity to teach, which lasted a very long time, up to the twentieth century. The writing of history was also influenced by humanism. The humanists believed that history had gone from the classical civilization of the Greeks and Romans, to the Middle Ages, considered a time of barbarism, and then to the Renaissance, which was the rebirth of the classics. The humanists also secularized history. They did not include miracles in their writings of history because “they wanted to use documents and exercised their newly developed critical skills in examining them.” They did not use anything related to miracle works in the “causation of history.” Humanists did not include God in what happened in events throughout history saying that it was all human impact. Francesco Guicciardini was part of the Renaissance writing of history. He



believed writing history should teach lessons, although the lessons are not always obvious. He developed a skill that could help him analyze political and military history; “his works relied heavily on personal examples and documentary sources.” During the Renaissance, printing was invented and helped advance the Western Civilization. This had an immense impact on intellectual life in Europe. The invention of printing with movable type was new to Europe. Johannes Gutenberg played a key part in helping the advancement of the process. Printing spread rapidly and hit most of Europe. Many religious texts were printed and following were the classics of the Greco-Roman literature. Printing became a huge industry and had an encouragement of pursuing scholarly research and education. Lastly, it helped spread the word of new religious ideas and Reformation.

Art in the Renaissance was a major part of the culture. “Renaissance artists considered the imitation of nature their primary goal.” They wanted to look for naturalism and portray something as it really is. Also, human beings became the center of attention. Giotto began the painting of nature, but Masaccio was the first to use Giotto’s style in his frescoes in the Brancacci Chapel. It showed a very realistic relationship between people and the landscape. With his use of laws of perspective and his more realistic painting, a new style of painting came about. More painters used the style and another trend occurred. There was a mathematical part of painting that involved “laws of perspective and the organization of outdoor space and light by geometry and perspective.” The other part of the trend was the “investigation of movement and anatomical structure.” This was portraying the human body as it was. This style was more experimental but led to mastery. A new sense of invention appeared in Florence in the later part of the fifteenth century. It can be seen in the painters for Lorenzo the Magnificent, especially Botticelli’s Primavera. The Renaissance also witnessed different architectural and sculpture styles, like Donatello’s David, “which is the first known life-size, free standing bronze nude in European art since antiquity.”



Architecture can be seen in the works of Filippo Brunelleschi. Brunelleschi was inspired by the Roman style and started this back in Florence. He helped finish the Dome of the Duomo and used the new architectural style in constructing the Church of San Lorenzo. The interior of the church created a comfortable feeling to it, trying to reflect a human-centered world. Human individuality was expressed “in the new emphasis on portraiture.” People were depicted everywhere and by the mid-

fifteenth century; artists were beginning to illustrate precise facial features that could convey their personalities.

By this time, new techniques had been mastered, there was a new environment in the art world, and between 1480 and 1520, the final stage of Renaissance art appeared called the High Renaissance. This shift occurred partly because Rome had become a cultural center of the Renaissance. The main artists that dominated this time were Leonardo da Vinci, Raphael, and Michelangelo. Leonardo da Vinci helped with this transition and helped with the continuation of experimental ideas by studying how everything worked, especially the human body that he would dissect to see the components. Leonardo helped the High Renaissance reach a new level of "the idealization of nature." The Last Supper by da Vinci can be seen using many of the techniques in art during this period and "through gestures and movements, Leonardo hoped to reveal a person's inner life." Raphael was young when he came to fame. He painted many Madonnas in which he wanted to show the ideal beauty that has exceeded humans. He also painted the frescoes in the Vatican Palace where his School of Athens uses the principles of classical art of Greece and Rome. Michelangelo was a painter, sculptor, and architect. His paintings in the Sistine Chapel show the way he was influenced by Neo-Platonism. On the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel, Michelangelo "attempted to tell the biblical book of Genesis." Michelangelo also made sculptures with his more famous work being David. The statue shows the greatness of the human body. The High Renaissance also included architectural work, seen in the creations of Donato Bramante. He is known for creating the Tempietto, a little temple in Rome. Later he constructed the Saint Peter's basilica for Rome. During this time, "the wealthy upper classes determined both the content and the purpose of the painting and pieces of sculpture," that was produced. If an artistic apprentice became a master, society considered them artistic geniuses such as Leonardo, Raphael, and Michelangelo. The master artists became part of the upper section of society during the Renaissance. In the north, Renaissance art was very different. The art still had a lot of Gothic style to it with stained-glass windows and there was more of an "emphasis on illuminated manuscripts and wooden panel painting for altarpieces." Many details were put into the paintings, also. Flanders was the location for a very important art school in the northern area. Jan van Eyck used oil paint that allowed for a wide variety of colors to be used in a work, which he was one of the first to do this. It allowed for the creation of great details but van Eyck's work lacked perspective and proportion, which many northern Renaissance painters did. The "northern painters placed great emphasis on the emotional intensity of religious feeling and created great works of devotional art, especially in their altarpieces." Later, Italian art began to influence northern art, evident in the paintings by Albrecht Dürer. "The court of the dukes attracted some of the best artists and musicians of the time." Guillaume Dufay, who was the one of the first to alter the songs used in Mass by making them more secularized tunes, led music in the Renaissance. Dufay composed many other secular songs throughout his career. The madrigal was the main way secular music was made. Madrigals were

poems that had been set to music. Madrigals, which started in Italy and France, spread to the rest of Europe.

During the Renaissance, there were efforts to once again establish monarchical governments as the center force in states. These can be called Renaissance states or new monarchies, like in France, England, and Spain. Western Europe saw more success in these attempts, while “rulers in central and eastern Europe were often weak and unable to impose their authority.” France had been diminished by the Hundred Years’ War and had been depopulated, farmlands desolated, ruined commerce, and the kings could not gain control of the state because nobles were acting out of control and trying to act independent. The war’s positive effect toward the king was it gave the people a national feeling to a shared enemy. This could be used to strengthen the authority of the king and reestablish monarchical power, apparent in Charles VII’s policies. He was able to assemble a royal army and collect a higher payment of *taille*, which was the tax on land or property. This weakened the parliamentary body. King Louis XI later helped develop the state. “By retaining the *taille* as a permanent tax imposed by royal authority, Louis secured a sound, regular source of income.” Louis’ lack of success came in controlling the noble class, who had independence and were a threat to his power. Charles the Bold is an example of this type of nobility, as he tried to establish a kingdom in between France and Germany. Charles later died in battle as Louis took over his property. The Hundred Years’ War also had a major impact on England, especially the economy. As tension inside England grew, a civil war broke out called the War of the Roses fought between the house of Lancaster and the house of York. In 1485, Henry Tudor, who established the Tudor dynasty, defeated the York’s. Henry VII was the first Tudor king and worked to establish a powerful monarchical government. Henry got rid of private armies for wealthy aristocrats, which ended nobility wars. Nobles were expected to raise armies for the state, that when used for a specific campaign, were scattered. Henry also controlled the Court of Star Chamber, which used torture to gain confessions from people. Economically, Henry was successful due to his ability to avoid wars, not having to ask Parliament for money, and “extracting income from the traditional financial resources of the English monarch. Taxes were not too high on the middle class, which gained him their favor. In Spain, there were multiple kingdoms that made up the peninsula. The strongest Spanish kingdoms were Castile and Aragon and farther in the west of the peninsula was Portugal that had its own monarchy. There was also Navarre in the north and in the south was Granada, the Muslim kingdom. The kingdoms would eventually unify into one Spanish state. This process was aided when Isabella of Castile and Ferdinand of Aragon became married, which although the two kingdoms remained independent, they worked together to “strengthen royal control of government, especially in Castile.” Later, Ferdinand and Isabella strengthened the Spanish army, as it became a force to be feared. They also gained power from the Catholic Church by allowing the pope to pick “the most important church officials in Spain. Isabella and Ferdinand also had a goal of religious uniformity, which led them to persecute the large minority

populations of Jewish and Muslim people. Many Jewish people tried to convert, but doubting their loyalty to Christianity, Isabella and Ferdinand had the pope come up with the Inquisition into Spain in 1478. It eventually came to a point where both Jews and Muslims were being expelled from Spain to create a Catholic state. The Holy Roman Empire, unlike the other states, failed in creating a centralized monarchical government. The Habsburg dynasty was now in control and the house of Habsburg "had become one of the wealthiest landholders in the empire." Habsburg success came through coordinated marriages and the marriage of Maximilian to Mary of Duke Charles the Bold of Burgundy led to a strengthened throne for Emperor Frederick III. The Habsburgs became feared throughout Europe as Frederick III gained part of France. Maximilian was not as successful on the throne as the only bright spot came from the marriage of his son, Philip of Burgundy, to the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain, Joanna. Eastern European rulers were failing to establish controlling monarchies. It was difficult because of the islands with ethnic groups and because there were many religious differences among the people. Poland had a problem between the nobles and the state that went on until the closing of the fifteenth century where the aristocrats gained power. Sejm, or the national diet allowed the establishment of kings, but they were "unable to establish a strong royal authority. Bohemia, who was part of the Holy Roman Empire, was uneasy about the Germans, Poles, and Slovaks, so they turned to "their northeastern Slavic neighbors." Disagreement and civil war were caused by the Hussite wars. Bohemian nobles found a way to gain more power and wealth, negatively affecting the "crown and church." Hungary had been greatly influenced by Catholicism while "wealthy bishops, along with the great territorial lords, became powerful independent political figures." For a short time, Hungary was the dominant power in Eastern Europe. King Matthias Corvinus who organized a well-established government dissolved the power of these wealthy lords. Corvinus had a great rule but after he passed, Hungary went back to a weak leadership. In Russia, Ivan III helped the creation of a new Russian state. After seizing control of other territories, he took advantage of the disagreement among the Mongols to get rid of them. The Ottoman Turks continued gaining power and eventually led to the end of the Byzantine Empire. Sultan Murad led Ottoman forces "through Bulgaria and into the lands of the Serbians, who provided a strong center of opposition under King Lazar." Later, an overpowering Ottoman army, led by Sultan Mehmet II, attacked Constantinople. The city fell and so did the empire. Later, other states were in trouble; Charles V became enemies with Mehmet II. During the Renaissance, the church had to deal with problems of heresy. Although heresy had already been around, to new movements helped it spread. These movements were Lollardy and Hussitism. English Lollardy originally sprouted from John Wyclif, who was against the corruption of the church and began to attack "papal authority and medieval Christian beliefs and practices." Wyclif wanted the authority of the popes to be taken away and believed that the Bible should be considered the most important item to a Christian and that it should be in other languages so every Christian could read it. Lastly, he was against the practices in the scriptures, which included pilgrimages,

the veneration of saints, and rituals and rites from the medieval times. Wyclifs followers that he gained came to be known as Lollards. As Lollardy spread, John Hus heard about it and came up with his reform. Hus also rejected the power that the papacy had in the church and was against the corrupt clergy. Hus was later called to the Council of Constance where he was arrested and burned at the stake, which caused the Hussite wars against the Holy Roman Empire. The church's attempt to reform started with two decrees: Sacrosancta, which "stated that a general council of the church received its authority from God," and Frequens, which "provided for the regular holding of general councils to ensure that church reform would continue." These were unable to reform the church because of the lack of cooperation from the popes. The popes once again gained control of the church but they were not able to take over temporal governments. Moral leadership declined in the papacy. During the time of the Renaissance popes, some cases involved violence by the pope to get what he wants. The best example is Julius II, the warrior-pope, who even led armies. This was hurtful to those who had looked to him as a spiritual leader. To keep family at the top of the papacy, nepotism was used. An example is Pope Sixtus IV who made five relatives cardinals. Alexander VI also made his relatives cardinals. Renaissance popes, though, had helped with Renaissance culture, such as Leo X, who had an interest in the paintings and had Raphael do some paintings. He helped in the development of Rome as a culture center.

Pope Leo X helped Rome  
in becoming the cultural  
center of the Renaissance



### Chapter 13: Reformation and Religious Warfare in the Sixteenth Century

Overview: Religion made a new appearance during a reformation, resulting in the conversion of many people to Protestant groups. The main groups were Lutherans and Calvinists (there were also Anabaptists) that led religious reformation during

this time. The sixteenth century also saw a major conquest of the Ottoman Turks and the large amount of religious warfare, such as the French civil wars between the Huguenots and the Catholics in France.

Before Martin Luther's reform movement there was the Christian or Northern Renaissance humanism that's goal was reformation of Christianity. Northern humanists had gained classical knowledge and had a key focal point on early Christianity in the Holy Scriptures. Northern humanists had felt there were certain aspects of Christianity that had been misleading during the Middle Ages. Northern humanists aimed to reform these problems. "Northern humanists felt that through education in the sources of classical, and especially Christian, antiquity, they could instill a true inner piety or an inward religious feeling that would bring about a reform of the church and society." This caused them to support schools and the belief of the power of education continued to be an important characteristic. "Christian humanists believed that to change society, they must first change the human beings who compose it." The two main Christian humanists were Desiderius Erasmus and Thomas More. Erasmus is considered the most significant of all Christian humanists. He wrote the Handbook of the Christian Knight, which shows his concern with religion. Erasmus believed that Christianity should be a guide for the way to live a good life, not so much fixation with beliefs and practices. This is what caused him to study the early parts of Christianity. Erasmus thought the reform should be to understand the ideas of Jesus. Erasmus also criticized the church in The Praise of Folly, focusing on the abuses inside the clergy. Although Erasmus' reformation was not as successful as he hoped, it provided a path for other reformers to follow, such as Luther. More, a friend of Erasmus, was very dedicated to Christianity and made translations, prayed and wrote Utopia, which described "the idealistic life and institution of the community of Utopia." The work reflects the problems More had when it came to economics, social issues, and politics. More came up with a new social system that humans would be motivated by cooperation and reason. The society More came up with was based on communal ownership where, "all persons worked nine hours a day, regardless of occupation, and were rewarded according to their needs." He pictured that Utopia would be "an orderly world where social relations, recreation, and even travel were carefully controlled for the moral welfare of society and its members." Another reason for reformation during this time was the corruption within the Catholic Church. Renaissance popes, as discussed in chapter 12, had failed to live a life of spiritual leadership, which displeased many followers. The church was largely involved in the state also, with finances and economics. Also, people holding office as church officials would serve in multiple church offices for extra payment. The pluralism led to the church officials hiring unqualified people to do the duties of being an official. This caused a large amount of widespread complaints. Because of the lack of church leadership, people began seeking salvation through the veneration of relics. Other people searched for salvation through Modern Devotion by following the teachings of Jesus. It is best described by Thomas à Kempis, who stated that they would not be judged by what

they read, but by what they had done. Before reform occurred, it was already happening in the Catholic Church through religious orders, such as the Franciscans, Dominicans, and Augustinians. "Members of these groups put particular emphasis on preaching to laypeople." The Oratory of Divine Love was organized as an informal group of clergy and laymen who had no religious intention but to emphasize "personal and spiritual development and outward acts of charity." Many of the members of the Oratory of Divine Love were in favor of church reform.



Erasmus was a Christian humanist who advocated church reform.

"The Protestant Reformation began with a typical medieval question: What must I do to be saved?" Martin Luther discovered his answer that did not follow the medieval church. This led him to split from the church and with many other people asking the same question, they too left. As Luther was a monk, salvation is what he focused on the most as one of his biggest worries. He did not feel like the Catholic ways in doing confession was enough to gain God's grace and forgiveness. While studying the Bible as a teacher of theology, Luther came upon the answer to his burning question. The Catholic Church stated that to gain forgiveness they should do acts of faith and good works. To Luther, humans were weak compared to God and that good works was not enough to be saved. Luther said humans are saved "through faith in the promises of God, made possible by the sacrifice of Jesus." Justification, which was the way a person is made worthy of salvation, became the main focal point of the Protestant Reformation. Luther and many other Protestants looked to the Bible as the main way to gain religious truth. Luther also had views of disappointment towards the Catholic Church, primarily the selling of indulgences, which were supposed to guarantee one's salvation. Later, Luther made his Ninety-Five Theses, which were all of his problems with the Catholic Church, once again mainly focusing on the selling of indulgences. In the Leipzig Debate, Johann Eck, a



Catholic theologian, “forced Luther to move beyond indulgences and deny the authority of popes and councils.” Luther, who believed that he was doing the work of God, continued with his ideas and published three pamphlets. He talked about many other problems, including the marriage of the clergy, saying that freedom of choice is best. In his pamphlet, *On the Freedom of a Christian Man*, Luther talked about salvation and how it is only faith that determines whether one is deserving of salvation. After a while, Luther became too much for the Catholic Church and he was excommunicated. Luther was also called to the Diet of Worms to confront the Reichstag, where Emperor Charles V demanded Luther to recant his statements. Luther refused and became an outlaw in the Holy Roman Empire. Following, Luther began to organize his own reformed church. Luther had translated the New Testament into German, but most of the reformed word was not spread through writing, but through preaching sermons. After preaching in cities there were debates, which the preachers more often than not, won. This led to state authorities to establish a church reform. The spread of the Reformation was also helped by pamphlets with illustrations depicting the pope as a bad person. As Luther promoted the use of music to teach the Gospel, “ ‘A Mighty Fortress Is Our God,’ became the battle hymn of the Reformation.” Lutheranism spread to many German states. Nuremberg “was the first imperial city to convert to Lutheranism.” At the early stages of the reformation, mainly clergy and upper class people were the first to convert. Luther hit some obstacles in spreading his word, such as radical reformers who wanted to eliminate “all relics, images, and the Mass.” Also, Christian humanists who had originally been with Luther in his reform broke away fearing that the movement was a threat to the unity of Christianity. This split was mainly among the older Christian humanists, while the younger Christian humanists, such as Melanchthon, were inspired by Luther’s ideas and began supporting them. During this time, peasants had not been able to enjoy the economic prosperity of the early sixteenth century and in Germany they found a time where they saw Martin Luther as support for a revolt. But it was not Martin Luther who helped them with their spirit but rather a former follower of Luther, Thomas Müntzer. When the first revolt occurred, Luther’s reaction was quick and angry. He promoted the German princes to murder and violently kill “the stupid and stubborn peasantry.” Luther was against this because the German princes were what he depended on and that they have the power to do what is necessary to keep peace and order in the state and “for the spread of the Gospel.” The German princes put down these revolts and Luther became more dependent on the state power for his reformation. By this point in Luther’s reformation he had only kept two of the seven sacraments that were part of the Catholic Church. He kept baptism as a symbol of rebirth through grace and the Lord’s Supper, but he was against the Catholic idea that the bread and wine had miraculously transformed into the body and blood of Jesus.



Martin Luther led religious reform during this time.

Charles V faced many problems during his time. The first was Luther's movement but after that he faced a rivalry with "the Valois king of France, Francis I." The two kings fought over territories in the southern part of France and they also fought over "the Netherlands, the Rhineland, northern Spain, and Italy." These battles were between the years of 1521-1544 and are known as the Habsburg-Valois Wars. This distracted Charles from his problem with Luther. He also confronted two other enemies. Charles had been expecting papal support but they feared his power in Italy and Pope Clement VII sided with Francis I in what would be known as the second Habsburg-Valois War. Charles V attacked Rome and gained control of much of Italy. Charles V also faced the Ottoman Empire. The Turks controlled southeastern Europe and also began taking over much of the North African coast. The Ottoman Turks stood as a threat to many European states. In 1529, Charles was prepared to deal with domestic affairs in Germany, but it was easier said than done. Charles failed to deal with the Lutheran issue in the Diet of Augsburg many princes of territorial states in Germany were fearful of Charles as they formed an alliance called the Schmalkaldic League. Later, Charles faced replenished threats from the Turks. After fighting off the Ottoman Turks, there were two more Habsburg-Valois Wars until he made peace with Francis I in 1544 and the Ottoman Empire in 1545. But by this time, peaceful ways to compromise were gone and he sent an army to attack the Protestants in what would be known as the Schmalkaldic Wars. After a defeat, the Protestants got their acts together and by forming an alliance with Henry II, Charles V was forced to sign a truce. Charles V gave up, handing down the position to his brother Ferdinand and the Peace of Augsburg ended religious combat in Germany.



Charles V had a struggling reign in the Holy Roman Empire during the reformation period.

Towards the end of the Habsburg-Valois Wars, other protestant groups began popping up. First there were the Anabaptists as part of the radical reformation. The Anabaptists were appealing to “peasants, weavers, miners, and artisans,” who were negatively affected by the economic changes. All Anabaptists shared in common certain ideas. “All felt that the true Christian church was a voluntary association of believers who had undergone spiritual rebirth and had then been baptized into the church.” Anabaptists shared the belief in adult baptism, not forcing someone to “accept the truth of the Bible,” and tried to go back to early Christian practices and spirit. Following these ways, they said that all believers are equal and ministers could be any member of the community. They also believed that they must suffer for their faith. There were a variety of Anabaptist groups, especially known in the city of Münster. The city began to gain many Anabaptists and an even more radical group, called the Melchiorites emerged. The Melchiorites believed in millenarianism, or the belief that the end of the world was emerging. They believed that they would go to God in the city of Münster, or what they called the New Jerusalem.

Towards the end of the Habsburg-Valois wars, John Calvin initiated a new group of reformers in the Protestant movement. Influenced by Luther’s writings, Calvin was looking for “the inner guidance of God.” When it came to the main doctrines, Calvin’s ideas were very similar to Luther’s. He agreed with Luther in justification by faith alone to achieve salvation, and also agreeing that God is a great power that is always watching and “engaged in continual action,” over what happened in the world. Predestination was also one of Calvin’s ideas saying that God had already chosen who would be saved and who would not be saved. Calvin also thought of three tests

that could lead to salvation. These were “an open profession of faith, a ‘decent and godly life,’ and participation in the sacraments of baptism and communion.” Calvin never gave thought to the fact that salvation was achieved through success on earth and the wealth a person has. Calvin also believed that salvation was not always guaranteed. Calvinism later became one of the most popular Protestant reformation groups. Similar to the other Protestant reformers, Calvin kept the Lord’s Supper and baptism. In the Lord’s Supper, Calvin believed that Jesus is spiritually in the bread and wine but not physically. One of Calvin’s accomplishments was a new church constitution called the Ecclesiastical Ordinances, which created a church government in Geneva where the officials in the government watched moral life. Geneva would later become a center for Protestantism as it spread throughout Europe.



John Calvin created another reform group called Calvinism

In the mid-1500s, religious wars erupted that were also fueled by economic, social, and political forces. The most infamous wars of the time were the French civil wars, also known as the French Wars of Religion. The wars were fueled by religion as the French kings attempted to halt the spread of Calvinism. The French Calvinists, or Huguenots, were from all different levels of society, including 40 to 50 percent of the nobility. Because of the conversion of so many nobles, the Huguenots became a political hazard to the throne. After the death of the king, Catherine de ‘Medici assisted her sons in ruling the throne by attempting to make a compromise between the religions, yet neither side was willing to budge. The Guises, who supported Catholicism, was capable of assembling armies that gained much support. Religion was not alone as the entity that started the wars. Because of the “growing power of monarchical centralization,” anger spread throughout the outer towns and provinces where the revolt against the monarchy gained more support. The development of the state of France had stopped, and loyalty of person was by religion. The year 1562 saw the start of the wars, beginning when the duke of Guise attacked and killed the Huguenots living in Vassy. During the war, the Huguenots were not strong enough to conquer and attack, but were strong enough to defend and protect, except the day of the Saint Bartholomew’s Day massacre. When the Catholics and Calvinists appeared to be reunited through marriage of Charles IX’s sister, and Henry Navarre, who many looked to as the “political leader of the Huguenots,” the massacre occurred. Threatened by Huguenot leaders, Charles ordered his guards to find the important Huguenot leaders, where the guards sought and killed them. The massacre continued for three days, which resulted in the death of three thousand

Huguenots, but Henry of Navarre saved his skin by making a vow to convert to Catholic. The fighting continued but a turning point was in the War of the Three Henries. As Henry the duke of Guise forcefully demanded King Henry III to give the throne to him, the duke of Guise was assassinated as Henry III joined, the once again Calvinist, Henry of Navarre. Henry Navarre took control of the throne when Henry III was assassinated, and turned back to Catholicism to be accepted in a heavily Catholic state. The wars ended and the religious problem was concluded in the Edict of Nantes, which “acknowledged Catholicism as the official religion of France but guaranteed the Huguenots the right to worship in selected places.” They were also given rights to hold office.

During the French Wars of Religion, the Spanish controlled Netherlands experienced a revolt. The Netherlands was made up of seventeen provinces that had multiple different religious influences including Lutheranism, Anabaptism, and beginning to gain Calvinism. The provinces were largely independent, which Philip II wanted to change. As he sought to gain more control, many people in the provinces opposed this. When he began to crush any attempt from Calvinism, violence broke out when Calvinists, with a high noble population, began wreaking havoc. Philip sent 10,000 Spanish and Italian troops to destroy the revolt, but the Calvinists gained more support from other societal classes. William of Nassau, or William of Orange, had a goal of unifying the provinces and the Pacification of Ghent; William became the leader of the provinces. Later, the duke of Parma and the next Spanish leader used the religious differences to divide the north from the south and established a union with the southern provinces. William took the northern provinces and established a union between them. Later, though, the United Provinces would emerge “as the Dutch Republic.”



William of Orange

#### Chapter 14:

#### Europe and the World: New Encounters, 1500-1800

Overview: European states began focusing on expansion and the recent discovery of the New World. There were many motives for the expansion for the dangerous, yet very adventurous voyages that took place when the Europeans crossed the Atlantic. One of the reasons was because of the way fantasy literature had characterized the lands. They caused people to fantasize about them or, in some cases, made frightening and scary descriptions about the lands. There were also portrayals of



mysterious lands that made the people intrigued by the thought of finding these areas. Another reason why expansion occurred was for economic reasons. Marco Polo had “an account of [his] experiences,” in the Travels, which described his expeditions to Asia. When the Ottoman Turks controlled the land to the East of Europe, many travelers wanted to find another way around to Asia “to gain access to the spices and other precious items of the region.” There was also the thought of finding precious metals and new trading areas. Religion was an important part in expansion because of the desire for missionaries to convert people in other parts of the world to Christianity, most importantly, Catholicism. Lastly, there was a reason just for “grandeur and glory,” and prestige, that led the Europeans to expand to other places. To sum of the motives, they were for “God, glory, and gold.” To aid the expansion, developments in maps were important. The portolani became more useful to travelers and gave them an accurate reading of the known world. The map that Ptolemy made focused on the continents of Europe, Africa, and Asia. There were also developments in ships and navigation techniques. Ships were able to go against the wind and carry a larger amount of cargo and “navigational aids such as the compass and the astrolabe,” allowed them “to explore the high seas with confidence.”

Expansion had a major impact on the conquerors and the conquered. African civilizations were drastically altered because of the slave trade and the slave trade created a multiracial society in today's Latin America with the marriage between different ethnic groups creating a very ethnically diverse area. Trade between the areas also brought different items and goods to other places, such as horses to the Americas, “which historians refer to the reciprocal importation and exportation of plants and animals between Europe and the Americas as the Columbian Exchange.” Missionaries were involved in the conversion of native peoples to Christianity, with missionary groups such as the Dominicans, Franciscans, and Jesuits traveling throughout the world to convert people. European women found new marriage opportunities in the New World and would become wealthy “after their husbands were killed unexpectedly.” Economics was a major impact of the European expansion with the exchange of gold and silver and other riches.



Ptolemy's map became a good starting point for travelers that were ready to explore the high seas.

"Portugal took the lead in the European age of expansion." With Prince Henry the Navigator, Portuguese ships went along the western coast of Africa to search for gold. The Portuguese found gold at what would be called the Gold Coast. Later, Portugal had a determination to round the southern tip of Africa and successfully did so "under the command of Vasco da Gama." Da Gama later reached India in search of "Christians and spices," only finding spices. Following, the Portuguese had a goal of controlling the spice trade as they defeated a Turkish and Indian fleet and blocked off the Red Sea. "Afonso de Albuquerque set up port facilities at Goa," which became the center of the Portuguese operations. Albuquerque also gained control of a key harbor in Malacca, which crushed the Arab spice trade and increasingly benefit the Portuguese. This enabled them to sail farther towards China, but because they were lacking "the power, the population, and the desire," they never colonized parts of Asia. The Spanish aimed to do the same thing as Portugal, except by heading west across the Atlantic. Columbus, one of these sailors, began a voyage west with the Pinta, Niña, and the Santa María. Instead of reaching Asia, Columbus ran into the Bahamas and explored the coastline of Cuba, thinking he had reached Asia. After Columbus, many people realized that he had "discovered" a new area and the race to the New World began. Many voyages reached the land of North and South America. Ferdinand Magellan passed through the strait at the southern tip of South America, where he "sailed across the Pacific Ocean and reached the Philippines. This was the first known circumnavigation of the world. The New World gave opportunities to the Europeans in "conquest and exploitation." Conquistadors of Spain were motivated through glory, greed, and religion. Their success was credited to advanced equipment and techniques and also the loss of native peoples to European disease. The two main civilizations before the arrival of Europeans were the Maya and the Aztecs, who were quickly introduced to the European people and their aggressive ways. The year 1519 saw Hernan Cortes lead a Spanish expedition towards Veracruz. They then moved to Tenochtitlan, the Aztec capital, where on the way they "made alliances with city-states that had tired of the oppressive rule of the Aztecs." When Cortes first arrived, the Aztecs believed that Cortes was Quetzalcoatl, the god who was supposed to return to the empire. Out of fear, the Spanish were given royalty treatment. Later, annoyed of the Spaniards who had taken the leader Moctezuma hostage; they drove the Europeans out of the city, but were hit by disease that killed most of the population. One of city-states Cortes had met, Tlaxcala, provided troops and they went in and massacred the city. The Spanish wiped out the old civilization, taking control of northern Mexico. In South America, the Inca had come to dominate a large portion of the land. A Spanish expedition led by Francisco Pizarro took advantage of the smallpox that had already hit the Inca and a civil war within the kingdom to capture Atahualpa, one of the brothers involved in the civil war. They then traveled to the Incan capital and captured it, gaining "a new colony for the Spanish Empire." After the colonies were gained from



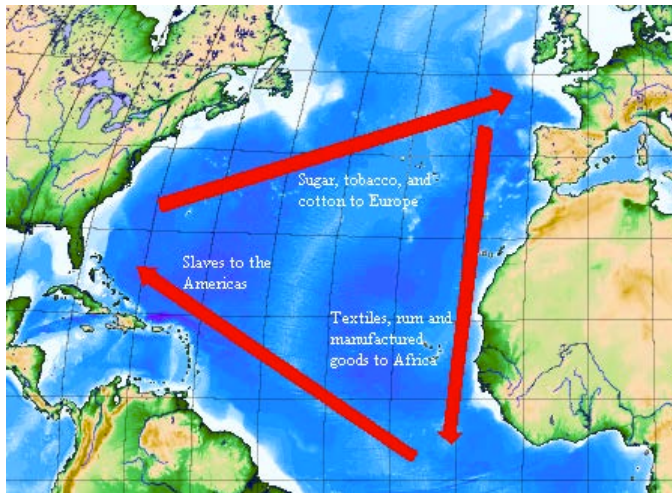
the natives in the New World, a policy of *encomienda*, or “a system that permitted the conquering Spaniards to collect tribute from the natives and use them as laborer,” was established.

Hernan Cortes led the Spanish conquering of the Aztecs.



After the Spanish and the Portuguese began world exploration, the Dutch, French, and English followed, making a huge impact on Africa, Asia, and the Americas. The Dutch began taking over many of the Portuguese forts in Africa to gain control of the trade in gold. This also allowed them to dominate Portuguese trade across the Indian Ocean. Boers began settling in South Africa, originally for trade as part of the Dutch East India Company. This new trade for the Dutch put many Africans living near the coast in danger “as the trade in slaves increased during the sixteenth through the eighteenth centuries.” The people were shipped to the New World and were forced to work on plantations. Originally, slaves were used as domestic servants but because of the recent discover of the Americas by the Europeans, this changed the jobs of being a slave. Sugar plantations were the original source of work for the African slaves sent to the America, as the triangular slave trade grew. The triangular trade involved Europe, Africa, and the Americas where the Europeans took goods to Africa to trade for slaves, and slaves were “shipped to the Americas and sold.” Europeans bought items from the Americas to take back to Europe. The trade of slaves began slowly progressing more inward until many parts of Africa were involved in the slave trade. The Middle Passage, or the term for “the journey of slaves from Africa to the Americas,” involved tight enclosed places with very poor sanitation that led to high death rates among the slaves. In the Americas, slaves from Africa also had no immunity to disease and experienced very high death rates. In Southeast Asia, the Spanish came onto the stage by gaining control of the Philippines, which served as a major trading hub for the Spanish while trading to Mexico and across the Pacific. The Dutch and English also made an emergence, but after the Dutch took control of many of the Portuguese forts, they pushed the English out of the spice market also. The Dutch started by controlling Java, but later came to control the majority of Indonesia. Many European states also attempted to establish “trade and missionary privileges,” with some of the inland states in Asia, but were eventually pushed out, with the success of the inland states coming from

more politically stable places and were not major targets for European trade as Indonesia and the others were.



The Triangular Trade had a major impact on the people in the areas involved with the trade.

In India, the English had a large amount of success in trade, which led to the appearance of the French and the Dutch. The Dutch would later leave to become involved in the spice trade, but the French wanted more, as they vied for control of "the British fort at Madras." Robert Clive was the hero for the British, saving them from the French. The British East India now was in power of the area when it came to trade.

In China, the Portuguese were first Europeans to come in contact with them since Marco Polo and before arrival, the Ming dynasty ruled over the country. Despite the greatness of the Ming, a decline was bound to occur and a peasant revolt chased the Ming dynasty out of Beijing. Later, the Manchus overthrew the revolt that had conquered Beijing and established control over China in the new Qing dynasty. Much of China's greatness came from "strong early rulers," in the Qing dynasty. Economic issues led to the crumbling of the Qing dynasty and occurred "just as Europe was increasing pressure for more trade." First the Russians from north, and following were the British who regulated the East India Company, "which served as both a trading unit and the administrator of English territories in Asia." China began to become stricter on the trading rules, and British success led to the demand for more cities to trade in, yet the demands were ignored.



The Qing Dynasty ruled over China during times of trade, which caused them to cut off contact with Europe.

The Portuguese were the first to come in contact with Japan. Japanese ports were used for trade and Jesuit missionaries, originally led by Francis Xavier, had some success in converting locals to Christianity. The Japanese were fascinated by the goods that the Europeans had and were very welcoming, but the missionaries became too involved in local politics as Tokugawa Ieyasu banished the missionaries. Later, European merchants and traders were cut off from Japan, although there was a negotiation between the Dutch and the Japanese about Hirado, which stated "Dutch ships were allowed to dock at Nagasaki harbor just once a year and could remain for only two or three months." In the Americas, the Spanish and the Portuguese were the first to establish colonial empires overseas but new competition from the Dutch, English, and French came in. The French and English controlled areas in the West Indies including Barbados, Jamaica, and Bermuda for the English, and Saint Domingue, Martinique, and Guadeloupe for the French. Plantations were run on these islands, which were worked by African slaves. The main plantations were "sugar factories" and were important for the economy of the west. The Dutch were the first to have a legit settlement in North America, where they called the area New Netherlands. "In 1664, the English seized the colony of New Netherlands and renamed it New York." The English also began settling in North America, the first colony being in Jamestown, Virginia. The British eventually had thirteen colonies in North America and some merchants "resented and resisted regulation from the British government." The French also claimed territory in North America where in 1608; Quebec was established as a settlement.

During the sixteenth century, inflation became a major problem in the economy. It had a key effect on food prices as they increased, especially evident in wheat. Because the wages of workers and agricultural laborers could not match the price increase, and the land owning aristocrats were prospering, an economic gap formed. Inflation may have been caused because of the "precious metals from the new world," or because of an increase in population. "The commercial expansion of the

sixteenth and seventeenth centuries was made easier by new forms of commercial organization, especially the joint-stock company." Similar to the modern stock market, shares were purchased by people and a board of directors ran companies. This created a large supply of capital. New banking firms arose such as the Bank of Amsterdam, which became a "hub of the European business world." Mercantilism was economic trends that led economic practices. To mercantilists, "economic activity was war carried on by peaceful means." Mercantilists believed that to measure a nation's success is determined by the amount of gold and silver, which caused a strong drive towards gaining the precious metals. Mercantilism focused on tariffs by enforcing them upon "monopolies" to protect domestic industries. Colonies were considered important for their resources and raw materials. Lastly, mercantilism included the idea that the state should be involved in some economic affairs, such as "to ensure the superiority of export goods, the construction of roads and canals, and the granting of subsidies to create trade companies."



New economic ideas were expressed in Mercantilism during this time.

## Chapter 15:

### State Building and the Search for Order in the Seventeenth Century

Overview: Inflation during this time had a very negative impact on the once flourishing European economy. Also, population increases hurt the already worsening conditions of Europe. Climate changes were up and down and the population continued to be affected by war, famine, and plague. "These problems created social tensions that came to a boil in the witchcraft craze." Witchcraft had already been viewed as dangerous since the medieval churches related it to the acts of the devil, but during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, there was an increase in the "number of trials and executions of presumed witches." Fear grew and through the use of torture, people were forced to confess of having relations to the devil. The spread of witchcraft may be caused by religion or because of social conditions during the time. Social tensions such as property owners with the poor may have caused a psychological difference. Also, old women were targeted as "witches," probably because they made an attempt to "survive by selling herbs,

potions, or secret remedies for healing.” Women may also have been a target for witchcraft because of the current thought during the time that women were naturally inferior to men. A series of religious wars and government stabilization led to the decline of witchcraft, and also led to the questioning of certain religious ideas.



Witchcraft during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries may have been caused by social turmoil.

The first half of the seventeenth century included “war that affected much of Europe.” Religious struggle between Catholicism and Calvinism was part of the cause of the Thirty Years’ War. The majority of the war occurred in the lands of the Holy Roman Empire and may have been a struggle between the Bourbon dynasty of France and the Habsburg dynasties of Spain. All of these things led up to the Thirty Years’ War as the Habsburgs wanted to control the Holy Roman Empire but the princes wanted resistance against this and turned to France as the Hapsburgs turned to Spain. The Bohemian phase is the first part of the Thirty Years’ War. Archduke Ferdinand became king and attempted to “re-Catholicize” Bohemia, much to the dismay of the people, who were primarily Calvinists. The Protestant nobles revolted against the king, as the rebels took over Bohemia. Elector Frederick V was elected as the replacement for Ferdinand. Led by Maximilian Bavaria, the Catholic league “defeated Frederick and the Bohemian hobbles at the Battle of White Mountain.” Frederick ditched after the Spanish invaded Palatinate. Ferdinand was put back onto the throne and Catholicism became the only religion in Bohemia. Following the Bohemian Phase was the Danish Phase. This phase started “when King Christian IV of Denmark, a Lutheran, intervened on behalf of the Protestant cause by leading an army into northern Germany.” An alliance between Christian, the United Provinces, and England was formed, which were all against the Catholics and Habsburgs. Ferdinand’s forces were under Albrecht von Wallenstein, who was a Bohemian nobleman and a very rich landowner. Wallenstein’s forces marched throughout Northern Germany and eventually forced a major defeat for Christian IV and the Protestants. This ended “Danish supremacy of the Baltic.” Ferdinand had a large amount of power and issued the Edict of Restitution, prohibiting Calvinist worship and regained Catholic Church property. Out of fear, the people forced “the emperor to dismiss Wallenstein.” Later, the Swedish phase occurred, as King



Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden entered the picture. Adolphus assembled a powerful army that moved across northern Germany and deeper into the state. Wallenstein was recalled to fight against Gustavus's forces and at the Battle of Lützen, the Swedish claimed victory, but lost Adolphus in the battle. Losing the strength of their army, the Swedes were driven out of Germany at the Battle of Nördlingen. Ferdinand cancelled the Edict of Restitution in hope to end the conflict, but failed as the Swedes and French were still involved. In the Franco-Swedish phase, the meaning of religious connections was crumbling as "the Catholic French were now supporting the Protestant Swedes against the Catholic Habsburgs of Germany and Spain." The Spanish defeat at the Battle of Rocroi destroyed their military power, and the French also took down armies in southern Germany, leading to the Peace of Westphalia that ended the war in Germany, but much later the Peace of Pyrenees ended the war between France and Spain.



Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden, got his nation involved in The 30 Years War.

During the 30 Years' War, France was under the rule of Louis XIII. His chief minister, Cardinal Richelieu, enforced specific policies that helped strengthen the monarchy's power. Richelieu started "by eliminating the political and military rights of the Huguenots while preserving their religious ones." This made the Huguenots into "more reliable subjects." He also did not allow the participation of intimidating nobles in government affairs. The nobles were monitored and if a conspiracy were to arise, they would be immediately crushed. Intendants were also sent to provinces to initiate orders from the government. The intendants helped strengthen the power of the monarchy, also. When it came to finances, Richelieu was not as useful, as the French finance system was already corrupt with very high taxes, like the taille, and with the money spent on the Thirty Years' War. The death of Cardinal Richelieu was followed by the death of King Louis XIII, opening the door for Cardinal Mazarin. After the death of Cardinal Mazarin, King Louis XIV took control of the throne. "Louis

and his court came to set the standard for monarchies and aristocracies all over Europe.” Louis restructured the government where he controlled it from his palace in Versailles. Louis’s main threat coming from the high nobles and princes, Louis dismissed them from the royal council and kept them out of politics. Louis dominated all of his ministers and secretaries, allowing him to control the center of the government and the “traditional areas of monarchical power,” which was “the formulation of foreign policy, the making of war and peace, the assertion of the secular power of the crown against any religious authority, and the ability to levy taxes to fulfill these functions.” Louis still did not have control over the policies of the local officials but some evidence suggests that Louis did have political and economic control over the provincial law courts, too. Louis’s religious policies were against Protestantism but mainly for political purposes. Issuing the Edict of Fontainebleau led to the “destruction of Huguenot churches and the closing of Protestant schools.” One main issue of Louis was financial problems. Luxury buildings, such as the palace at Versailles cost a lot to maintain and the cost of wars was also great. With the services of Jean-Baptiste Colbert, mercantilism was used to expand the French economy and help the development of manufacturing. Later down the road, though, the policies of Colbert were only there to benefit the king, and would eventually hurt France. The king would spend the money just as quick as it was gained, especially costly was his palace at Versailles, which served as Louis’ home, “a reception hall for state affairs, an office building for the members of he king’s government, and the home of thousands of royal officials and aristocratic courtiers. Versailles became a symbol for the French absolutist state.” The palace was also used to distract and keep high nobles and princes out of political affairs. Louis got France involved in many wars because of his royal power and the craving he had for military fame. Between the years of 1667 and 1713, Louis fought four wars. First was “by invading the Spanish Netherlands to his north and Franche-Comté to the east. The alliance between the Dutch, English, and Swedes forced Louis to ask for peace. Later he attacked the Dutch for forming the alliance, but an alliance between Brandenburg, Spain, and the Holy Roman Empire, once again, stopped Louis. Following, Louis went for the Holy Roman Empire, but was shut down by the League of Augsburg, “consisting of Spain, the Holy Roman Empire, the United Provinces, Sweden, and England.” The war between France and the League of Augsburg was long and the Treaty of Ryswick concluded the war, losing much of Louis’ gained power. Lastly, the War of the Spanish Succession took place between the closely tied France and Spain, and the alliance of England, the United Provinces, Habsburg Austria, and German states. The war went on for eleven years until it was finally ended with the Peace of Utrecht. Spain would later decline in power due to overspending by the king and the lack of government leadership. Under the Philip IV, though, Spain began to show signs of revival, mainly due to the chief minister Gaspar de Guzman, but his ideas would later fail. Spain had fought in a numerous amount of wars and was spending way too much, not to mention, “expensive military campaigns hat incited internal revolts and years of civil war.” The Dutch



would later be recognized as independent by Spain in the Peace of Westphalia in 1648.



Louis XIV had a desire for military glory, but fighting too many wars was very costly for the French King.

During the reign of Louis XIV, Prussia, Austria, and Russia began a rise to power. In Prussia, Frederick William the Great Elector was the leader and had even assembled a large army for the Prussian power. With the use of the General War Commissariat, William was able to raise taxes to pay for the army and “the Commissariat soon evolved into an agency for civil government as well.” Frederick Williams and his policies gained support from the nobles through bribery. Taking away the political power the nobles had, Williams allowed the nobles to have “unlimited power over their peasants, exempted the nobles from taxation, and awarded them the highest ranks in the army and the Commissariat with the understanding that they would not challenge his political control.” Serfdom re-emerged because of the treatment of the peasants by the nobles. When it came to the economy, William followed mercantilism and also constructed public roads and canals, the use of tariffs, subsidies, and “monopolies for manufacturers to stimulate domestic industry.” In Russia, the current societal system involved the upper class controlling the life of the middle and lower classes. Western ideas began to become part of Russian society, especially in Moscow and Peter the Great helped quicken the “westernizing process.” Peter had a great determination to make Russia more westernized and began by reorganizing the Russian army and creating a Russian navy. In the government, Peter established a Senate as a supervisor while he was not present. The lack of success from the Senate led to the adoption of boards of administrators. The fear Peter put into his bureaucrats did not achieve his hope “for a sense of civic duty.” When it came to classes, Peter forced the landowners to serve in the military or in civil offices and the Table of Ranks that he issued allowed people that were not part of the nobles to “serve the state and join the nobility.” Starting in the lowest office, a person could achieve nobility by becoming the eighth rank by working his way up the ranks. Peter used a mercantilism policy when it came to economics and he also looked to regulate the Russian Orthodox Church. “He abolished the position

of patriarch and created a body called the Holy Synod to make decisions for the church. At its head stood a procurator, a layman who represented the interests of the tsar and assured Peter of effective domination of the church.” Women had a great benefit from the Peter’s reforms by forcing upper-class Russian women to “remove the traditional veils that covered their faces,” which would make Russian society more similar to Western society by having women and men both freely involved in courts. Peter also ordered that there should be gatherings three times a week for social time where men and women could do as they please. Lastly, he “insisted that women could marry of their own free will.” To gain access to Europe, Peter attacked Sweden to gain access to the Baltic and in the Great Northern War; Russia defeated Sweden to acquire Estonia, Livonia, and Karelia.



Peter the Great had a goal of Westernizing Russia to become more European like.

Absolute monarchy was not the only form of government during the seventeenth century. In Poland, the king did not rule the aristocracy but rather the king was ruled by it. After King Sigismund III, the hope for creating a large empire failed and the state actually regressed as it became weak and decentralized. This was the result of the elective ways in Poland within “the Sejm, or Polish diet.” Because the Sejm was ruled by the nobles, the main goal of most of the members “was to ensure that central authority would not affect their local interests.” The whole system later broke down in the liberum veto, which said the Sejm meetings would be canceled by the disagreeing of one member. Poland was far from a centralized government. The United Provinces, however, and especially the seven northern provinces that resulted from the Netherlands revolt, “became the core of the modern Dutch state. The new state was officially recognized by the Peace of Westphalia in 1648.” Originally, a stadholder was left in charge of keeping order in the provinces, which at first was William of Orange. The States General, who did not want the government

as centralized, opposed this. The decentralized government remained the way the Netherlands was run for much of the seventeenth century, until 1672, where there may have been a sign of a monarchial regime in William III, but his death allowed these republican type ideas to control the Netherlands. By 1715, tough competition from England and wars with France and England, led to an economic decline in the Netherlands. In seventeenth-century Amsterdam, the inhabitant population had increased from 30,000 people in 1570 to 200,000 by 1660. The city's land size also grew from 500 to 1,800 acres. The economic success came from many ships making hub in Amsterdam, such as the Dutch West Indian and East Indian trading companies. Also, many raw materials were turned into finished goods in Amsterdam, "making Amsterdam an important producer of woolen cloth, refined sugar, and tobacco products, glass, beer, paper, books, jewelry, and leather goods," and most notably, military supplies. Amsterdam was also a financial center for trading profits, which created "large quantities of capital for investment." Lastly, Amsterdam had a very successful manufacturing force, shipyard owners, and merchants who all lived in modest ways. But towards the second half of the seventeenth century, these modest ways changed into more of a wealthy living style.

England is one of the better examples of a resistance to an absolute monarchy. It was a competition between Parliament and the king, where the Parliament would prevail in a struggling political issue. Charles I came to power following his father, James I's reign in England. Civil war began between the Parliament and the king, as the first phase was claimed by the parliament. The formation of the New Model Army gave Parliament success as Puritans fought, "who believed they were doing battle for the Lord." An example is Oliver Cromwell, who was one of the leaders of the Puritans that helped lead Parliament to victory in the first phase of the civil war by capturing King Charles I. A problem occurred, though, as the parliamentary forces split by a Presbyterian group emerging that wanted to reestablish Charles I at the throne. Charles I took the time in this opportunity to ditch England and look for the aid of the Scots. This infuriated the Cromwell and the army as a second civil war occurred. No different than the first results, the civil war ended with "Cromwell's victory, and the capture of the king," and Charles eventual execution. The monarchy in England was destroyed, "at least for the moment." Later, Charles II came along and was successful in gaining control of England and restoring the monarchy. There was an argument over whether the Anglican Church should be the only religion over if Catholicism should be allowed also. Following Charles was James II, who with his heavy Catholic views started a new conflict with Parliament. William of Orange was "invited" by several English noblemen to invade England. Seeing this as an opportunity to gain the upper hand on France, William of Orange accepted the idea, forcing James II and his family to run away to France. The Glorious Revolution that had begun in England was "not over the issue of whether there would be a monarchy but rather over who would be monarch." William and Mary, his wife, became monarchs of England, where they also accepted a declaration of rights, passed on to a Bill of Rights. This allowed Parliament to have a lot of involvement in

the government and also gave the rights that are very similar to the United States Bill of Rights. Religious problems were partly resolved with the Toleration Act that allowed the Puritan Dissenters to practice their religion openly and freely, but the Catholics were still excluded.



The Glorious Revolution led to William and Mary taking over the English Throne.

European culture flourished in this time period. In art, Mannerism was the new movement that began in Italy. Because of the current events that were occurring in Europe, there was a lot of anxiety, uncertainty, suffering, and “a yearning for spiritual experience. Mannerism reflected this environment in its deliberate attempt to break down the High Renaissance principles of balance, harmony, and moderation.” Figures painted in a Mannerism way were depicted as suffering with an impression of anxiety and confusion. The new art style spread throughout Europe and was eventually seen in the works of El Greco. Following Mannerism was the Baroque period that also began in Italy. Baroque was a combination of the Classical works with the ideas of the Renaissance art that included spiritual feelings. This was portrayed by the use of dramatic effects to boost emotions. In architecture, the Baroque style included great detail to produce awe, especially seen in churches and palaces. The latter part of the seventeenth century focused on France as the cultural center of Europe. “French late Classicism, with its emphasis on clarity, simplicity, balance, and harmony of design, was, however, a rather austere version of the High Renaissance style.” In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, theater reached a new height. Often called the Elizabethan era, the English culture saw the changes in literature, but especially when it came to playwrights, such as William Shakespeare, who used drama to express “the energy and intellectual versatility of the era.” Considered a universal genius, and “a master of the English language, he was instrumental in codifying a language that was still in transition.”



William Shakespeare expressed the emotions of his time through his legendary dramas.

#### Chapter 16:

#### Toward a New Heaven and a New Earth: The Scientific Revolution and the Emergence of Modern Science

Overview: The Scientific Revolution saw huge advancements in, you guessed it, science. Many factors affected the view of science between this time and the medieval times that helped people gain a new view on the world around them. Instead of just following what the medieval scholars did by understanding the classical works, the people of the Renaissance made advancements by using the classical works. Renaissance art also helped the progression of scientific study by the artists' desires to depict nature. There were also technological innovations and mathematics that "served to stimulate scientific activity." Inventions "of new instruments and machines, such as the telescope and the microscope, often made new scientific discoveries possible." The printing press also spread the ideas throughout Europe. Mathematics was reemphasized by the discovering of works from ancient mathematicians and was considered "the key to understanding the nature of things." Many of the great scientists that lived in the time of the Scientific Revolution were great mathematicians, also. Lastly, the belief in hermetic magic by many people was a characteristic of the Scientific Revolution.





The Scientific Revolution began with different cosmological views, built off of the ideas of Aristotle, Ptolemy, and Christian theology. Ptolemy had come up with the geocentric conception, which was the belief that the universe was made up of concentric spheres that were around a stationary earth in the middle. The spheres that surrounded the imperfect earth were crystalline substances that moved around earth. Aristotle described the spheres as heavenly bodies. Beyond the end of the spheres were the Empyrean Heaven, which is where God was and all of the saved souls. The idea of this geocentric universe was troubling to many astronomers who thought there was more to the finite idea of Ptolemy. Nicolaus Copernicus, a Polish mathematician and astronomer, came up with the heliocentric conception, or a sun-centered idea. He came up with the idea that the planets revolved around the sun, the earth was third from the sun behind Mercury and Venus, and he also stated that the moon orbited the earth. Copernicus' ideas created doubt and uncertainty "about the human role in the universe as well as God's location." Protestant reformers attacked Copernicus' idea, while the Catholic Church mostly remained silent until the works of Galileo. Although Copernicus didn't create an immediate impact, many people began to doubt the geocentric conception. Johannes Kepler's work helped in the debunking of the Ptolemaic system. Kepler, though, got a lot of his ideas off of the works of Tycho Brahe. Brahe, who had built an observatory on the Uraniborg Castle, focused on the "positions and movements of the stars and planets," and his data paved the way for Brahe to reject the geocentric conception. Although he rejected the Ptolemaic system, he did not fully accept Copernicus' ideas that the earth was in motion, also. Johannes Kepler, an assistant to Brahe, came up with the three laws of planetary motion. The laws that Kepler came up with confirmed the ideas of Copernicus and his heliocentric conception and also improved it. The first was a change of Copernicus' ideas that planets do orbit around the sun, but rather than being circular the orbits are actually elliptical. His second law states "the speed of a planet is greater when it is closer to the sun and decreases as its distance from the sun increases." Lastly, Kepler's third law "established that the square of a planet's period of revolution is proportional to the cube of its average distance from the sun." This is saying that the larger a planet's orbit is, the slower it revolves. The ideas of Copernicus put the geocentric idea on thin ice.



Copernicus, Kepler, and Brahe all contributed to the debunking of the idea of a geocentric universe.

Galileo, an Italian mathematics teacher, he was the first European to take a telescope and point it towards the sky. By using the telescope, Galileo could see mountains and craters on the moon, and also saw moons revolving around Jupiter. On top of that, Galileo observed the phases of Venus and sunspots on different planets. In *The Starry Messenger*, Galileo made Europeans aware of a new view of the universe. Because of his published book, the Catholic Church fastened down on his ideas, and ordered him to reject the ideas of Copernicus. "Galileo was told, however, that he could continue to discuss Copernicanism as long as he maintained that it was not a fact but a mathematical supposition." Fearing that the spiritual part of the universe would be lost, the church attacked the ideas of the Copernicus and Galileo, but Galileo would not accept the church's requests. Galileo was placed under house arrest and studied mechanics the rest of his life. When it came to the uniform of motion, saying that an object will move at a constant rate as long as the same force is constantly exerted upon it, but once it stops, then the object stops. Galileo changed this by saying it wasn't a constant force but a force that would accelerate the objects speed. Galileo also discovered the idea of inertia where he said "that a body in motion continues in motion forever unless deflected by an external force." Science shifted to other countries in Europe, where an Englishman, considered "the greatest genius of the Scientific Revolution," took charge.



Galileo looked to the stars, literally, and backed up Copernicus' ideas. He also made advancements in mechanics.

Isaac Newton is considered a genius and a leader of the Scientific Revolution. He invented calculus, looked into the make up of light, and worked on the law of universal gravitation. In his book *Principia*, Newton showed the mathematical proof of the existence of gravity by building off of the ideas of Copernicus, Kepler, and Galileo. His three laws of motion state that "every object continues in a state of rest or uniform motion in a straight line unless deflected by a force, the rate of change of motion of an object is proportional to the force acting on it, and to every action there is always an equal and opposite reaction." He used his three laws in planetary motion, treating them as terrestrial objects. His law of gravitation explained why planets kept orbiting in an elliptical motion. He explained how everything in the universe had a force, gravity, which caused it to be attracted to every other object.



Newton also came up with his idea of the Newtonian world machine, which combined mechanics with time, space, and motion to explain how the world operates.

In chemistry and medicine, the ideas before the Scientific Revolution included Galen's principle on the four bodily humors. Philippus Aureolus Von Hohenheim, or Paracelsus, worked to replace the idea of the four bodily humors "with a new chemical philosophy that was based on a new understanding of nature. The new philosophy was based on a new view of the universe involving macrocosm-microcosm. This view stated that proportionally, humans were a microcosm compared to the world, which was a macrocosm. He believed that humans reproduced the chemical reactions in the universe, just on a smaller scale. This made Paracelsus state that the cause of disease was not the four humors, but a chemical imbalance that affected certain areas of the body, yet could be treated. Paracelsus also added that 'like cures like,' meaning a controlled quantity of a disease could cure the disease. Originally disliked, people came to accept the ideas of Paracelsus. Andreas Vesalius focused on anatomy and the human body. He wrote the book *On the Fabric of the Human Body*, which was based on his lectures at the University of Padua. He individually studied each organ in the body and also the overall structure of the body. Vesalius corrected Galen by saying that "the great blood vessels originated [not] from the liver," but rather from the heart. William Harvey built off of the work of Vesalius by saying that "the same blood flows in both veins and arteries. Harvey's ideas were later aided by the discovery of capillaries, and his work paved the path for modern physiology. In chemistry, Robert Boyle performed a controlled experiment, one of the first scientists to do so, and came up with his law on the properties of gases. This says, "The volume of a gas varies with the pressure exerted on it." Antoine Lavoisier came up with a system that named the chemical elements, and he is considered the founder of modern chemistry.



Paracelsus helped with the development of medicine.

Women of the elite began to receive a humanist education. This included the studying of classical and Christian texts, but education for women was reserved to only the members of the elite. Margaret Cavendish, from an aristocratic background, made many achievements in science, yet was still excluded from membership in the Royal Society. Writing many texts on science, she attacked the idea that by gaining knowledge in science, humans were going to master nature. Other women that were notably involved in science were Maria Merian and Maria Winkelmann. Merian, who went to South America to observe insects, made advancement by strictly studying the reproductive and developmental cycles. Winkelmann helped assist Gottfried Kirch at the observatory in Berlin. With an attempt to get in to the Berlin Academy, she was rejected, as women faced many obstacles in the scientific world. Debates continued on about the value of women, known as the querelles des femmes. Females, because of their body structure, were later considered inferior to men, "according to science." Males still were in control of society and the Scientific Revolution affirmed this.

Rene Descartes served of great importance in European history and "began by reflecting the doubt and uncertainty that seemed pervasive in the confusion of the seventeenth century and ended with a philosophy that dominated Western thought until the twentieth century." Descartes had an epiphany and worked the rest of his life devoted to his thoughts. To start, Descartes doubted his own existence. Descartes moved forward by only accepting ideas that were proven true with reason. Descartes focused on mind and matter saying, "the mind cannot be doubted but the body and material world can, the two must be radically different." This created the Cartesian dualism between mind and body. Through the use of reason and mathematics, people would be able to understand the material world. Descartes, the father of modern rationalism, wrote many books that were eventually condemned by religious groups. His ideas changed the way Europeans viewed themselves.



Descartes used reason to gain  
Knowledge of the material world.

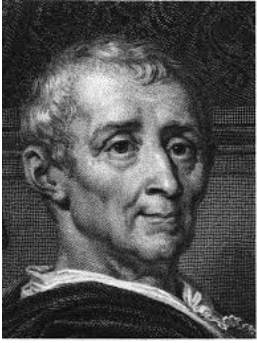
During the Scientific Revolution, the scientific method proved to be “crucial to the evolution of science in the modern world.” But just as important as the scientific method involving the evolution and spread of science, so was the scientific societies that emerged and helped spread ideas. Beginning in Italy, but best seen in England and France, scientific societies helped the communication of scientific ideas to the public. In England, the English Royal Society involved the gathering of scientists. The English society did not get as much governmental support, though, as the French Royal Academy did. The academy was under government control but gained tons of support and salaries were paid by the state. Both societies “emphasized the practical value of scientific research.” When it came to spreading the idea of science, scientific journals were used to give out experiments and other scientists and people of the public read results. The English journal, however, was more aimed toward current scientists and passed on news of scientific and academic activities. When it came to science and religion, Blaise Pascal had a different view by looking to keep them together. Pascal was a brilliant scientist and mathematician, but was also devoted to a religious life. He left a set of notes, called the *Pensées*, or his thoughts, which wanted to combine the Christianity and reason. Pascal failed to achieve his goal, as “the gap between science and traditional religion grew wider as Europe continued along its path of secularization.”



Blaise Pascal attempted to combine science and  
Christianity, as seen in the notes he left, the *Pensees*.

Overview: The Enlightenment saw a change in the way of thinking. Because of the influence of the Scientific Revolution, people thought in a more rational, scientific way, with more secular ideas. The people of the Enlightenment believed that through reason, they could understand how human society functioned. Through reason, natural law, hope, and progress, society could become more advanced and a better place. The Enlightenment has the scientific revolution to thank, because of the amount of influence it had on the ideas. Science became popular and spread to many people in Europe, including the philosophes, like Bernard de Fontenelle, who communicated the scientific ideas in a more understandable way. Fontenelle also contributed to the growing skepticism, which also led to the Enlightenment. Skepticism was toward religion. The more people that gained a scientific education, the more people began to question the truth and values of religion. Skepticism was involved with a growing secularization, as seen in the work of Pierre Bayle, who was against the "superstition, religious intolerance, and dogmatism." Bayle criticized the Bible, and the meaning that it conveyed. Skepticism was aided by travel literature. Travel books were published that described many different cultures, and even travels into other lands, such as James Cook's Travels, which talked about his journeys. The description of some of the inhabitants of other areas gave the suggestion of "natural man." Along with the religious skepticism was cultural relativism, where some intellectuals measured the European civilization compared to others. Lastly, the path to Enlightenment was paved by the two Englishmen, Isaac Newton and John Locke, by the people of the Enlightenment believing that by following Newton's laws, they could discover the natural laws that governed politics, economics, justice, religion, and the arts.

The intellectuals of the Enlightenment are called philosophes. They were not necessarily philosophers, but more like educated people, especially people aiming for social reform. The Enlightenment focused around Paris, France, where many of the Enlightenment leaders were from, called the French giants, which included Montesquieu, Voltaire, and Diderot. Montesquieu was from French nobility class. He wrote the Persian Letters, which he used to "criticize French institutions, especially the Catholic Church and the French monarchy." He attacked traditional religion, he called for religious tolerance, he was against slavery, and he advocated the use of reason. His most famous work was The Spirit of the Laws. In The Spirit of the Laws, he applied the Scientific Method to compare governments and their social and political relationships with the people. Here he characterized three kinds of governments, which are "republics, suitable for small states and based on citizen involvement; monarchy, appropriate for middle-sized states and grounded in the ruling class's adherence to law; and despotism, apt for large empires and dependent on fear to inspire obedience." Lastly, Montesquieu advocated for the separation of powers, which would allow checks and balances in the government. This meant separate executive, legislative, and judicial powers, which would keep each other's power in check.



Montesquieu was one of the three French giants.

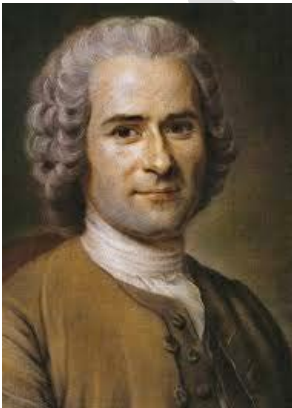
Voltaire is considered the greatest philosophe of the Enlightenment. Voltaire used England as an example to criticize the way France was running. He was against the “royal absolutism and the lack of religious toleration and freedom of thought.” In fact, he was criticized traditional religion altogether in his book *Treatise of Toleration*, but his main goal was the acceptance of all religion. Voltaire also supported deism, “a religious outlook shared by most other philosophes. Deism was built on the Newtonian world-machine, which suggested the existence of a mechanic who had created the universe.” The mechanic, who is God, has no direct involvement with the world other than creating this world-machine that runs on its own natural laws. Voltaire, who had a love for writing, settled in Ferney, near the Swiss border, where he had time to write about whatever he wanted to.



Voltaire is considered the greatest figure of the Enlightenment.

Diderot condemned Christianity as the worst of all religions because of how absurd and unreasonable it was in its teachings. Diderot’s famous contribution was an *Encyclopedia*, which had a goal to “change the general way of thinking,” and was used to express the chief ideas of the philosophes. They attacked religion and advocated for tolerance, they promoted the idea of improvements in society that would improve the way of living for the people with “more tolerance, more humane, and more people.”

The Enlightenment also saw the surfacing of the social sciences, where philosophes believed they had discovered natural laws that would explain how the human society worked. This was called “the science of man.” An example is the Physiocrats, led by Francois Quesnay, who looked to discover the natural economic laws that controlled the human society. Their first idea was land indicated wealth and wealth could only increase through agriculture. This was a rejection of money that had been seen in mercantilism. The next idea of the Physiocrats was the idea of laissez-faire, which said that government should not intervene in natural economic laws, but instead just let the economy flow by itself. Adam Smith, a Scottish philosopher, said in his book, *The Wealth of Nations*, that there are three basic principles of economics. First he was against the use of tariffs and allowing free trade. The next principle was that labor indicated a nation’s wealth. Lastly, Smith said that the government should not be involved in economics, and had only three basic functions: “to protect society from invasion, defend individuals from injustice and oppression, and keep up certain public works, such as roads and canals, that private individuals could not afford.” This laid the ground work for economic liberalism. The later Enlightenment saw the works of Rousseau. Rousseau, in his works the *Discourse on the Origins of the Inequality of Mankind*, he expressed his political beliefs that something wrong must have occurred to protect private property because originally, there were no laws or judges, and all people were equal. In Rousseau’s *The Social Contract*, “he tried to harmonize individual liberty with governmental authority.” This included the idea of general will and that people do what they wish to do. Lastly, Rousseau said that restricting a child’s education was not what should be happening but rather should advance a child’s education.



Rousseau wrote the *Social Contract*, which talked about general free will.

During the eighteenth century, a new artistic style called Rococo emerged. “Rococo emphasized grace and gentle action.” The artwork appeared more peaceful and



calm, and included the painting of natural objects, as seen in the works of Antoine Watteau. Another popular style during this time was Neo-classicism, which was influenced by the classical Greco-Roman ideas.



Antoine Watteau's Return from Cythera is an example of Rococo art.

During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, operas and oratorios, sonatas, concertos, and symphonies became more popular in European culture. Bach and Handel led baroque music style. Bach, who was German, wrote music to honor God. He is most well known for his Mass in B Minor. Handel, was also German, and was more of a secular composer, but ironically is most known for Messiah. Following Bach and Handel was the classical era in music. Haydn and Mozart were the "great innovators," of the new musical period. Mozart was a child prodigy who took opera "to new heights," such as The Marriage of Figaro, The Magic Flute, and Don Giovanni. He is considered one of the greatest composers of all time. The eighteenth century also saw the development of the novel, with writers such as Samuel Richardson and Henry Fielding contributing. There was also a dramatic change in the way history was written. History was written more secular, such as the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire by Edward Gibbon. In this time, there was also religious toleration and new religious types popped up, such as John Wesley and Methodism. Wesley stated that good works were part of salvation.



Mozart was a musical genius, composer, and child prodigy.

## Chapter 19

### Eighteenth Century: European States, International Wars, and Social Changes

Overview: European states of the eighteenth century became increasingly secularized. The idea of natural rights for all people emerged and included freedom of religion, speech, press, the right to assemble, hold property, and seek happiness. During this time, the opinion of most philosophes was that in order to preserve natural rights, there needed to be an enlightened ruler that made a good leader for a strong monarch. Because of these ideas, monarchy became a new form called “enlightened absolutism.” The economic power in Europe shifted from the cities along the Mediterranean to the cities along the Atlantic. In France, Louis XIV left the country with a vast economic debt and unhappiness among the population. France’s economy showed a little improvement, but Louis XV, failed to aid France in recovery. Louis XVI was no better, also, and the line of weak leadership would lead to a revolution. In Britain, the king and Parliament shared power, with the Parliament being dominated of members from the aristocratic class. The Parliament felt a time of patronage and bribery. The new dynasty, the Hanoverians, was established with rulers of German descent, and the lack of knowledge of the British ways, the ruler’s ministers controlled the Parliament. The first Hanover king was George I, followed by George II and III, where all of them had prime ministers rule.



The Hanoverian dynasty ruled of Britain with kings of German descent.

In Prussia, Frederick William I and Frederick II developed a bureaucracy and a military for Prussia. A class system emerged in Prussia, with the nobility class at the top, who ran the army because the officers in the army were nobles, which caused a close connection between the government and the military. Prussia eventually had achieved a very powerful army. Frederick II, known as the Great, increased the influence of Prussian nobility in the government and military. The powerful army that had been assembled was used in two wars, the War of Austrian Succession and

the Seven Years' War. With the wars, Prussia became a more unified empire. By the time Frederick the Great's reign concluded, Prussia was a force to be reckoned with. The Austrian Empire, under the Hapsburg monarchy, was one of the great European states. Empress Maria Theresa prepared Austria from the next conflict with the Prussian Empire. The Austrian Empire became more centralized and bureaucratic under Maria Theresa and she also expanded the power of the military. Joseph II, the successor of Maria Theresa, attempted to give the peasants in Austria more rights. He also tried to expand religious toleration, he angered the nobility by the reforms he tried to enact.



Frederick I of Prussia, made the Prussian state a powerhouse of Europe.

In Russia, under Catherine the Great, the nobility expanded their influence, which led to poor conditions for the Russian peasants. Catherine attempted to impose restrictions on peasants led to a revolt. The Cossacks were part of the revolt for the peasants. A member of the Cossacks, Emelyan Pugachev, helped lead part of the rebellion, gaining a large amount of support from the peasants, but in the end, his rebellion failed. Catherine repressed even more after the failed rebellion. Also under the leadership of Catherine, Russian territory expanded westward into Poland and southward into the Black Sea. In the eighteenth century, the Polish state was destroyed and was divided between Russia, Austria, and Prussia. The decline of Poland showed why a powerful, centralized monarchy was necessary for the survival of a European state. Spain changed from the Hapsburgs to the Bourbon dynasty. King Philip V ruled over the Spanish state. After the treaty of Utrecht in 1713, Austria was the dominant force in Italy, replacing Spain. In the 17<sup>th</sup> century, Sweden dominated northern Europe. Under King Gustavus III established various reforms in the Swedish state but his fate ended being assassinated by nobles who were angered by his reforms.

In the eighteenth century, the focus was on the balance of power, which is that one state can prevent another from dominating. This resulted in the creation of large armies, which would lead to conflict between the states. The eighteenth century also saw the idea of reason of state. With large armies, political disputes would be resolved by war rather than diplomacy. First was the war of the Austrian Succession, which was fought between 1740-1748. The war of Austrian Succession is credited to Maria Theresa. First, Prussia attacked Austria, which caused Maria Theresa to make an alliance with Great Britain, and France also entered the war. By 1748, the war stopped. The next war was the Seven Years' War, which is considered the first world war. It included the British and Prussians against the Austrians, Russians, and French. The war ended with a stalemate in 1763 by the Peace of Hubertusburg. The British and French also fought in India and the Americas. By the Treaty of Paris in 1763, Britain gained control of India. The Americas saw the greatest conflict of the Seven Years' War, also known as the French and Indian war. The Indians of North America allied themselves with the French because they thought higher of French traders than British settlers. But the British navy defeated the French fleet in 1759. The British, under General James Wolfe, defeated the French at Quebec and Montreal, taking control of the Great Lakes and the Ohio Valley. Under the Treaty of Paris, the French gave Canada and other territories east of the Mississippi to Britain. Spain gave Florida to Britain and by 1763; Great Britain had become the world's greatest colonial power. In the eighteenth century, warfare became more strategic because generals did not want to risk the destruction of their armies by direct confrontation.

Europe's population began to grow around 1750 because of plentiful food and better transportation to supply the food. There were also new crops from the new world. During this time, social practices were focused around the family. Primogeniture, which means treating the first son as the favorite, came under attack at this time. All children deserve their parents' attention. In the lower class, children were burdens economically, so some families resorted to infanticide, abandoning or killing their children. Many children were left at foundling homes or hospitals. It is unclear whether there was an agricultural revolution during this time. Food production increased during this time, which was another cause for Europe's population growth. More land was cultivated, livestock was increased, increased yields, and an improvement in the climate all led to the agricultural revolution. Crops were also imported from America, most notably the potato and corn. These crops were important because of their quick growth and convenient growth, especially in Ireland. During this time, public and private banks established the use of paper notes to replace gold and silver. The bank of England loaned money to the government creating a national debt, and was used to finance government undertakings, especially military finances. The Dutch Republic was the leader in European financial life, centered around Amsterdam. The most important part of European industry was textiles. A system, known as the cottage industry, allowed the quick production of textiles by working from home. The cottage industry could

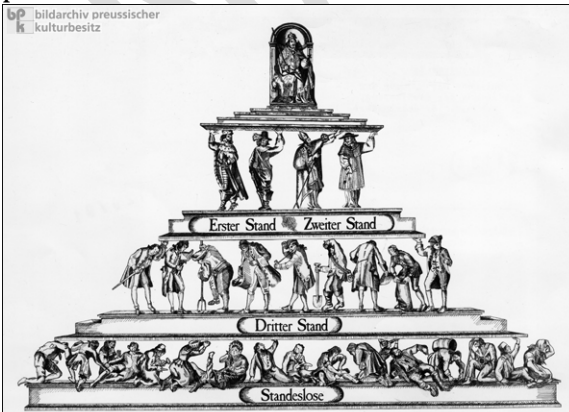
not keep up with the demand for cloth, so Richard Arkwright developed the water frame. Mechanized looms were invented, shifting the cottage industry towards factories.



Richard Arkwright's water frame helped quicken the development of textile.

In the eighteenth century, colonies were seen as valuable sources of raw materials and markets. This was the source of a global economy. Overseas trade boomed. The most profitable of the overseas trades was the African slave trade.

Social status during this time was still determined by heredity. Peasantry made up the largest social group, constituting for eighty-five percent of the European population yet owned little or no land. Local villages were the centers of peasant social life. Nobles remained privileged and had no desire to give it up. The eighteenth century was the final century before the industrial revolution and the decline of the nobility way of life. The country houses in the eighteenth century were built in the Georgian style named after the Hanoverian kings. The majority of aristocratic landowners also owned country houses. The aristocratic way of life in the eighteenth century involved travel. During this time, urban dwellers were vastly outnumbered by inhabitants of towns and small cities. Peasants resented the prosperity of towns because towns lived off of the countryside by renting land to the peasants. Aristocrats dominated the towns and cities.



Social classes remained with the nobles and

king at the top in European society.

Poverty was a highly visible problem in the eighteenth century. There was a change in attitude regarding the poor, which stated that the poor were responsible for their conditions. The problem with poverty was a serious blemish on the eighteenth century quality of life.



Poverty was a problem in the 18<sup>th</sup> century.

#### Chapter 19:

##### A Revolution in Politics: The Era of the French Revolution and Napoleon

Overview: End of Seven Years' War, Great Britain became the greatest colonial power. Britain wanted to get revenue from the thirteen American colonies, which was opposed by the colonists. July 4, 1776 was the day that the American colonists declared independence from Great Britain's rule. America formed an army, under George Washington as commander that fought in the revolutionary war. Interestingly, the war was supported by less than half of the colonial population, but assistance from France helped influence an American victory. The Treaty of Paris recognized the independence of the American colonies forming a new nation. The new nation avoided a strong central government with a constitution serving as the supreme law of the land. The constitution provided for three branches of government and a Bill of Rights. The American Revolution set an example for the events that would occur in Europe, especially in France. Lafayette, a Frenchman who helped in the American Revolution, returned to France to spread the ideas about individual liberty, which was seen in the American rights.





Under the leadership of George Washington, the colonists successfully became independent from Great Britain.

Before the French Revolution, French society was divided into three estates. The First Estate consisted of the Clergy, who owned more than ten percent of the land; the Second Estate was the nobility, who owned 25-30 percent of the land. The nobles controlled industry, courts, and the government. The Third Estate were the commoners, who with majority of population, owned only 35-40 percent of the land. Another part of the Third Estate was skilled artisans, shopkeepers, and other wage owners in the cities and towns. Food prices exceeded income in the Third Estate, causing lots of poverty and starvation. Commoners spent around one third to one half of their income on bread. Towns and cities were also home to a large group of unskilled workers. About eight percent of the population were the bourgeoisie, or the middle class, who owned about 20-25 percent of the land, but they did not have the same social and political privileges as the nobles, which they resented. The bourgeoisie and the nobility were frustrated with the monarch system, which was a factor in the revolution. Before the French Revolution, France experienced bad harvests and the beginnings in a manufacturing depression, resulting in food shortages, rise in food prices, and unemployment, all having a major impact on the Third Estate. Prior to the revolution, France was also experiencing a financial crisis. The crisis was due to costly wars and extreme spending by the monarch. The government had to borrow money, causing more debt. The banks eventually refused to lend the government money, knowing that they would not get it back. Because of the financial crisis, the government had to call a meeting of the Estates General, a French parliamentary body. The Estates General consisted of representatives from each social class with more representation from the larger third estate. The Estate General wanted a constitutional government and to take away privileges of the church and nobility. The Third Estate established the National Assembly and pushed for a constitution, but when they found themselves locked out, they gathered in a nearby tennis court and took an oath, called the Tennis Court Oath, which said that they would continue to meet until they gained the constitution they desired. Louis

XVI attempted to dissolve and disassemble the National Assembly, but was unsuccessful. The commoners started to revolt against the king. The most famous uprising was the fall of Bastille.



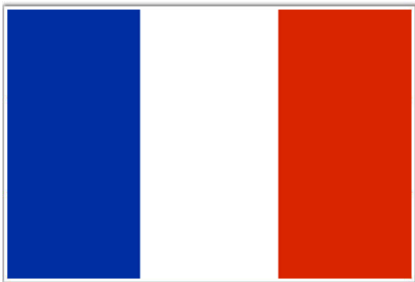
The storming of Bastille was the first revolutionary act by the National Assembly. It symbolized triumph over King Louis XVI.

Paris, by this point, was taken over by the revolutionaries who dreamed of a more constitutional government. Royal authority collapsed, and Lafayette became the leader of the National Guard, a civilian group of militia. Peasants also took matters into their own hands and revolted. As a result of the revolts, the National Assembly met again to reform France. The National Assembly chose to abolish feudalism and aristocratic privileges. The Assembly adopted the "Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen," similar to the Declaration of Independence from America to Britain. The "Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen" did not include rights for women, however. One of the most important events in the French Revolution was the women's march to Versailles, to confront the king at his palace, to demand bread, because of the large increase in price. Louis XVI promised grain supplies to the women, but with the company of the National Guard and Lafayette, the king was forced to accept the National Assembly's decrees. The Catholic Church also was affected by the revolution. Property of the church was confiscated and the church became secularized with a loss of power in a previously very Catholic French state.



The Women's March to Versailles was a very important event in the French Revolution.

By 1791, a new constitution was established by the assembly. The legislative assembly had all the power, and the king had little power. Bourgeoisie were in control of France. The Jacobins, a club, which networked the ideas of the Enlightenment as it was assimilated into the revolution, spread the ideas as a more radical minded group. During this time, other European countries were concerned about the revolution and the possibility of revolutions occurring in their country. Emperor Leopold II of Austria and King Frederick William II of Prussia issued the Declaration of Pillnitz, which gathered European monarchs to try to strengthen the king of France and to reestablish his control of the monarchy. A legislative assembly in France declared war on Austria. The French did not do so well in their war with the Austrians, leading to a fear of Prussian and Austrian invasion. The legislative assembly called for the organization of National Guardsmen. One group came from Marseilles and sang the song Marseillaise, which is now the French national anthem. The French revolution was about to become more radical as the power passed from the National Assembly to the sans-culottes.



The song Marseillaise became the French national anthem, leading the people in the war.

The sans-culottes arrested and massacred those who aided and were still in support of the king. They held a national convention, but split over the fate into to groups; the Girondins and the Mountains. The Girondins wanted to keep the king, while the Mountains, on the contrary, did not. The Mountains won and the king guillotined on January 21, 1793. The execution of the king created civil unrest. Parts of France broke away from the central authority. After the execution of the king, much of Europe was pitted against France



The Mountains beat out the Girondins and King Louis XVI was executed.

To defend itself, the National Convention formed the Committee of Public Safety, which gave the country leadership and raised one the largest army in Europe at the time. One of the most important members was Maximilian Robespierre. To meet the domestic crises, the National Convention and the Committee of Public Safety established the Reign of Terror. This involved the killing of many people who did not support the radical ideas. Queen Marie Antoinette, former wife of Louis XVI, was killed and the Girondins were also targeted. They also went after the areas that were seeking the break away from the central government. The revolutionary army was brutal and mean towards people who would not share radical ideas. Along with the Reign of Terror, the Committee of Public Safety sent representatives to explain the war to the people. Women played a role in the radical part of the French revolution by attending the National Convention and revolutionary clubs and they sought lower bread prices. Male revolutionaries outlawed the participation of women in the revolution. The National Convention also pursued a policy of de-Christianization. Churches were closed and members of the clergy were encouraged to marry. De-Christianization also backfired because of the overwhelming population of Catholic followers in the country. Also, holidays became celebrations of the revolution. Also in the revolution, there was a discussion on what to do about slavery. The National Convention abolished slavery in the colonies. In 1794, the Committee of Public Safety turned against its radical supporters and executed leaders of Paris Commune. Robespierre and his Reign of Terror was out of control. The National Convention thought they needed to destroy Robespierre before he destroys them... he was guillotined in 1794. After the execution of Robespierre, the Reign of Terror ended. The economic regulation was dropped in favor of laissez-faire. Legislature became bicameral with two chambers.

Napoleon dominated French and European history from 1799-1815. He brought the revolution to an end. Napoleon rose to military power and was promoted to general when he saved the National Convention from a Parisian mob. He led an army that defeated the Austrians and saw himself as a military genius. He became the French dictator and crowned himself as emperor. He made peace with the Catholic Church, though their power in France was very limited. In the Concordat, the church worked to maintain Napoleon's power. Napoleon made one set of laws called the Code of Napoleon, which recognized the equality of all citizens and the freedoms that were similar to many ideas of the Enlightenment, however, the code also gave the husband and father the power of the family and made women less equal. A centralized government created prefects, or departments, to control local government, and tax collection became efficient. Napoleon created a new aristocracy, but was made of the bourgeoisie instead of the pure nobility. This showed that much of the equality of the revolution was lost. Napoleon waged war on Britain, Austria, Prussia, and Russia. He created the Grand Empire and a massive army. In the Grand Empire, he still pursued the ideas of the revolution such as equality and religious toleration. The Grand Empire collapsed, as Great Britain survived because of the power of Britain's navy at Trafalgar. A surge of nationalism also led to his defeat the French became very hated, fueling an even stronger patriotism in other countries to deny being taken over. In 1812, Napoleon decided to invade Russia. His Grand Army entered Russia while the Russian forces retreated inside the country. Burning villages and towns prevented the Grand Army from finding food and resources, defeating the French forces and causing Napoleon to retreat, collapsing Napoleon's power throughout all of Europe. The Bourbon monarchy was restored in the leadership of Louis XVIII. But Napoleon raised another army and looked to attack Allied forces stationed in Belgium, but he lost to the British and Prussian army.



Napoleon Bonaparte had a great influence on



European civilization during this time.

## Chapter 20:

### The Industrial Revolution and Its Impact on European Society

The Industrial Revolution began in Britain sometime after 1750. By 1850, it made Great Britain the wealthiest country in the world. It began with the agricultural revolution, which saw advancements in farming techniques and equipment and new types of crops. Another factor for the industrial revolution in Great Britain was a ready supply of capital. Britain also had industrial entrepreneurs, which had a desire for wealth and economic success. Britain also had supplies of imported minerals and other mineral resources. Transportation also played a big role in the beginning of the industrial revolution because new modes could carry resources. Government was favorable to business and Britain had expanded markets, including the Americas, Africa, and the East in Asia. The cotton industry took a major step in the industrial revolution by James Hargreaves's spinning Jenny and Richard Arkwright's Water frame. Edmund Cartwright invented the power loom, which also helped the advancement of the cotton industry. James Watts' steam engine revolutionized the production of goods as it was applied to manufacturing, particularly cotton. The steam engine was a tireless source of power that depended on coal, which was very abundant in supply. Iron industry was also transformed in Britain. Puddling, a new system of producing iron developed by Henry Cort, involved the use of coke, derived from coal, to make a more pure iron. Transportation facilities improved in Britain such as roads, canals, and railways, which were transformed by the steam engine. George Stephenson's Rocket became the first public railway line moving at a breath taking 25 miles per hour. Railway construction expanded as networks were developed all across Great Britain. Railroads were the perfect symbol of the Industrial Revolution. The factory became the chief means of organizing labor during the Industrial Revolution. Factory owners could not let the expensive machinery stand idle, so employees had to work shifts. A new factory discipline was developed. Factory owners disciplined their employees with fines and dismissals. Religion also helped the industrial revolution stating that laziness was sinful. The Great Exhibition of 1851 in Britain showed the industrial advancements that the country had made and Britain became the world's first industrial nation.



The Great Exhibition of 1851  
showed off the industrial advancements of



## Great Britain.

Great Britain's industrialization spread to other European countries and the United States, but not as efficient as Great Britain. The low countries of France and Germany did not share some of the advantages that made Britain's industrial revolution possible. They lacked transportation and the business attitude of the British. Also, the countries were in upheaval because of the wars of the French Revolution and Napoleonic era. They also lacked technical knowledge, as they tried to steal ideas from Britain. Skilled British entrepreneurs taught other Europeans. As a result, the rest of the Continent achieved technological skills and became more industrialized. Governments began to play a significant role in promoting industrialization, as they provided the costs for technical education, provided grants for entrepreneurs and also constructed roads, canals, and railroads, along with widened river channels. Governments also imposed tariffs on British goods to protect their own goods. Another significant difference between the British and the rest of the Continental industrialization was the role of the joint-stock investment bank on the Continent. They took savings from many depositors and joined them to create a large supply of capital that could be reinvested back into industry. The industrial revolution on the Continent occurred in three major centers, Belgium, France, and the German states. Cotton played a very significant role in industrialization of the Continent but the Continental countries mainly were involved iron and coal of heavy industry. On the Continent, the steam engine was used primarily in mining and metallurgy, in Britain, the industrial revolution was primarily based on cotton, yet they still dominated other categories of industry. By 1860, population in the United States had grown larger than Great Britain's, The United States also experienced its own Industrial Revolution. They developed the American system where they made interchangeable parts for a product. The United States built roads and relied on the steamboat in large bodies of water, especially in the Mississippi valley, but the most important development was the railroad. In the United States women comprised more than 80% of the workers in the textile factories. Factory owners would hire entire families to work in their industry, Because there was not enough population to support the industrial revolution in the United States, European immigrants appeared in large numbers. By 1860, the United States was well on its way to being an industrialized nation. Ten percent of the population, however, held 80% of the wealth. Although the rich got richer, the poor did not get poorer because of the increase in their purchasing power. During this time, Russia remained largely rural and agricultural; there was not much of a middle class in Russia. The industrialized nations of Europe worked to prevent industrialization to its colonies. The industrialization altered social life in Europe and the rest of the world. Populations increased, government was taking census, and the key to this expansion of population was the decline in death rates. There was a drop in death from famines, epidemics, and war, and the ordinary death rate declined because of the increase in food supply. Population involved in

manufacturing, mining, or building increased as countries became more industrialized.



The railroad proved to be a significant part in the advancement of the Industrial Revolution.

Ireland was the most oppressed area in Europe at this time. The Catholic peasant population of Ireland rented from the British Protestant land lords, and they cultivated the potato, which was easy to grow and nutritious. Population of Ireland increased, but Ireland had too much on the potato for survival. The summer of 1845 saw the potato crop in Ireland being struck by blight, due to a fungus, causing a Great Famine that decimated the Irish population. Many Irish emigrated to the United States.

During this time, much of the population emigrated from the rural areas to towns and cities. Cities were becoming places for manufacturing and industry. Half the British population by 1850 lived in towns and cities. The dramatic growth of cities produced miserable. This was especially true in the center of the cities. Sanitary conditions were appalling and the burning of coal blackened towns and cities with soot. As described by Charles Dickens, "A long suburb of red brick houses- some with patches of garden ground, where coal-dust an factory smoke darkened the shrinking leaves, and coarse rank flowers; and where the struggling vegetation sickened and sank under the hot breath of kiln and furnace." There was also the adulteration of food, which means that chemicals were added to bread to make it look white, and beer and milk were watered down, and red led was substituted for red pepper. During this time, the well-to-do were worried that the masses, because they were poor, could rebel, so they supported the urban reform. Edwin Chadwick became the head of the Poor Law Commission and determined that many of the conditions causing disease could be fixed. He advocated for better sewer drainage, removal of garbage from streets, and improved water supply to create better sanitary conditions. The National Board of Health was established to take care of unsanitary conditions.



Worker living conditions were Very unsanitary during the Industrial Revolution.

The rise of Industrial capitalism produced a new middle class, which included industrial entrepreneurs. The new entrepreneurs were from incredibly diverse social origins, such as religious minorities, "Quakers." Increasingly, the new industrial entrepreneurs such as bankers and owners of factories and mines amassed great wealth. Workers in the industrial factories faced terrible working conditions. They had to work long hours, no security of employment, and no minimum wage. Cotton mills were the worst, with hot temperatures and dirty, dusty, and unhealthy conditions. Coalmines were dangerous with cave-ins and explosions and gas fumes. Child labor was exploited, while children made up a large part of the labor supply. Especially terrible was the use of so-called pauper apprentices, when orphans were left under church supervision, but rather taking care of them, they sent the kids to work in factories and mines. Laws were passed to remedy some of these child abuse problems, but did not deal with small workshops or non-factory trades. By 1830, two thirds of the cotton labor force was women and children. During this time, laws were passed to limit work hours of children and women. Under the Poor Law Act of 1834, workhouses were established, for the jobless poor people. The workhouses can be easily compared to prisons. During the industrial revolution in the first half of the nineteenth century, the gap between rich and poor was widening. So industrial workers would have to wait until the latter part of the nineteenth century to gain benefits of the industrial revolution. Workers looked to the formation of labor organizations to fight for decent wages and working conditions. They formed trade unions to fight for the improvements, even willing to strike to attain their goals.

Michael Nakamura

AMES

May 2014



The use of child labor and the poor  
Working conditions led to a change of laws  
And even the formation of trade unions.

Robert Owens was one of the trade unionist leaders, but did not gain the same success as the Amalgamated Society of Engineers, because the ASE asked for smaller benefits, and practical gains. The Luddites smashed their factory machines, believing that it threatened their livelihood. During this time, a movement known as Chartism was a political movement of working men. Its aim was to achieve political democracy, demanding universal male suffrage. Chartists demanded the right for universal male suffrage to vote for Parliament, periodic elections of Parliament, and to lower property qualifications required to run for Parliament. Chartism failed.



The People's Charter had many demands that were ignored.

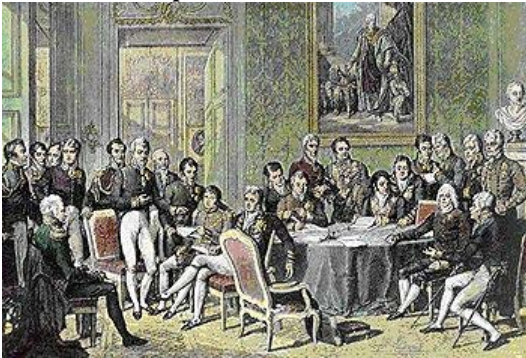
## Chapter 21:

### Reaction, Revolution, And Romanticism 1815-1850

#### Overview:

Beginning of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, there were ideologies of conservatism, liberalism, nationalism, and socialism. Conservatism was restoring monarchs as the only guaranteed way to keep order in society. Conservatism followers, such as de Maistre, believed in organized religion as a way to keep social order and were fully against revolutions and representative government, attributes that are seen in revolutionary France. Community was a higher priority over individual rights; "society must be organized and ordered, and tradition remained the best guide for order." (Pg. 636) Because of the conservative domination, many liberals and nationalists began revolting for change to gain new rights. In liberalism, individuals

were given more liberty by the government. Economic liberalism was Laissez Faire, which states that the government should not intervene in the people's economic rights. Political Liberalism was the protection of civil liberties, a person's basic rights. Freedom of assembly, speech, press, and arbitrary arrest and the freedoms should be typed up in some form of document like a constitution. In nationalism, the idea that people were united as a "nation" through common institutions, traditions, language, and customs. Focused on an individual's "primary political loyalty." Utopian socialism: against private property and the competitive spirit of early industrial capitalism. Wanted a new social organization.



The Congress of Vienna had a main goal of establishing and sustaining peace in Europe.

The Congress of Vienna: Leader was Prince Klemens von Metternich; the Congress of Vienna's goal was to create a balance of power throughout the empires in Europe to prevent one country from dominating the continent and keeping peace throughout the empires. Principle of legitimacy was the idea that restoring monarchs would reestablish peace and stability. Principle of legitimacy was mainly ignored and the rearranging of land and boundaries is what balanced the powers. France was still largely feared as the nation that could disrupt peace in Europe and was carefully monitored, even with foreign soldiers being placed in the country to hold down any type of revolution. The peace arrangements among the countries led to conservatism, first seen with Edmund Burke saying that no person has the right to ruin the "partnership" - meaning the country - and taking it away from future generations. Later, Joseph de Maistre said that absolute monarchy was the only way to guarantee order in society.

Concert of Europe: Great Britain, Russia, Prussia, and Austria formed the quadruple alliance, which led to the start of the Concert of Europe. They met every year for four years and even pulled troops out of France and letting them in creating the quintuple alliance. The goal of the Concert of Europe was to keep peace throughout Europe because of the growing fear of revolution and war. Later, uprising started in Italy and Spain, which led to Metternich creating the principle of intervention. This meant that a country that was dealing with revolution would be "assisted" by foreign troops. This rule, disagreed upon by Great Britain, restored

Ferdinand I to the throne in Naples and Ferdinand VII to the throne in Spain.

Because of Britain disagreed, the Concert of Europe broke down.

In the Americas, North America had mostly been freed from European rule in the 18<sup>th</sup> century by the American Revolution, except in Latin America remained under control of the Spanish and Portuguese. When Napoleon had toppled the Bourbon monarchy in Spain, this weakened the rule over its colonies. This led to Argentina ridding itself of royal power and gaining its nation's independence. Simón Bolívar led Venezuela to a struggle for independence as he was called, "the Liberator." He led forces to free both Colombia and Venezuela. Jose de San Martín freed Chile and teamed up with Bolívar to finish off the Spanish forces. Mexico and Central America gained freedom and Brazil's independence was recognized by Portugal. By 1825, nearly all of Latin America had been freed. The Continental European powers wanted to send troops to fight back but Britain said no and even had a naval fleet defending the area. James Monroe in the United States had also wrote the Monroe Doctrine telling the European nations that they could not intervene anymore in the New World. The Continental powers backed off. This benefited Britain the most because the Americas was filled with raw materials and natural resources that were used during the Industrial Revolution. Great Britain came to dominate the Latin American economy.

The Greeks used the principle of intervention in their favor as they revolted against the ruling Ottoman Empire. The Greeks had maintained their religion and language and the people began to go towards a more liberal side. Other states began assisting the Greeks' struggle in their revolt as Britain, France, and Russia all fought against the Ottoman Empire. Those states got to choose the fate of Greece, which they chose to make it an independent kingdom. The Greek revolt was a rare successful revolt, as conservative domination remained the norm throughout most of the European States as the Bourbon family was restored to France, Italy, and Spain.

In 1830, forces of change were attempting to dissolve the conservative order in most European states. This would lead to liberals and nationalists starting revolutions, or at least the idea and threat of a revolution, to reform the old order. In France, Charles X took many of the freedoms loved by the liberals away. This immediately spurred a rebellion called the July Revolution. As chaos grew, Charles X ran away to Britain giving the throne to his cousin Louis-Philippe. Monarchy had been restored in France. Louis-Philippe formed a bourgeois monarch because most of his political support came from the upper middle class. This was because many changes that occurred in the Constitution came to favor the upper bourgeoisie. Although he reduced the financial qualifications for voting, the standard remained very high only allowing the wealthiest people to vote. This was a rip off to the lower working class that helped overthrow Charles X. During this time, yet again, the French Revolution gave hope to more ethnicities as even Belgium, Poland, and Italy had revolutionary outbursts, although these revolutions were unsuccessful.



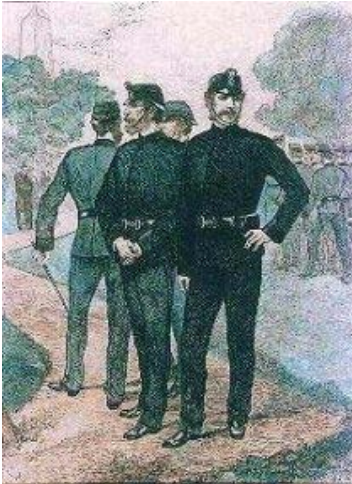


Louis-Philippe established the  
Bourgeois monarchy in France

Due to many complaints by the industrial leaders who were against the electoral system, the Whigs in Britain had to answer the demands. This led to the Reform Act of 1832 in Great Britain. The Reform Act changed the voting for British Parliament. Taking away the voting rights of many run down areas and giving them to new towns and cities, the urban communities with more rich industrial leaders. Also, similar to the bourgeois monarch of Louis-Philippe, the property qualifications were changed, but once again in favor of only the rich and wealthy people of Great Britain.

As revolutions and rebellions continued to occur throughout Europe, crime also increased. This may be the product of terrible living conditions, and a growing amount of poverty and unemployment. Property crimes were a serious problem as many middle-class people began to fear for their security and were threatened by the idea of property crime. This led to new police forces that were supposed to defend people from crimes. The police forces were a big change because states now had well-trained, specialized officers who were supposed to enforce the law and “preserve property and lives, maintain domestic order, investigate crime, and arrest offenders.” Police became accepted in many societies in Europe. New police forces were first seen in France. The police were given blue uniforms and were equipped with a white cane and saber. They were supposed to maintain order in society. In Britain, police forces were resisted for a long time. But the system the British used proved to be unsuccessful in crime prevention and keeping order, so they turned to

uniformed police. These policemen were later known as bobbies. Their primary goal was crime prevention but they also helped clean up the streets and keep a cleaner environment. This improved living conditions in Britain. Later, police systems spread, most notably to Germany, where they were called the Schutzmannschaft. These were modeled after the London police but changed from a civilian body to more of a military-type force. The Schutzmannschaft were equipped with many weapons including swords, pistols, and brass knuckles. They appeared as if they were armed to go to war.



British bobbies kept order  
In their society

In 1848, revolutions continued to spread across Europe. This began, once again, in France. A depression in France in 1846 made life very difficult for the lower middle class workers and peasants. Unemployment was high yet the government headed by Louis-Philippe refused to make changes. Adolphe Thiers led a group of radical republicans and socialists that grew to oppose Louis-Philippe and his lack of leadership. This group also included some upper middle class people that wanted to start out by getting rid of the power of Guizot, the leader of the Party of Resistance. Political banquets were used instead of rallies that called for political change. As Louis-Philippe attempted to stop the banquet on February 22 in 1848, the people still attended as "students and workers threw up barricades in Paris." Louis-Philippe could not form another ministry and left to Britain. This established a temporary government that included groups of moderate and radical republicans. It also had a socialist Louis Blanc. The government said that universal male suffrage elected the people to create a new constitution. With the influence of Blanc, workshops were established for the less fortunate people but these became very costly. The moderate republicans and the radical republicans had a growing disagreement. The moderate republicans had the majority of support from the people and took up most of the seats in the National Assembly. As workshops became too expensive, they were closed causing a huge uprising from the working-class as a revolt had started. After it was crushed, a new constitution established a republic with a unicameral

legislature that was elected by universal male suffrage, and a president that served for four years, which was also elected by universal male suffrage. The president that was elected turned out to be Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, or the nephew of Napoleon. Later he would become Emperor Napoleon.

German states also revolted in 1848. Many German rulers were forced to promise new constitutions that included the rights of free press, jury trials, and many other aspects of liberalism. "King Frederick William IV agreed to abolish censorship, establish a new constitution, and work for a united Germany." The German states got a benefit as many governments changed to allow elections by universal male suffrage, which would elect an all-German Parliament. They would meet in Frankfurt where the main goal was to reform in favor of liberalist and nationalist ideas and to organize a constitution for a united Germany. Austria eventually backed out which left the only option of Kleindeutsch, or small Germany. Eventually, though, Frederick William IV also backed out as emperor of the Germans, which split the Frankfurt Assembly and it broke apart.

In the Italian states, Giuseppe Mazzini led the organization called Young Italy. Mazzini used nationalism to get the hearts of the people and too fight for a united Italy. This led to a number of uprisings in many Italian states as many rulers had to promise a constitution. Although all of this occurred, many Italian rulers would later manage to regain their throne in their states. The lone survivor, Piedmont, was the only one able to sustain its liberal constitution.

The Frankfurt Assembly which had a goal of creating a united Germany.



Throughout this whole time period, a new culture came about called Romanticism. Romanticism went off the idea that reason was no more important than intuition, feeling, emotion, and imagination as other ways of knowing. There were many Romantic writers who had an emphasis on emotion, sentiment, and inner feeling. An example of a Romantic writer is Johann Wolfgang von Goethe. Individualism is also a characteristic of Romanticism. This was "an interest in unique traits of each person." They had an inner drive that made many Romantics reject the middle-class customs. In Romanticism, when sentiment and individualism came together, there was the idea of the Romantic hero, a person who was willing to go against the common social conventions and sacrifice his life for a good cause. This

Michael Nakamura  
AMES  
May 2014

is seen in Thomas Carlyle's writing, although the Romantic hero did not destroy himself. There was also a lot of fascination of the past, which was expressed in many ways. Local fairy tales from the Grimm brothers and also the revival of Gothic architecture is a way this is shown. There was also Gothic literature, which could be seen in Edgar Allan Poe or Mary Shelley's writing, which were short horror stories. Mary Shelley is most known for Frankenstein. Poetry was also important in Romanticism. This was to be a direct expression from one's soul. Poetry also unlocked the love of nature that was a key characteristic in Romanticism, which led to the idea of pantheism, which related nature and God. During Romanticism, science was criticized. From the thoughts of Romanticists, science left no room for the imagination or for the human soul. Art was also big in Romanticism. It was said that to them, all artistic expression was a mirror of the inner feelings of an artist. An example is Friedrich. Through his paintings we can see the interest with nature as he painted landscapes that included mountains, trees, and many other aspects of nature. In Turner, landscapes are also seen which were used to convey moods. Lastly, Delacroix's work uses "theatricality and movement with a daring use of color." In music, Romantics thought of it as the best way to express human emotions. This was seen in one of the greatest composers of all time, Ludwig van Beethoven. "For Beethoven, music had to reflect his deepest inner feelings." Romanticism also contributed to the revival of religion, especially Catholicism. There were many conversions to the Catholic faith during this time.

Friedrich's *Man and Woman Gazing at the Moon* showed landscape and the love of nature.



Chapter 22:

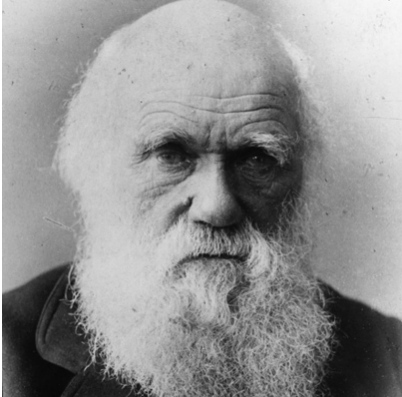
### An Age of Nationalism and Realism 1850-1871

#### Overview:

The years between 1850 and 1870 experienced two major developments intellectually. These were in the field of scientific knowledge and a change to Realism from Romanticism. Realism was a focus on the material world, not the inner feelings like Romanticism. In science, the Scientific Revolution from earlier had a huge impact to affect the mid-nineteenth century except up until now; the science was only for the elite who had gained an education. During the time between the Scientific Revolution and the mid-nineteenth century, there were technological advancements that benefited science and there were new discoveries that weren't even imagined before. An example is the steam engine, which led scientists to thermodynamics. Thermodynamics were important during the nineteenth century and biology was just as equal with Louis Pasteur coming up with the germ theory. Pasteur's germ theory is said to have led to "modern scientific medical practices. Besides Pasteur, many other great advancements were made, such as Dmitri Mendeleev, who classified all of the material elements that were known by their atomic weights, and Michael Faraday, helped with electricity by discovering electromagnetic induction. Advancements in science led to a "growing faith in the benefits of science." This caused an increase in secularization and the growth of materialism. Materialism was "the belief that everything mental, spiritual, or ideal was simply a result of physical forces." Materialism aided the development of the theory of organic evolution, which was developed by Charles Darwin. Darwin did not believe in the idea that everything was a unique creation, but rather believed that animals evolved and changed overtime to adapt to their environment. Darwin incorporated Thomas Malthus's idea that there will be a larger population in species than what can survive so there will be a "struggle for existence." Darwin used this theory to say that the species that are most fit to survive will succeed and those who aren't will die out and go extinct. But the struggle for existence includes slight changes in physical condition to suit the environment, which is the idea of natural selection. Gradually, Darwin's theory was accepted. During this time, there was also a revolution in health care, which included new ways to perform surgery, new public health measure, and new medical schools where women worked hard to get into and Elizabeth Blackwell "achieved the first major breakthrough for women in medicine." Realism replaced Romanticism, at first as a new style of painting. In art, Realism showed every day life of an average person, no matter what occupation they had. An example is in Gustave Courbet's *The Stonebreakers*. In literature, realism had the idea of writing about ordinary characters from real life, with real places, and without the use of language that caused feeling because realism literature was supposed to be a thorough and accurate observation or description of something. An example is Charles Dickens, who wrote about "the lower and middle classes in Britain's early industrial age.



Charles Darwin came up with the Theory of organic evolution.



Between 1850 and 1871, the economic expansion because of the British Industrial Revolution created economic success, especially seen in the growth of the markets. On the Continent, countries still remained behind Britain in industrial advancement, but when the time for progression came, it was the development of a complex railroad system that helped the economic growth on the Continent. Although iron production increased, Britain still ruled over that area of production. Later, many other industries including textile, mining, and metallurgical industries that were located on the Continent made a quick transition to the steam engine. Waterways that were not restricted and did not have tolls allowed for the negotiation of trade treaties where the amount of money on tariffs was debated. Also, joint-stock investment banks helped create a ready supply of capital that could be reinvested back into industry. Later, the idea of Marxism was developed. Karl Marx who wrote the Communist Manifesto expressed that eventually, the proletariat, or the industrial middle class will overthrow the bourgeoisie who they had to listen to. Marx predicted that after the proletariat overthrew the bourgeoisie, a dictatorship would form which would "reorganize the means of production. Following, a classless society would form as the bourgeoisie would vanish and that the classless society would help in the advancements of "science, technology, and industry and to greater wealth for all."

In France, the revolutions had led to the election of Napoleon III. Napoleon was a very clever politician who understood the popular forces during his time. He had a strong desire for personal power and started his work up in the ranks. His first step was to win the support of the people of France. After being rejected by the National Assembly to revise the constitution and make a run for reelection, troops were used to gain control of the government. He restored universal male suffrage and asked the French people to alter the governmental structure and elect him as president for ten years. This gained popularity among the people, as he was now President Napoleon. Just a year later he asked the people of France, again, for the restoration of the empire. This also was given a yes, as he was now Napoleon III.



Napoleon III was the head of an authoritarian government where he had control over the armed forces, police, and civil service. This meant, "Only he could introduce legislation and declare war." There was the Legislative Corps, which appeared to be a representative government that was elected by universal male suffrage, but they were given little to no say in governmental affairs. Early on, Napoleon III had amazing success that was the result of economic prosperity and some of his own policies. A main economic policy of Napoleon was to use government resources to help the national economy and encouraged industrial growth. The resources of the government were used to construct railroads, harbors, roads, and canals. Napoleon also provided hospitals and free medicine to the working class and promoted better living places for them. He also renovated Paris into a more modern city with the assist of Baron Haussmann. As people began to oppose his rule, Napoleon III liberalized his government. This began with reaching out to the working class and allowing trade unions and the right to go on strike. He also reformed the government by allowing campaigners of the Legislative Corps more freedom and gave the Legislative Corps more say in the state affairs, and this included the budget. The failures of Napoleon III's foreign policies led to the crumbling of his empire. One of these was the attempt to control the markets in Mexico. As Napoleon left French troops in Mexico with Archduke Maximilian of Austria who was chosen to be the emperor of Mexico, they were later needed back in France to fight in a war leaving the emperor without an army. The people of Mexico executed Maximilian. Napoleon III also participated in the Crimean War. His goal was to be gone of the peace restrictions and take France to the top of the authority of European powers.

Napoleon III



Crimean War: The Crimean war was fought between the Ottoman Empire who had control of southeastern Europe, and the Russian Empire to the north. During the beginning of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, the Ottoman Empire was on the decline as it had begun to lose authority over its provinces in southeastern Europe. Many European powers found an interest in this. The Russians sought more power while Austria was looking for more land. Britain and France had an interest in the commercial opportunities and naval bases in the eastern part of the Mediterranean. War erupted between the Ottoman Empire and the Russian Empire when the Ottomans refused the request of the Russians who "Demanded the right to protect Christian shrines in Palestine." When the conflict could not be resolved through negotiations, the Ottomans declared war on Russia. The following year, Great Britain and France

declared war on Russia. This was mainly because of the fear that Russia could gain so much power and upset the balance between the European forces, which could threaten British naval power in the eastern Mediterranean. Napoleon III felt that Russia had somehow offended and insulted the French at the Congress of Vienna and that they should be the true protectors of the Christians. Russia, thinking they had the support of Austria but guessed wrong, were now fighting against three powers. The British and French attacked the Crimean peninsula but the fighting was poorly planned. After the death of Tsar Nicholas I, Alexander II, his successor, sued for peace. The Treaty of Paris was signed and Russia was forced to accept that the Black Sea was neutral and had to give up Bessarabia. During the war, almost 250,000 soldiers died while 60% of that came from disease, especially cholera. Florence Nightingale helped Britain by keeping strict sanitary conditions and by helped as a nurse along with other trained middle-class women. The Concert of Europe and the relationship among the European powers were broken. Austria's refusal to help the Russians broke their friendship, which made Russians step out of European affairs while Britain stepped back and had little to do with the Continental powers. Austria was left with no friends and because of all of this; the unification of Italy and Germany was made very possible.

The Crimean War made possible the unification of Italy and Germany.



In 1850, Austria still controlled the Italian Peninsula. Piedmont gained the attention as the best hope for the Italians to achieve unification. Under King Charles Albert, Piedmont did not seem likely to “supply the needed leadership,” but when Victor Emmanuel II became the new king he named Camillo di Cavour his prime minister. Cavour shared liberal ideas and favored a constitutional government. As prime minister, he had a policy of economic expansion that encouraged the construction of roads, canals, and railroads and to expand credit and fuel investment to assist businesses, this led to an increase in government revenues that Cavour was able to use for the assembling of a large army. Knowing that Piedmont alone couldn't fight off Austria, Cavour turned to the French for help and came to an agreement with Napoleon III where he agreed to help Piedmont. The agreement included Nice and Savoy going to France and Prince Napoleon, Napoleon III's cousin, would be married

to King Victor Emmanuel's younger daughter and he would be given his own kingdom. Cavour forced the Austrians to attack Piedmont, which set off the fighting, French made the first two blows against Austria but then backed out fearing that Prussia may support Austria. This angered Cavour but when nationalists took over many northern Italian states, Cavour was more positive. In southern Italy, Giuseppe Garibaldi, who had supported Mazzini and the Young Italy plan, raised an army of a thousand Red Shirts," or volunteers, and went to Sicily to assist a revolt against the Bourbon king. Garibaldi was outnumbered, but his troops out fought the opposition and took down Naples and the Two Sicilies. Cavour, though, had to stop Garibaldi from marching into Rome fearing that the French would begin to fight against them. The army took down the Papal States and on March 17, 1861, Italy was a new kingdom, although it wasn't unified all the way. Venetia was still occupied by Austria and Rome was still under French control but both of these were taken care of in the Austro-Prussian war, when Venetia was gained and in the Franco-Prussian War, where French troops withdrew from Rome.

Between 1850-1870, many reforms occurred throughout different states in Europe. In Russia, the defeat in the Crimean War showed the conservative order that controlled it that Russia was beginning to fade out of the scene as a major European power. Tsar Alexander II had to look at the Russian social structure to see the problem in the Russian system. Serfdom continued to be a major problem in Russia as peasants, who were part of a failing and corrupt system, were being taken advantage of. The landowners in Russia used serf labor as a production method, which was falling economically behind, compared to rest of Europe. These peasants that made up the majority of Russia's population were uneducated and did not have the skills and capability to handle advance machinery and weapons used in war. Also, many peasants were unhappy with the current ways in Russia leading to peasant revolts. Alexander II was able to recognize this and knew that change had to occur. The emancipation edict was made official by Alexander II on March 3, 1861. This allowed peasants to own property, marry by choice, and allow them to use the liberties of the law courts. Their ownership, though, was limited as the government provided the land for the peasants. The government would purchase it from landowners except the landowners kept most of the good arable land leaving the poor quality land to the peasants. This made it so the peasants couldn't support themselves. Also, the peasants were expected to eventually repay the government. "The authority of their mir, or village commune" ensured this. The mir was "collectively responsible for the land payments to the government." Indirectly the peasants didn't own their own land but instead the village commune owned it. Other reforms in Russia included a system of zemstvos, or local assemblies. These allowed some sort of self-government where the representatives to the zemstvos were elected from all sorts of people, including peasants, but because of property qualifications, the nobles that voted were given the advantage. The zemstvos were limited power to provide public services. They could charge taxes for these services but were often interrupted by bureaucrats who did not want self-government. This

crushed the hope of the liberals in Russia. Legal reforms of 1864, on the contrary, were. Russia also felt many more reform movements, most popular coming from Alexander Herzen who came up with the movement populism. His slogan was "Land and Freedom" which explained his idea that Russian peasants could trigger a social reform. He believed that "the peasant village commune could serve as an independent, self-governing body that would form the basis of a new Russia." The goal of populism was to use peasants to create a new society. The lack of peasant support led to violent means, though, as Vera Zasulich advocated the use of violence to go against the rule. A group of radicals known as the People's Will, who were encouraged by Zasulich, assassinated Alexander II. During this time, the American Civil war had begun to heat up as the North and South split causing to the outbreak of a very violent war. Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation freed the slaves as on April 9, 1865, Robert E. Lee's Confederate army was forced to surrender to "Ulysses S. Grant's Union army.

In Austria after the Habsburgs had dealt with the revolutions in 1848-1849, the act of emancipation, which had "freed the serfs and eliminated all compulsory labor services," was the only remaining result of the revolutions. Growing industrialization was leading to economic and social change. This was seen in the urban society, discontent in the laboring class, and a new industrial middle class. 1851 saw revolutionary constitutions abolished and the establishment of a system of centralized autocracy. With Alexander von Bach as leader, "local privileges were subordinated to a unified system of administration, law, and taxation implemented by German-speaking officials." Also, Hungary was forced to have the rule of military officers, and in the state church was made the Catholic Church and was given control of education. Emperor Francis Joseph made it so the elections led to a German-speaking majority, which would hurt the ethnic minorities, especially the Hungarians. In the Austro-Prussian war, Austrians were forced to face Hungarian nationalists. Later, the Ausgleich was negotiated. This was a compromise, which created the Dual Monarchy of Austria-Hungary. This gave each side its own "constitution, its own bicameral legislature, its own governmental machinery for domestic affairs, and its own capital." A single monarch, with Francis Joseph as emperor, held it together along with "a common army, foreign policy, and system of finances." Other nationalities within the empire were not content with the Ausgleich. The compromise simply gave all the power to the German-speaking Austrians and the Hungarian Magyars. These groups dominated the rest of the ethnic minorities.

In Great Britain, there were no problems of revolution because the parliamentary was able to make social and political reforms that would allow the country to remain stable and balanced. An example of this is the Reform Act of 1832. A continued economic growth was a key to Britain's stability. The economic growth made real wages for laborers increase and a strong feeling of national pride was felt during the Victorian Age. On the political side, the time was unstable. As seen in

Lord Palmerston, many people part of Parliament were back and forth and never found strong loyalty to one political party. In 1867, there was a reform act. Benjamin Disraeli wanted to gain support from the newly enfranchised groups to the Conservative party and saw his chance in this new reform act. The monetary requirements for voting were lowered and many male urban workers gained the right to vote. Disraeli thought this would benefit the Conservative Tories but it actually benefited the liberals. This led to a strong political rivalry between the liberals and conservatives. William Gladstone, who was a liberal, led a series of reforms. This also included the Education Act of 1870, which attempted to make elementary schools available for all children.

In Canada, the Treaty of Paris in 1763 put Canada under British control. The idea of self-government spread throughout the colonies in Canada. Later, a large amount of immigrants from Britain came to Canada, which increased the desire for the self-government. Canadian groups rose against the British authority in rebellion in 1837. Rebels in Lower Canada, that spoke mostly French, wanted separation from Britain. After the American Civil War, the British government became intimidated by American designs and in 1867, the Parliament in Britain established Canada as its own nation and with its own constitution.

The failure of the Frankfurt Assembly showed nationalists that Austria and Prussia had the power to control Germany. Although Austria controlled the German Confederation, Prussia's growth in strength led them to form the Zollverein, a German customs union. Almost all the German states joined the customs union. This gave people hope that Prussia could make the unification of Germany possible. In 1848, Prussia had the form of a constitutional monarchy that had a bicameral legislature elected by universal male suffrage. The way the voting worked was in three classes, depending on the amount of taxes paid. This system eventually failed when the middle class gained more members because of industrialization. They wanted a legit parliamentary system, but the opposition was still too strong. Later in 1861, King Frederick William IV died which led to King William I being king. He believed that the army needed change, saying that it needed to double in size and make a three-year requirement of military service for young men. This put fear into the liberals, who believed that this would be abused and used as a form to teach obedience and strengthen the conservative rule. The new rule was rejected, though, and William I selected Otto von Bismarck as his new prime minister. Bismarck resubmitted the bill to parliament and was once again rejected, but instead of listening he reorganized the army. Most of Bismarck's decisions were made against parliament. In 1864, there was the Danish war, which was a conflict involving Schleswig and Holstein. Denmark went to gain control of both areas, which angered the German nationalists who wanted to fight against Denmark. Bismarck thought differently, as he convinced Austria to team up with Prussia to fight against Denmark. This led to a fast Denmark defeat and gave up Schleswig and Holstein. Prussia gained Schleswig and Austria controlled Holstein. Bismarck had to either

accept Prussian domination of Germany or isolate Austria from the Germanic Confederation. In 1866, the Austro-Prussian war occurred. Bismarck arranged for Russia to remain neutral if there were to be a war between the two. Bismarck also persuaded Napoleon III not to conflict if anything occurred and lastly Bismarck "made an alliance with the new Italian state and promised it Venetia in the event of Austrian defeat." As Austria remained isolated, Bismarck used Schleswig and Holstein to bring Austria into war against Prussia. The overlooked Prussian military, advanced guns that the soldiers were equipped with, and a better railroad network led to the defeat of the Austrian army. Instead of taking away a lot of Austrian territory, Bismarck just gave Venetia to the Italian state and excluded Austria from all German affairs. The North Germanic states remained controlled by Prussia while the south Germanic states was independent but still had to sign agreements with Prussia. Bismarck had gained respect from the people and proved to be a turning point in Prussian domestic affairs. Bismarck had proven that "nationalism and authoritarian government could be combined," and that it was possible for the separation of liberalism and nationalism. The creation of the new constitution for the North German Confederation stated that the King of Prussia remained in control of the army and foreign policy but local governments were still kept. Parliament was put into two bodies; the Bundesrat and the Reichstag. The Franco-Prussian war occurred in 1870-1871. France felt threatened by such a powerful German state and was discontent with what had occurred. The German state posed has a hazard to the French security. As Queen Isabella II was gone, Leopold of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen was given the throne, which pleased Bismarck because now France was surrounded by the Hohenzollern dynasty. This angered France and William I had Leopold to withdraw from the throne of Spain. When a telegram from the king was sent to France, Bismarck had made some edits to make it sound offending to France. Just as Bismarck had hoped, France reacted by declaring war. The better Prussian army demonstrated to be too much for the French military. On September 2, 1870 in France, the French army and Napoleon III were captured. Later, after much resistance from the French, Paris fell and France signed an official peace treaty. The loss was a humiliation to the French. The southern German states joined the northern German states and on January 18, 1871 in the palace at Versailles, William I was made emperor of the Second Germanic Empire. Germany had now achieved unity as essentially they had merged into Prussia. This also led to powerful "authoritarian, militaristic values over liberal, constitutional sentiments." The power of military and the amount of industrial resources, Germany had become the new dynamo of Europe creating a new balance of power.



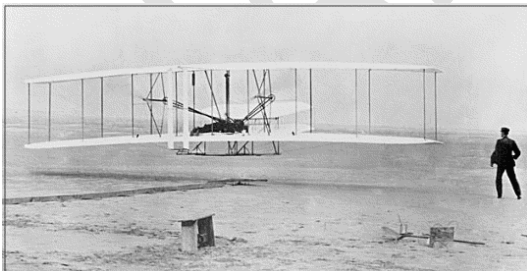


Otto von Bismarck helped Germany achieve unification.

#### Chapter 23:

#### Mass Society In An "Age Of Progress" 1871-1894

Overview: The second Industrial Revolution began in 1871. The first major change was the substitution of steel for iron. Steel was more useful for machinery, railways, and ships. France and Germany advanced a new chemical industry. Electricity became a new form of energy, which came from hydroelectric and coal-fired steam plants. Electricity spawned new inventions such as the light bulb, invented by Thomas Edison, and the telephone, by Alexander Bell, and also radio waves across the ocean, invented by Marconi. The internal combustion engine was also developed, which gave rise to the automobile and the airplane. Henry Ford revolutionized the car industry with the mass production of the Model-T. The Wright brothers made the first flight.



The development of the internal combustion Engine led to the airplane and automobile.

Increased competition led to protective tariffs. Cartels were formed and independent businesses worked together to control prices and fix production quotas, eliminating competition. Cartels were especially strong in Germany where there were large manufacturing plants. A move to interchangeable parts led to the

assembly line production. The second industrial revolution established basic economic patterns that still characterized modern European economic life. After 1870, Germany replaced Great Britain as the industrial leader of Europe, by being able to build the latest and most efficient industrial plants, while Britain was stuck with the old plants, German managers welcomed innovation, and Germans also encouraged Scientific and technical education. By 1900, Europe was divided into two economic zones, one part was Great Britain, Belgium, and France, and the other was the Netherlands, Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy. Because of lower transportation costs and new machines, food prices fell. This led to some countries specializing in food products. Chemical fertilizers were also introduced. After 1870, the Industrial revolution had spread into Russia and Japan. By 1900, a true world economy developed, as Europe was getting products from Asia, South America, and Central America, and the other countries also served as markets for European products.

### The Second Industrial Revolution

#### The Main Idea

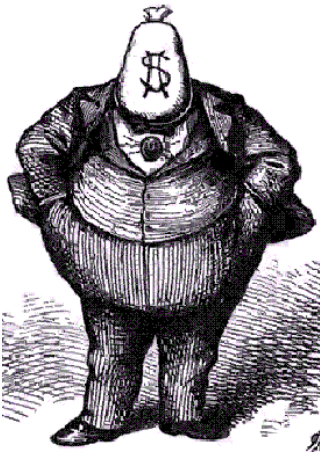
During the late 1800s, new technology and inventions led to the growth of industry, the rise of big business, and revolutions in transportation and communication.

Women were excluded from factories, and they had no choice but to work for the sweated industries. They made cheap goods called slopwork. However, big businesses needed clerks, secretaries and other white collared jobs, and gave those jobs to women.

In the first half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, many workers had formed trading unions and political parties. One of the most important was formed in Germany, which was called the German Social Democratic Party. It became the largest party in Germany. Socialist parties also emerged in other European countries. They were influenced by the writings of Karl Marx. Marxism believed that capitalism would collapse. August Bebel led the Marxist movement in Germany. Edward Bernstein wrote a book called "Evolutionary Socialism," supporting capitalism and the middle class. Marx said that workingmen had no country. His statement was wrong, as nationalism proved to still be an important force. The trade unions were organized after they won the right to strike in the 1870s. Trade Unions made a progress in improving the living and working conditions of the laboring classes. The lack of revolutionary fervor drove some people from Marxist Socialism into anarchism. They believed that the state and its structure should be abolished. Anarchists believed in the use of violence to

accomplish and achieve their goals. They particularly used assassination of leaders to attain what they set out to do.

In the 1870s, there was a mass society as a result of mass consumption, mass production, and working class organization. Population increased in Europe, partly due to medical discoveries such as small pox vaccination and improvements in sanitation. There was also improved nutrition in the food supply. There was migration of the less industrialized areas to the more industrialized areas, such as to North America. As a result of industrialization and population explosion, the 19<sup>th</sup> century was a time of urbanization. Boards of health were created and building codes were established, while municipal governments regulated living conditions of urban areas. A system of dams and reservoirs that stored water and aqueducts and tunnels that carried water from the countryside to city were major developments of this time. Sewer systems were also being produced, which also cleaned up sanitary conditions for urban dwellers. By the 1880s, governments concluded that private enterprise could not solve the housing crises. The British law authorizing town councils to collect taxes and construct cheap houses for the working class followed this up. In the urban areas, the old walls that enclosed the city were pulled down and converted into parks and boulevards. As cities expanded, entire groups of people were displaced from the urban centers spilling over into neighboring countryside. The construction of the streetcar and commuter train allowed people to live in the suburban areas and get the urban centers for work. In Europe, five percent of the population controlled 30 to 40 percent of the wealth. The successful bankers, merchants, and industrialists formed the group of wealthy plutocrats.



The plutocrats were the main Money makers in Europe during This time.

The middle class believed in hard work and the importance of progress in science. Eighty percent of the Europeans belonged to the lower class

Women remained legally inferior, economically dependent, and largely defined by family and household roles. The marriage was viewed as the only honorable and available career for women. Birthrates declined and family planning increased. The family was the central institution of middle class life that fostered an ideal of togetherness. The boy scouts were established in 1908 in Britain because sons were expected to follow careers like their fathers. The ideal of the middle class women as a nurturing mother and wife did not correspond to reality. Most women had to work hard and paid the price for the façade.

Between 1890-1914, husbands earned more income and so wives could afford to stay at home. There was an increase in consumption, spurring consumerism. Working class families, like middle class families, had fewer children and child labor laws and compulsory education moved children out of the work force. Children could not be wage earners. Work hours were reduced to ten hours per day so working class parents could devote more attention to their children.

Mass education was a product of a mass society in the late 19<sup>th</sup> century. State run systems developed mass education. This commitment was because liberals in the European states thought education was important to social and personal improvement, and in France, to provide an alternative to Catholic education. In Germany, mass education was intended to improve the quality of military recruits.



Education gained importance during This time.

The second industrial revolution demanded skilled labor, which is another incentive for mass education. The chief motive for mass education was political. With the expansion of voting rights, the government looked to gain more educated voters that would make wiser decisions. It also instilled patriotism and nationalized the masses. A single national language created a national unity. The development of compulsory education created a demand for teachers and most of them were female. The first colleges for women were especially for teacher training. The most immediate result of mass education was the increased rate in literacy. With the increase in literacy came the mass circulation of newspapers and specialty magazines.

The industrial system created new mass leisure for the people, which saw the appearance of music and dance halls in the second half of the nineteenth century. Mass tourism, another form of mass leisure, appeared. Team sports rapidly became professionalized such as soccer and baseball in Britain and the United States. The development of urban transportation systems made possible the construction of massive stadiums where people could travel to see the sporting events.



The Pilgrims, England's soccer team, is seen as a shot in the center. They will visit the city next month for a series of games. The Pilgrims have a standing offer to the owners of a city in England to pay them, which amounts to a whole lot of money, to play in the city. The Pilgrims have a standing offer to the owners of a city in England to pay them, which amounts to a whole lot of money, to play in the city. The Pilgrims have a standing offer to the owners of a city in England to pay them, which amounts to a whole lot of money, to play in the city.

Professional sports teams were organized.

In the late 19<sup>th</sup> century, reforms in the western European states encouraged the expansion of political democracy through voting rights for men, and creation of mass political parties. Parliamentary government was most rooted in the western European states like Britain and France. The right to vote was expanded under the leadership of William Gladstone. William Gladstone allowed home rule, which meant self-government, for Ireland, but Parliament rejected. The Irish dispute remained unresolved. France also established a republic form of government, although there was a wide gap between the middle and working classes.

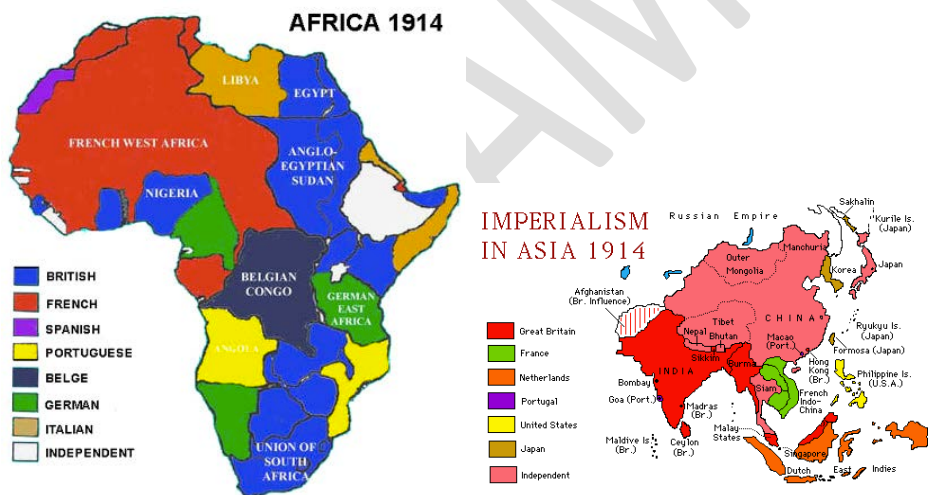
In 1898, Spain was defeated in the Spanish-American war and lost Cuba and the Philippines to the United States causing discontent in Spain. In Germany, the German Army, made up largely of Prussians, sought to defend the monarchy and aristocracy. The policies of Otto von Bismarck, the Chancellor of the German state until 1890, served to prevent the growth of more democratic institutions. He also attacked the Catholic Church through Kulturkampf, or "struggle for civilization." The Reichstag, a ruling body under Bismarck, passed a social welfare legislation to take workers away from socialism. William II forced Bismarck to resign. Austria-Hungary had a dual monarchy. Unlike Austria, Hungary had a Parliamentary system controlled by Magyar land rulers. The Austrians were German speaking and Hungarians spoke the Magyar. This division caused major problems. In Russia, the assassination of Alexander II convinced his son, a successor, Alexander III, that reform was a mistake and he quickly instituted repressive powers with the use of secret police. He banned all languages except Russian in schools, which angered the people. When Alexander III died his son, Nicholas II, took the throne and believed in

absolute power of the tsar, but conditions were changing and the tsar's approach was not realistic.

## Chapter 24:

### An Age of Modernity, Anxiety, and Imperialism, 1894-1914

Overview: Imperialism was an important aspect of this time. Many European states felt a need to colonize areas in Africa and Asia that could provide “ports and coaling stations for their navies,” and that symbolized international prestige. Racism and social Darwinism played a key role too, by making people think that it was for the better development of mankind that the superior races wipe out the inferior races. There was also a religious motive for missionaries to spread their faith. The majority of Africa was eventually controlled by the European states, (See map) and the Russians and British gained control over most of Asia while China was eventually controlled by many different states, including Japan, who was one of the rare countries in Asia that resisted colonization by the Europeans and Americans by assembling a powerful army and even beat Russia in a war.



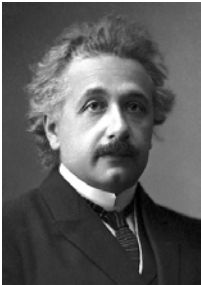
Imperialism involved many European countries colonizing Africa and Asia.

During this time, there was also a huge transformation of science between mid-19th century and science at the end of the 19th century. This change was “a dramatic transformation in the realm of ideas and culture,” and the changes “challenged many of these assumptions.” A new way the physical universe was viewed, a liking towards irrational, different secular views of human nature, and drastically different forms of the expression in literature and art crushed the idea of the old ways an “opened a way to a modern consciousness.” This led to confusion and anxiety as a new feeling of these times. A key development in this time was seen



in science, which supported rational and optimistic views towards the world. The belief in facts and reason as an explanation for a systematized nature left these thinkers at ease. These rationalists and optimists also believed that by knowing the previously discovered scientific laws, they knew everything about the physical world and of reality. The advancements in physics changed this thought. The idea of the Newtonian world machine was beginning to collect doubt towards the end of nineteenth century, due to the work of Marie Curie and her husband Pierre. They “discovered that the element radium gave off rays of radiation that apparently came from within the atom itself.” Showed that atoms were no solid, physical bodies, but contained subatomic particles like electrons, protons, and neutrons. The way these subatomic particles behaved became a key study in physics during this time. Max Planck built off of this work but stated that energy is radiated in irregular packets that he named “quanta.” The quantum theory was another way the previous knowledge of the atom was questioned and the idea of the Newtonian world machine was being threatened. Albert Einstein helped with the advancement of the theories of thermodynamics. He even came up with the relativity theory, which states that “space and time are not absolute but relative to the observer, and both are interwoven into what [he] called a four-dimensional space-time continuum.” This was saying that without independent human experience, space and time didn’t really exist. Also included in the theory was, relativity of time and space is reflected by matter and energy. This was saying that matter is just another form of energy. This is represented in his equation  $E=mc^2$ . “It led to the atomic age,” that explained the “vast energies contained within an atom.” When Einstein’s theories were tested, a new age of physics came to be.

Albert Einstein came up  
with the relativity theory



While reason was still the frontrunner for intellectual thinkers, “a small group of intellectuals attacked the idea of optimistic progress, dethroned reason, and glorified the irrational.” Friedrich Nietzsche helped with this. He said the bourgeois were incapable of cultural creativity because of the fixation on rational ideas. He also said that reason did not help humans and that Christianity should take the blame for this. To change European thought, Nietzsche said that the people must recognize that God is gone and by getting rid of Christianity from the peoples’ views, it was now possible to assemble a higher kind of being, which he called the superman. Henri Bergson also influenced though, mainly in France. Bergson was in support of rational thought and reason to gain useful knowledge but said that it did not have the capability to arrive at the “truth or ultimate reality.” He said that reality

could only be understood intuitively and through experience. Georges Sorel combined the ideas of Bergson and Nietzsche when it came to rational thinking. Sorel had interests in revolutionary socialism and promoted the acts of violence “as the only sure way to achieve the aims of socialism.” He recommended strike as a way to take down capitalist society. Pictured the new socialist society being rule by a small elite class. Sigmund Freud came up with some theories that challenged optimism. He came up with the idea of psychoanalysis. “According to Freud, human behavior was strongly determined by the unconscious, which included experiences people weren’t aware of. Freud answered the question of why with repression, which involved bad experiences that were withheld from memory yet still affected a person’s behavior. “According to Freud, a human being’s inner life was a battleground of three contending forces: the id, ego, and superego.” The id was what drove the unconscious and was directed by “the pleasure principle.” This included lustfulness for crude doings. The ego was what coordinated the inner life. It was controlled by the reality principle, which people may reject pleasurable things to share a life in a society. Superego was the location of conscience that included the moral values in society, usually enforced by the adults. Freud used this in terms of sexual controls. Although many of Freud’s theories have been disproved, he had a major impact because of them. A new social order came about because of Darwin’s principle of evolution, called social Darwinism. Herbert Spencer used the theories of Darwin saying, “societies were organisms that evolved through time from a struggle with their environment. Progress came from ‘the struggle for survival,’ as the ‘fit’-the strong- advanced while the weak declined.” This took Darwin’s theories and related them to society involving racism. Some “extreme nationalists,” said nations were involved in a struggle for life where only the fittest survived. Friedrich von Bernhardi claimed that war was necessary to a healthy development of the world. Many people followed this, also. Racism reemerged and it grew rapidly but was especially seen in Germany. This racism in Germany had the potential to become dangerous and deadly. There was also volkish thought, which was seen in Houston Stewart Chamberlain who considered the Germans as “the true and original creators of Western culture.” He considered it the job of the Germans to save Europe from lower races such as including Jews, Negroes, and Orientals, but mainly Jews were the group that was called out. Christian churches faced new problems because of the growing scientific thinking. They were also affected by growing industrialization and urbanization. Also, in the late nineteenth century, political movements had a bad impact on the Christian churches. Many governments who had previously controlled the church courts, religious orders, and appointments used the help of the churches’ to reestablish an order after a time of revolutions. Anticlericalism occurred, mostly evident in the liberal nation-states. The main threat, though, was science. Science was not only a menace to Christianity, but to religion itself. Many educated people began following Darwin’s theory of evolution and the resistance of the church led to even more people following the ideas of Darwin. There was also criticism towards the Bible, seen in Ernst Renan, who “saw Jesus not as the son of God but as a human being whose value lay in the example he provided by his life and

teaching.” The churches took a stand against what the people were saying and Pope Pius IX banned nationalism, socialism, religious toleration, and freedom of speech and press. The churches also responded with a religious movement called Modernism. “The modernists viewed the Bible as a book of useful moral ideas, encouraged Christians to become involved in social reforms, and insisted that the churches must provide a greater sense of community.” The Catholic Church forbid modernism but when Pope Leo XIII was in control, there was a compromise. There were also other religious groups who attempted to regain support for Christianity in the working-class poor and to restore practices in the urban working class. While science was developing, so were literature and the arts. The changes that were the product of this revolution are called Modernism. Naturalism was the idea that literature should be realistic and involved in the material world. Very similar to realism, Naturalists also believed that the future held bad problems, unlike the optimistic attribute of Realism. Émile Zola was a Naturalists writer showed the difference of environments in his writing. He was also greatly influenced by Darwin’s ideas. In Russian literature it was a time of Leo Tolstoy and Fyodor Dostoevsky. Tolstoy wrote War and Peace, a very realistic book about Napoleon’s invasion in Russia. Dostoevsky feared a loss of spiritual belief and that spirit was necessary for society. Symbolism was a new group of writers who “reacted against Realism. Primarily interested in writing poetry, the Symbolists believed that an objective knowledge of the world was impossible.” They said that the materialistic, outer world was made up of a collection of symbols “that reflected the true reality of the individual human mind.” In art, the artists sought new forms of expression. Impressionism was a movement that led up to modern painting. The beginning of impressionism began when a group of artists painted the countryside, face to face with nature. Camille Pissarro was one of these early painters, wanted the changing of light on objects in nature in their works. There was the works of Claude Monet, who painted light on water. The professional women painter, Berthe Morisot, claimed women “had a special vision, which was, as she said, ‘more delicate than that of men.’” Post-Impressionism emerged around the 1880s and still kept the ideas of the Impressionists involving light and color but “revolutionized it even further by paying more attention to structure and form.” Subjective reality was the focal point for Post-Impressionists and “was the real beginning of modern art.” Vincent van Gogh is a very famous Post-Impressionist painted and treated art as a spiritual experience. He stated that color is very important and that people should paint what they feel. Later, the center of attention in the art world was on individual consciousness and painting what they felt. 1905 saw the rise of Pablo Picasso. He aided the development of a new style called Cubism. Cubism used “geometric designs as visual stimuli to re-create reality in the viewer’s mind.” Abstract painting marked the peak from which the artists had left visual reality, seen in the works of Wassily Kandinsky. Music in the second half of the nineteenth century contained a new felling of national pride. Seen in Edvard Grieg, he helped pave “the way for the creation of a national music style in Norway.” Claude Debussy was the most known

Impressionist composer. Inspired by other forms of art, Debussy “re-created in sound,” the way something would feel.



Starry Night by Vincent van Gogh is an example of Post-Impressionist painting.

Early on in the nineteenth century, women were not given a large amount of rights, especially when it came to family and marriage laws. Men had all of the advantages when it came to divorce and property ownership that did not change for women until it was near the end of the 1800s. Women made a push to gain these rights in Europe. Some women, mainly from only the “middle- and upper-middle-class women,” sought higher education and to work in professions that men had previously controlled. Nursing became a job for women as seen in Amalie Sieveking, who had an association that assisted the poor and sick. Another nurse, Florence Nightingale, helped during the Crimean War, and Clara Barton assisted in the American Civil War. Many women helped change the profession of nursing during this time. Women were also seeking equal political rights. The main thing women were looking for was the right to vote. As seen in Britain, where a movement towards women’s voting rights began, Millicent Fawcett, “organized a moderate group who believed that women must demonstrate that they would use political power responsibly if they wanted Parliament to grant them the right to vote.” Emmeline Pankhurst used a more radical method and founded the “Women’s Social and Political Union. Pankhurst’s group used strange ways to gain public attention such as throwing eggs at government officials, chaining themselves to lampposts, smashing store windows, burning railroad cars, and when in jail they went on hunger strikes. The goal was “the right of women to full citizenship.”



Women like Florence Nightingale sought equal rights.

Because of racism and extreme nationalism, Jews became a target, being viewed as the murders of Jesus. Jews during the Middle Ages had many of their rights taken away, were attacked through violence, and were forced to live in ghettos. After some improvement in equality, many Jews were able to leave the ghetto and live with more freedoms. Towards the end of the nineteenth century, anti-Semitism plagued the Austrian Empire and Germany, especially in Vienna, "where [the Christian Socialists] were led by Karl Lueger, mayor of Vienna from 1897-1910." In Germany, anti-Semitic parties with Christian social workers, viewed the Jews and incapable to convert to Christianity because they had been stained. "One could not be both a German and a Jew." The Jews were treated the worst in Eastern Europe, where persecutions and even pogroms, or organized massacres, occurred. Many Jews fled, some going to Palestine, which created a Jewish nationalist movement called Zionism started.

In Russia, industrialism had a huge spark thanks to Sergei Witte, who believed in industrial growth as a key part of the national strength. Witte was also a big believer in railroads to develop the economy and advocated for a "massive railroad construction." He also believed in tariffs as a way to aid Russian industry, telling Tsar Nicholas II that foreign capital was of great importance for industrial growth. Industrial growth led to a larger industrial working class, which was followed by pitiful living and working conditions for the people. "The Social Revolutionaries worked to overthrow the tsarist autocracy and establish peasant socialism," and in 1905, a revolution broke out. "On January 9, 1905, a massive procession of workers went to the Winter Palace in Saint Petersburg to present a petition of grievances to the tsar." The peaceful people were attacked by troops spurring the revolution. This event was called "Bloody Sunday," and havoc shook throughout Russia. Later, Nicholas II allowed the creation of the Duma, which was a legislative assembly elected by a "broad franchise." Satisfying the middle-class, the workers' up rise ended. By this point the United States was the world's richest nation, but the quality of American life was questioned because of a large wealth gap between the richest nine percent of the people who owned 71 percent of the wealth. Later the Federal

Reserve System was established, “which permitted the federal government to play a role in important economic decisions formerly made by bankers.”



Tsar Nicholas II

New imperialism of the time led Europeans to expand their control towards Africa and Asia. The competition of acquiring colonies for ports and coaling stations increased, and many other economic reasons led to the new imperialism in European states. This included a demand for natural resources, raw materials, and people seeking higher profit rates in different areas. Gaining colonies was also a sign of international prestige and indicated great power within a nation. Social Darwinism and racism also played a role with social Darwinists believing that “in the struggle between nations, the fit are victorious and survive. Superior races must dominate inferior races by military force to show how strong and virile they are.” Lastly, there were religious motives involved many missionaries from Catholicism and Protestant faiths went to look for converts. The idea of “the white man’s burden” led them to believe that their superior civilization was obligated to modernize the nonwhites.

Towards the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, the rise of powerful German nation had broken the balance of power within Europe. Fearing French revenge, Bismarck formed the Three Emperors’ League, which was not very successful. This alliance included Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Russia. In the Balkans, because of the collapsing Ottoman empire, many countries feared that the others would go after the land and try to control the Balkans, which kept the Ottoman Empire alive. The failure of the Three Emperors’ League is also due to the heated rivalry between Russia and Austria. Bismarck attempted to prevent war between the two states. Russia would later crush the Ottoman Empire and the Treaty of San Stefano created a Bulgarian state. The Congress of Berlin would be called to oppose Russian success for having a Bulgarian state formed, and the Congress of Berlin destroyed the Treat of San Stefano, making the Bulgarian state much smaller. The Balkan territories of Bosnia and Herzegovina were put under the protection of Austria, but the Austrians were not allowed to annex them. Following the Congress of Berlin, out of fear of security, new alliances were formed to protect states. The Three Emperor’s League was dismissed because of Russia’s anger towards Bismarck and Bismarck later kept the alliance with Austria and Italy joined in. This formed the Triple Alliance. Trying to remain peaceful with Russia, Bismarck issued the Reinsurance Treaty with Russia to prevent Russia and France becoming close. William II later dismissed Bismarck, as



he dropped the Reinsurance treaty with Russia. This allowed for France and Russia to become closer and they formed a military alliance. Later Great Britain joined the two and formed the Triple Entente. The Austrians later annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina, which angered the Serbs who were also backed up by Russia. But on the other side was Germany who threatened the Russians as they backed down. Later, the Balkan League “defeated the Ottomans in the First Balkan War.” Not being able to compromise on how to divide the land, the Second Balkan War started as Greece, Serbia, Romania, and the Ottomans attacked Bulgaria. The crises that occurred in the Balkans would cause a lot of tension between the alliances and will have set the stage for World War I.



The tension between the Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente set the stage for World War I.

## Chapter 25:

### The Beginning of the Twentieth-Century Crisis: War and Revolution

Overview: The 20<sup>th</sup> century was a time of war, beginning with the Great War, or World War I. The peace that had been maintained through much of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, and the progress that had been made, came to a halt as the world became filled with violence and destruction.

The tensions leading to the war began between Serbia and Austria when Archduke Francis Ferdinand, of Austria, was assassinated. This may have been a later impact because many other long-range problems had been leading up to the war. The nation-states that emerged created competition between the European states. It was mainly “rivalries over colonial and commercial interests,” which grew during the new imperialism expansion and the formation of the Triple Alliance and Triple Entente. The alliances that were formed gave the idea that allies were important, especially for security, and that it was important to support allies, “even when they took foolish risks.” Another, more nationalistic view for the nation-states was that they viewed themselves as independent and did not need to be ruled by one of the

great powers in Europe. There were also European states that were looking to acquire different parts of land and to maintain control over certain parts of land. Next, there were also problems that there were still many ethnic minorities that had not formed their own state and had still desired to. Other domestic problems were labor movements by socialists that were closer to going on strike. This “may have encouraged some leaders to take the plunge into war in 1914.” Also, the growth and assembling of large pointed towards a destructive war. Most European countries established conscription and the size of military machines had dramatically increased. Peasants composed the majority of land armies in Europe Militarism also involved crafty leaders who were already planning for a war. Because the “military leaders insisted that their plans could not be altered,” certain problems forced political leaders to make war decisions. Later, another crisis occurred in the Balkans As the Austrians and the Russians rivalry for controlling the Balkan states grew, so did the hatred between the two states and so did the chance for war. A more immediate cause of World War I was the assassination of Archduke Francis Ferdinand of Austria. Killed by a Bosnian terrorist person, the Austrian government found it as a good time to take down Serbia. Fearing Russia who may back up Serbia, the Austrians looked to the aid of Germany in case Russia gets involved. Germany agreed, which they may have known a world war was going to start and wanted it to occur. On July 28, 1914, Austria declared war on Serbia and the breakout of war was on thin ice. Russia also had a determination, which was to support Serbia. On July 29, the Russian Tsar Nicholas II sent his army to face Germany and Austria. Russia ignored the request by Germany, which was to stop the mobilization of the army in twelve hours, and the Germans declared war on Russia. The Germans were now in control and would determine “whether France would become involved in the war.” Alfred von Schlieffen, chief of Staff, led the German General Staff in a military plan that included the involvement of Russia and France. The plan involved putting some troop deployment to face Russia at first, and after a quick defeat a France, all the power would be focused on the Russians. On August 3, the Germans declared war on France and demanded that Belgium allow the passing of troops through the Belgian territory. The following day, “Great Britain declared war on Germany,” in fear that Germany and Austria would gain all of the world power and Great Britain would become weak. As the war crept closer “all the great powers seemed willing to risk war.”



The way the Schlieffen plan was organized got France involved in World War I.

Before the war started, some political leaders believed that war would not occur because of the political and economic risks and others believed that the war would not happen because diplomats could stop it. These were clearly wrong. The war was met with enthusiasm from the Europeans and governments used publicity to get many people involved. “Now, in August 1914, the urgent pleas of governments for defense against aggressors fell on receptive ears in every belligerent nation. Most people seemed genuinely convinced that their nation’s cause was just.” Nationalism towards the war made many current strikes stop, and workers began to get ready for war and to fight for their country. To the people, it was important to protect their own culture and independence. By the beginning of the war, many people thought that it would only last a few weeks because the history of European wars tended to be that quick, which did not include the American Civil War that had acted as a precursor for wars in the 20<sup>th</sup> century. There was also the belief that war could not last longer than a few months because it would lead to economic problems for a nation. These illusions were very common among the soldiers who signed up for the war. The war also served as a “glorious adventure” for some of the soldiers, as something to be proud of. Lastly, war indicated a time for redemption for some people, believing that self-sacrifice, heroism, and nobility would lead to national rebirth.

The Schlieffen plan that was supposed to end the war quickly involved encircling France and quickly cutting off the French army, which depended a lot on the right flank. The problem was, the strength of the right flank wasn’t there as some German leaders sent it to the east to face Russia. Another problem for the Germans was a surprise counter from combined British and French forces, under the command of Joseph Joffre, which halted the Germans quest at the First Battle of the Marne. This led to a stalemate between the Germans and French, as neither side could seem to gain an advantage. Both sides were struggling to take the other out of their trenches that had come to extend from Switzerland to the English Channel. The trench warfare stayed this way for four years. In the east, the war was more mobile, but lost a lot of lives. Russia was first to strike in East Germany, which led to immediate

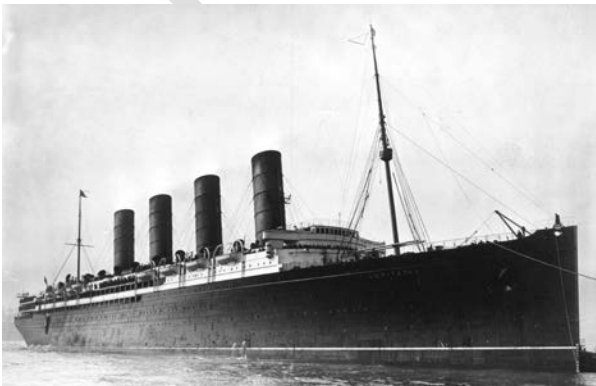
rejection in the Battles of Tannenberg and Masurian Lakes. The Austrians were not very successful at first, being kicked out of Serbia and losing to the Russians in Galicia. The Italians ditched Germany and Austria to join the French, British, and Russians and attacked Austria in May of 1915. The war was far from over as the Russians were pushed back 300 miles by a German-Austrian army and the Germans, Austrians, and Bulgarians teamed up to wipe Serbia out of the war. By pushing Russia back, and wiping out the Serbs, Germany was back on the offensive side in the west. The trenches had become very strong on the defensive side, which made war strategies very difficult for the military leaders. A strategy was to send lots of troops across to get to the enemy's trenches, which rarely worked because machine guns were able to mow down the troops. The battles in the trenches were horrors that lost many lives with "barbed wire, shell holes, mud, and injured and dying men. The daily life in the trenches included a preparation for attack, if no attack occurred, the day involved personal care, fixing the trenches, and finding a way to burn time. Extreme boredom was common in the trenches, as neither side knew of a way to take down the opponent. In an attempt to take down the enemy trenches, "both sides looked for new allies that might provide a winning advantage." This led to the Ottoman Empire joining the German side, which the British, French, and Russians declared war against. Bulgaria also joined the Central Powers, while Italy was with the Allied side.



New allies joined both sides of the war.

The war became a global conflict as the Arab princes, influenced by Lawrence of Arabia, began to revolt against the controlling Ottoman power. Egypt would later finish off the Ottoman Empire's power in the Middle East. The British also had Middle Eastern campaigns, which involved forces from India, Australia, and New Zealand. In Africa, Allied powers took down German colonies, as they used African soldiers to fight in the war. "The French drafted more than 170,000 West African soldiers," where most were used in the fight in the trenches. Africans were also used for manual labor in carrying supplies or construction projects. Many laborers lost their lives because of disease and starvation. Japan also joined the Allies in a goal to take control of German colonies in Asia. The United States attempted to remain neutral in the war, but as the war continued to carry on, the idea of not intervening became very difficult. The Americans would eventually join because of German and British naval forces. The British put up a naval blockade, which the Germans attacked in "unrestricted submarine warfare." The Germans "declared the area

around the British Isles a war zone and threatened to torpedo any ship caught in it.” The sinking of the Lusitania, a British ship that also lost the lives of over one hundred Americans, angered the people of the United States and the Germans had to change their policy of submarine warfare. Later, the British renewed the unrestricted submarine warfare, telling Emperor William II not to be concerned about the Americans. This caused the Americans to join the war. Mentally, the Americans boosted the Allied powers, but it was bad year for them in 1917. The Italians were crushed in October of 1917, and in November, Russia had to withdraw from the war because of the Bolshevik Revolution. The Central Powers began fearing domestic problems as the war moved on. Airplanes were added to the war to be used to attack ground units, and also were mounted with machine guns, “which made the skies considerably more dangerous.” The Germans also had the use of zeppelins to drop bombs on England, which intimidated people. The introduction of tanks also occurred during World War I. The British were the first to make a model, but it wasn’t until the British Mark V that tanks became really deadly. “The tank came too late to have a great effect on the outcome of World War I, but the lesson was not lost on those who realized the tank’s potential for creating a whole new kind of warfare.” The amount of time the war was taking led to a total war, which was affecting the majority of the people in the world. The organization of armies led to a more centralized government, and economic control, and publicly lying to the people to continue the war effort. Many European countries also began to draft men to be part of the army, even in Great Britain, which had one of the largest volunteered armies in 1914-1915. Increased economic control by the government was another impact of the war. Economically, the transition to total war was best seen in Germany, as Walter Rathenau organized the War Raw Materials Board that was to find raw materials to produce goods that were necessary for the war. Germany was less impressive in food rations as the “decline in farm labor made food shortages inevitable.” Later, Erich Ludendorff and Paul von Hindenburg took control of the German government and announced a full mobilization for total war. In Britain, with a more laissez-faire policy, the government was forced to get involved in economics. David Lloyd George was the leader for the Ministry of Munitions, which looked make sure that war materiel was being produced. Less success was seen in France, Russia, Austria-Hungary, and Italy.



The German attack on the Lusitania led to the Americans getting involved in the war.

Following the first two years of the war, strikes became a problem in domestic affairs for European states. In 1916, the Germans protested by stopping work against the arrest of a radical socialist leader. France and Britain also experienced strikes, but most notably in Ireland when strikes occurred on Easter Sunday. The British quickly crushed this strike. Liberals and socialists were the main causes of "internal opposition to the war," and the protests that occurred. Protests and strikes were taking place all across Europe, except all countries, with the exception of Russia, were able to fight on in the war. In Russia, the tsar took control of the army, feeling as if it was his duty to his country, but was not qualified for the job. The Russian army was also not trained well and did not have updated weapons, which was why they were massacred on the battlefield. Peasants and workers were become more displeased with their conditions as they got worse, and because only a few large cities held most of the Russian industry, workers were getting frustrated. Rasputin, the man that the tsar's wife loved, was also having influence on governmental affairs and the lack of leadership from every top official led to the growing discontent of the people of Russia. Conservative aristocrats felt that it was time to do something about the problems and they assassinated Rasputin, but it was too late as the Russian monarchy was collapsing. The beginning of March, in 1917, saw a series of strikes break out in Petrograd. Women who were standing in line to buy bread, saw the price skyrocket, forcing the government to ration out the food. The "women marched through the city shouting 'Peace and Bread' and 'Down with autocracy.'" Soon the women were joined by other workers and together they called for a general strike that succeeded in shutting down all the factories in the city on March 10." The tsar told soldiers to stop the protests, but many soldiers ended up joining the crowd, which took the problem out of the tsar's hands. The Duma took over the government on March 15, the same day the tsar resigned. The Constitutional Democrats, that formed the temporary government, made a series of reforms "that provided universal suffrage, civil equality, and an eight-hour workday." There were also the soviets, "or councils of workers' and soldiers' deputies." The soviets were challengers to the Constitutional Democrats, and they included the Marxist Social Democratic Party. The party was split into two parts; the Mensheviks and the Bolsheviks. Bolsheviks were a small part of the Russian Social Democrats, led by Vladimir Ulianov. He led the Bolshevik party in violent revolution in an attempt to take down the capitalist system. In his April Theses, he outlined a revolution "based on his own version of Marxist theory." He said that the "soviets of soldiers, workers, and peasants were ready-made instruments of power." His goal was to lead the Bolsheviks in controlling these people to take down the government. The Bolsheviks promised an end to the war, rearrangement of the land to the peasants, no more capitalism controlling the factories and industries, and the majority of governmental power will be in the hands of the soviets. The government and military in Russia broke down and peasant soldiers returned home, leading up



to the Bolshevik Revolution. Alexander Kerensky, in reaction to Lavr Kornilov's attempt to seize power in Petrograd, released Bolsheviks from prison and called for the aid of the soviets. It was also helpful having Leon Trotsky, a revolutionary, "as chairman of the Petrograd soviet," and on November 6, soviet and Bolshevik forces moved in and gained control of Petrograd. Vladimir Ulianov, also known as V. I. Lenin, proclaimed the new Soviet government, and elected himself as the leader. Lenin also disassembled the Constituent Assembly, which would stand in the way of the Soviets. Keeping his promises, Lenin gave the land to local rural land committees, and also gave the "control of the factories to committees of workers." Alexandra Kollontai also pushed for social changes to benefit women and children and helped establish the Zhenotdel, which served as a women's bureau. This sent people all over Russia to explain the new social order. Later, the Communists disbanded many of the changes, though. Lenin also kept the promise of making peace by signing the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk with Germany. It lost a lot of land from the Russian Empire and would not really lead to the peace that Lenin had promised.



The Bolshevik Revolution put the Communists in charge of Russia.

The opposition towards the Bolsheviks was the "bourgeois and aristocratic liberals and anti-Leninist socialists, including Mensheviks and Socialist Revolutionaries." Other Allied nations also attempted to bring Russia back into the Great War. The Bolsheviks were forced to fight against the Siberians, who marched to the Volga River before pushed back. There were also attacks from Ukraine where they almost reached Moscow. The tsar was later killed after being taken into custody and the Bolsheviks successfully fended off all attempted attacks. The Whites, who had attempted to take down the Bolsheviks, could not regain order in their forces. The Communists' success led to a policy of war communism, which "was used to ensure regular supplies for the Red [Bolshevik] army." The Communists also used fear to take down opponents by establishing the Red Terror. The Communists would strengthen their rule and Russia transformed into a "bureaucratically centralized state dominated by a single party."

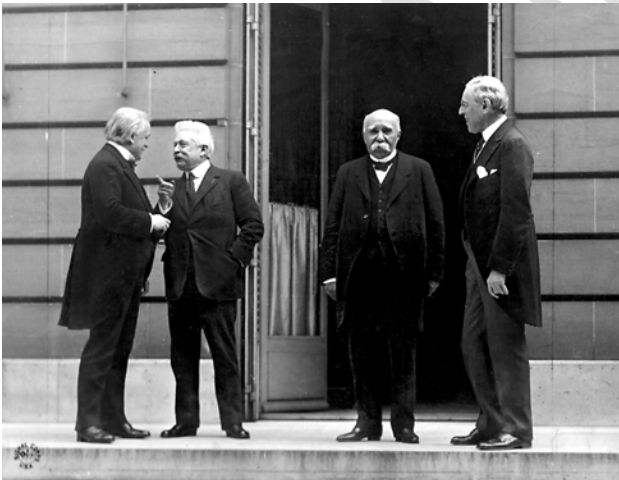
In the war, Russia's withdrawal led to the Germans go for broke attack in the west, which successfully got within 35 miles of Paris but was met by a counter attack from the Allied forces. The French General Ferdinand Foch led the French, with support from American troops, against the Germans at the Second Battle of the Marne, successfully stopping the Germans run towards Paris. Knowing that the war was lost, Ludendorff told German officials to sue for peace immediately, yet the Allied powers would not listen to the autocratic imperial government. Germany made an attempt to liberalize the government but it was too late because German soviets formed looked to take over the government. William II ditched Germany and on November 11, 1918, "an armistice agreed to by the new German government went into effect. Revolution remained a threat in Germany. The results of World War I created a generation of people who had become used to the idea of violence and who would later support Mussolini and Hitler.



The Second Battle of the Marne crushed all of Germany's hopes in winning World War I.

The year 1919 saw the gathering of the Allied powers in Paris to finalize the end of the war. United States president Woodrow Wilson aimed at a different goal with the "Fourteen Points" that he believed justified the enormous military struggle." Wilson had a specific outline for sincere and durable peace. These ideas included open agreements of peace, with no secrecy, reduce the amount of weapons to keep a safe state, and "the self determination of people so that 'all well-defined national aspirations shall be accorded the utmost satisfaction.' Wilson characterized World War I as a people's war waged against "absolutism and militarism." He advocated by getting rid of these by the creation of democracies, which could allow for political independence. The other states at the Paris Peace Conference did not share the same ideas as Wilson and also aimed more towards national interests, such as David Lloyd George of Britain, who made Germany pay for the war damage. France, with Georges Clemenceau, aimed for national security. Clemenceau said that France took the most heat from the Germans and that they deserve revenge on the Germans, and security that something like this doesn't occur again. France wanted the creation of a buffer state in between Germany and France, they wanted reparation for the

damage of the war, and they wanted Germany demilitarized to avoid future conflict. The people at the Paris Peace Conference also feared the spread of the Bolshevik revolution, so in response they decided to strengthen the eastern countries like Poland, Czechoslovakia, and Romania. David Lloyd George of Britain, Vittorio Orlando of Italy, Georges Clemenceau of France, and Woodrow Wilson of the United States made the main decisions at the conference. Germany was not invited and the Russians were unable to attend because of civil war. The League of Nations was adopted and territorial arrangements were made and France compromised to gain security and made alliances with Great Britain and the United States. The Treaty of Versailles was signed on June 28, with many parts angering the Germans, especially Article 231, the War Guilt Clause, which stated that Germany had to pay reparations for war damage. There were also military and territorial parts in the treaty where Germany had to reduce an army to no more than 100,000 troops and to shrink their navy, and to also get rid of their air force. The Germans also lost Alsace and Lorraine to France and parts of Prussia to the newly formed Polish state. Germany was forced to accept these consequences. The Austria-Hungary Empire was destroyed to create many separate states. The new states would later become trouble and places for conflict. After the war, the United States began an attempt to isolate themselves from European affairs. They never joined the League of Nations and the Senate did not accept the defensive alliance with Great Britain and France, which move Britain out of the defensive alliance agreement, leaving them no protection.



The Big Four of the Paris Peace Conference decided on the punishments for Germany in the Treaty of Versailles

#### Chapter 26:

#### The Futile Search for Stability: Europe Between the Wars

The Great War had caused increasing knowledge of western problems, as written by Oswald Spengler in *The Decline of the West*, he talked about the collapse of the western world. The impact of the war included a large population of death among

the European peoples. This led to the construction of war memorials and ceremonies in honor of the people who died because of the war. Battlefields were viewed as commemorative sites and memorial parks, large monument, and massive cemeteries were placed in these areas, including ossuaries, or vaults where the bones of thousands of unidentified soldiers were interred. Countries also had their own personal ceremonies. Social impacts were great, especially on family and the relationship between mother and son. This created a lost generation of war veterans, involved in the violence of the time and this caused the use of violence by these people in political movements. They were strong nationalists with the intent of keeping the best national interests. Peace treaties that were made to benefit states in Europe also left discontent among others. The League of Nations was not very effective in maintaining peace because of the Americans lack of involvement and attempt to retreat from European affairs. The Americans and British also failed in respecting France's request of a defensive alliance, and with the absence of Russian support, France turned to the Little Entente with Poland, Czechoslovakia, Romania, and Yugoslavia as a defensive alliance, which still appeared to be weak. France continued to look for national security and followed strict accordance to the Treaty of Versailles, beginning with reparations that the Germans were supposed to pay of the damage they caused. The Allies threatened an occupation of the Ruhr Valley, a crucial industrial and mining center for the Germans, which forced the Germans into paying the reparations. The Germans declared that they were unable to pay the reparations the following year, and France occupied the Ruhr Valley. The Germans responded by printing more and more money, kicking up inflation. The United States and Britain asked France to change its policy and to reassess the reparations problem. In Germany, Hitler and the Nazi party made an attempt to gain control. Germany was still controlled by Gustav Stresemann who got rid of the passive resistance policy and attempted to get Germany's economy back on its feet. Thanks to the Dawes Plan, the Germans received a loan of \$200 million and a lowered reparation fee that they were able to pay. The loan given by the United States lead to a time of heavy American investments in Europe. The Locarno pact was viewed by many as the beginning of a new era of European peace. Germany entered the League of Nations and promoted peacefulness among the countries. The con about the Locarno pact was there were no clear punishments for the violation of peace. There was also a failure in the disarmament of the countries to a lower amount of weapons and troops but nobody was willing to trust other countries and weapons remained a part of a nation.



The Locarno pact appeared to have caused peace among the European nations.

The Great Depression was caused by two major factors: a downturn in domestic economies and an international financial crisis caused by the collapse of the American stock market in 1929. Mass amount of agricultural products caused a decline in their prices and later tariffs were established to close markets. Coal featured a slump after an increase in the use of oil and hydroelectricity. With the a lot of investments in German stock markets by Americans, a booming New York stock market made investors switch their investments. But later the New York stock market crashed and American investors panicked and withdrew even more funds from Germany and other European markets. This weakened the European banks and many banks collapsed. Unemployment became a big problem as Britain saw a 25 percent unemployment rate, and Germany saw 40 percent of their worker population unemployed. Industrial production nose-dived and so did the unemployed and homeless population. With a large percentage of the worker population unemployed, social standards switched as many women were able to snag low-paying jobs. This angered a large portion of the male population and led to the formation of gangs. Governments became extremely involved in economic affairs. Democracy was beginning to be attacked as new forms of government were proposed.



The Great Depression had a major social impact.

After World War I, Great Britain had serious economic difficulties under Prime Minister David Lloyd George. Coal miners in Britain were especially affected by the decline. A national government, which was a coalition of the liberals and the conservatives, brought Britain out of the depression. Britain ignored the ideas of the famous economist John Keynes, who said that unemployment stems from a decline in demand not overproduction.

After the defeat of Germany, France became the strongest power on the European continent. The French government was stable under Raymond Poincare, but by 1938, France was experiencing serious a decline in confidence in their political system that left them unprepared to deal with the Nazis.

During this time, the Scandinavian states seemed to cope with the Great Depression. Their social democratic governments expanded social services. Between 1900-1939, Sweden experienced the greatest wage increases in Europe.

No western nation was more affected by the great depression than the United States. President Franklin Roosevelt initiated the New Deal. He established federal agencies that used federal funds to help states and local communities. He used federal funds to provide millions of jobs. By 1935, Roosevelt inaugurated the Second New Deal that stepped up public works programs such as building roads, bridges, and airports. The Roosevelt Administration created social security and other welfare systems; however, it did not solve the unemployment problem. Only World War II brought American workers to full employment.





Roosevelt's New Deal advanced the United States towards a welfare state.

In the Middle East, with the fall of the Ottoman and Persian empires, the new regimes emerged in Turkey and Iran. Saudi Arabia and Iraq gained their independence from Britain. Under Kemal, Turkey became westernized and more modern.

In India, Gandhi, also referred to as the Great Soul, set up a movement based on non-violent resistance to force Britain to give India its independence and treat the people better. This policy was called Civil Disobedience and India did not become independent until after World War II, however. The African colonies after World War I were rewarded to Britain and France. Some African leaders such as Du Bois and Marcus Garvey pushed for reforms, but were resisted by the British and French.

Post-World War I societies were badly divided. During the war, the government had to make concessions to trade unions and socialist parties in order to maintain war production. The middle class declined, and after the war, women were forced out of jobs as the men returned. Post war politics became more polarized. Italy became a fascist state and the Stalinist Russia and Nazi Germany moved towards a more totalitarian state. Totalitarian states expected loyalty and commitment of citizens and used propaganda to conquer the minds and hearts of its subjects. A totalitarian state was led by a single leader and a single party and the government power was unlimited while individual freedoms were rejected and subordinated to the will and masses.

In Italy, Benito Mussolini became the leader. He founded a new political movement called fascism. In 1920 and 1921, armed fascists called squadristi were formed and attacked socialist offices and newspapers. The use of violence was crucial to Mussolini's plans. They deliberately created conditions of disorder and a large part of the Italian middle class supported the fascists. In 1922, the fascist black shirts removed King Victor Emmanuel III from office and put Mussolini as prime minister. The fascist controlled the election in 1923 and by 1926; Mussolini had established his fascist dictatorship. Mussolini controlled the media and used the police force for his political gain. A secret police known as OVRA was established. By 1926, Mussolini ruled Italy as Il Duce, or the iron Duce, the leader. Fascism was totalitarian

as Mussolini relied on the young fascists to indoctrinate young people in the fascist ideals. Fascism insisted on militarism for all males.



Mussolini became the fascist leader  
Of Italy.

According to Mussolini, women were to be homemakers and baby producers. Mussolini and the fascist party never really destroyed the old power structure. Mussolini attempted to gain support from the Catholic Church. Mussolini began by recognizing the independence of Vatican City, while the church recognized the Italian state. The Lateran Accords saw the Catholic Church as the sole religion of the state. To help Mussolini, the Church encouraged Italians to support the Fascist regime.

In Germany, a small rightist party called the Nazis, were led by Adolf Hitler and sought control in southern Germany. This stab for power failed but later gained them recognition and in a decade, the Nazis had taken over Germany. In Germany there was the Weimar Republic, who looked to Paul von Hindenburg, a former war hero, for leadership. There were also many other political and economic problems in the Weimar Republic, which led to a great depression in Germany. With the depression and the other continuing issues, the stage was set for Hitler's rise to power with the Nazi party.

At the core of Hitler's ideas was racism, especially anti-Semitism. In 1921, Hitler joined the German Workers' Party. Hitler soon controlled the party and named it the National Socialist German Workers' Party, or NAZI. He established his own police force known as the S.A. or the Sturmabteilung, or storm troops. In his autobiography, *Mein Kampf*, he talked about his brief stay in prison when he attempted to take over the Weimar Republic. He agreed with the ideology of *Lebensraum*, or living space, which stressed the right of superior nations to expand and the right of superior individuals to secure authoritarian leadership over the masses. Hitler's attempt to take over the Weimar Republic was called the Beer Hall Putsch. After he was released from prison, he organized the Nazi party and it was his belief that the party was to follow the *Fuhrerprinzip*, or the leadership principle that there was a single minded party under one leader. But many of the members of the Nazi party were young people. Germany's economic difficulties in 1931 paved the way for the Nazis rise to power. Hitler appealed to the elites because the

industrial magnets, land aristocrats, and military establishment thought Hitler had mass support that would save Germany and their privileged positions from Communist take over. So under pressure from these elites, President Hindenburg allowed Hitler to become chancellor and form a new government. One of Hitler's important cohorts was Hermann Göring, who was the head of the police of the Prussian state. He used his power to make a police force composed of S.A. members. Hitler also convinced President Hindenburg to give the government emergency powers suspending basic rights of citizens during an emergency, thus allowing the Nazis to arrest and imprison anybody. By 1933, Hitler became a dictator. The Nazis moved to enforce Gleichschaltung, putting all governmental institutions under Nazi control. Jews were removed from government jobs and concentration camps were established for opponents of the Nazis. By the summer of 1933, Hitler had established a totalitarian state. Nazis seized power quickly because the depression weakened what little faith the Germans had in their democratic state. Also, to many, the Nazis offered a national awakening. When Hindenburg died on August 2, 1934, the office of president was abolished and Hitler became the sole ruler of Germany as the Führer of the German Reich. The Third Reich had begun.



Hitler led the Nazi party to power in Germany and would later cause destruction Throughout Europe

Hitler also wanted to develop an Aryan racial state, which meant the pure German. In order to unify Germany, he used mass demonstrations and rallies. Hitler's rearmament solved the unemployment problems in Germany and also put Germany's military back on the world stage. The German labor front, under Robert Ley, controlled the workers. The SS, under Hitler, was an instrument of terror and depression. Under Heinrich Himmler, the SS functioned on terror, intimidation, and ideology, which was to further the Aryan master race. Women under the Nazi regime were seen as mothers only. The Nazi government initiated a two day boycott of Jewish businesses and other laws excluded non-Aryans from certain professions. In 1935, at a rally in Nuremberg excluded German Jews from German citizenship and forbade marriages between Jews and German citizens. The Nuremberg laws essentially separated Jews from Germans politically, socially, and legally. A more

violent phase of anti-Jewish activity started in 1938 with the infamous Kristallnacht, or “night of shattered glass.” The assassination of a third secretary in a German embassy in Paris by a young Polish Jew became the excuse for the destructive, Nazi led rampage against the Jews in which synagogues were burned, seven thousand Jewish businesses were destroyed and at least one hundred Jews were killed. 30,000 Jewish males were rounded up and sent to concentration camps.

## Chapter 27:

### The Deepening of the European Crisis: World War II

Overview (Leading up to the war): Only two decades after the Great war, all of the treaties that were made were pushed aside as the Nazis in Germany began a rise to power. The Nazi group began to not follow the punishments enforced upon Germany and with its leader, Hitler, the Nazis wanted to lead Germany to “its rightful place in the world.” Adolf Hitler followed the belief that only the German Aryans could build a truly great civilization but had threats from the east by the inferior people, the Slavs. Hitler said that to become a great power, Germany needed to acquire the land to support a larger population. Believing in Lebensraum, living space, Hitler followed the idea that the land a nation occupied measured the amount of power a nation had. In the point of view of Hitler, the weakened Russia, because of the revolution, could be easily conquered and settled by the Germans and the Slavs used as slaves. The control of Russian lands would create “the Aryan racial state that would dominate Europe for the next thousand years.” Hitler stated that to make Germany a European force and remain as a great power, it must control the lands surrounding it. To achieve this goal, Hitler used slave labor and an attempt to dispose of an entire group of people and also had the rest of his plans mapped out. The fear of his health made Hitler act quickly to achieve his goal of racial supremacy and empire. Hitler and the Nazis began by going on a diplomatic revolution, by trying to appear peaceful while rearming Germany. He altered many of the parts of the Treaty of Versailles and attempted to restore power back to Germany. Hitler took advantage of the British and French fear of entering another war by increasing his army, which got reaction against France, Britain, and Italy, but they did not want to enter another war. Britain also agreed to the Anglo-German Naval Pact, which said Germany was allowed to have a navy, it just had to be 35 percent of the size of Great Britain’s. The use of appeasement by Great Britain was to try to keep peaceful means throughout Europe, as Germany’s power continued to grow. Hitler also moved German troops to occupy the Rhineland, and still no countries reacted. Hitler also gained new allies in Italy with leader Benito Mussolini, and Japan in the Anti-Comintern Pact. Hitler successfully put Germany back atop the powers of Europe and people still thought his motives were out of peace, yet it made the possibility of war greater. As Hitler continued to rearm Germany, he and his fellow military commanders came up with Blitzkrieg, which involved the use of “massive air power to cut quickly across the battle lines and encircle and annihilate entire armies. Hitler also strengthened Germany’s power by threatening Austria, and putting an Austrian

Nazi in charge of the government. Just one day later, Germany annexed Austria. His next move was to crush Czechoslovakia. Believing that France and Britain were unwilling to get involved in the risk of fighting to occur, he made a move on the Czechs. Hitler started by demanding the independence of the Sudetenland area, with many ethnic Germans, knowing that it was a place for Czechoslovakia defense and many resources. Later, though, Hitler demanded to control the territory at any cost, even world war. Continued appeasement, at the Munich Conference, Britain, France, and Italy, along with Germany, met all of Hitler's demands, despite the pact that France had with the Czechs. The people believed Hitler when he said that was his last demand, as Germany gained power over Sudetenland. Hitler thought differently as he had many other demands that must be met for him to be pleased. Following the Munich Conference, Hitler ordered the destruction of the rest of Czechoslovakia, while the Slovaks split from the Czechs and formed Slovakia, a puppet state, which was under Nazi Germany control. By this point, the other states in Europe had begun to react. Hitler demanded to control the city of Danzig, which could serve as a powerful port, but Britain and France stepped in, saying they would protect Poland, where Danzig is, if war were to occur. They also looked to Joseph Stalin and the Soviet Union for some military support to contain the Nazis. Hitler negotiated a nonaggression pact with Soviet Union, which allowed Hitler to attack Poland. When his aggressive attack was made, France and Britain declared war on Germany, and the Soviet Union sent troops into Poland. War had erupted again.



Adolf Hitler used swift negotiation skills to rearm Germany and erupt World War II.

In Asia, Japan had knocked off a few enemies over the years and had made a rise to power. Japan had control over "Korea, Formosa, Manchuria, and the Marshall, Caroline, and Mariana islands in the Pacific." Japan had a population boom that made it hard to support with a few amount of goods and supplies, and had become economically and politically damaged. Japan looked to push farther into China and the Soviet Union with military power. The League of Nations condemned this idea, leading Japan to withdraw from the league. Japan used the starting point of

Manchuria to begin spreading into Northern China. As Japan spread throughout China, the Chinese attempted to compromise with the Japanese, but without stopping, Japan continued on. With no intention to declare war, conflict grew and the Japanese brutally and horribly took control of the capital, Nanjing. Japan also began to talk with Nazi Germany, but with the nonaggression pact with the Soviets, Japan was confused because of their goal to take much of the Soviet land. This led them to move southward, which with many colonies risked "war with the European colonial powers, especially Britain and France." It also threatened the United States, which when Indochina was taken over, the Americans cut off "sales of vital scrap iron and oil to Japan." Japan reacted by attacking an American naval fleet in the Pacific.

Germany quickly mobilized troops into Poland, working off of his ideas that no mercy should be shown. The Germans had surrounded the weaker Polish armies in a very short amount of time and with Soviet forces entering Eastern Poland, the Polish had surrendered just four weeks later. Meanwhile, Britain and France were on the defensive, including France's Maginot Line of concrete and steel fortifications. Germany moved in on Denmark and Norway, forcing them to surrender on June 9, 1940. After, Hitler ordered an attack on the Netherlands, Belgium, and France. Hitler tricked the Allied armies by making them think he was going through Belgium to get the France, but instead went through Luxembourg and the Ardennes, catching the Allies off guard. The "miracle of Dunkirk" kept the French and British army alive, when Hitler halted the advancement of the army and ordered an air strike. This failed, allowing the trapped army to evacuate. Hitler continued his attacks on June 5 and Italy, with Benito Mussolini, got involved. The French were forced to surrender on June 22. Britain saw a change in prime minister by dismissing Chamberlain, who's appeasement policy failed to keep Germany at bay, and looked to Winston Churchill, who had the confidence to achieve British victory. Hitler attempted to compromise with Britain, but Churchill refused and Hitler was forced to confront the British. Hitler ordered air attacks, which the British were able to prepare for, yet still suffered major damages. Hitler changed his strategy to bombing the cities, which gave time for Britain to rebuild "their air strength quickly and were soon inflicting major losses on Luftwaffe," or German, bombers. Hitler thought about a different strategy of closing off the Mediterranean to Britain, by means of the Italians taking over North Africa, but the Italians were defeated, which made the idea very hard to accomplish. Hitler prepared his attack on the Soviet Union, to gain his goal of living space in the East, and finishing off Britain's hopes of ever getting the Soviets as an ally. The attacks were delayed though, because of problems in the Balkans. The Italians, under leadership of Mussolini, attempted to gain more land by attacking Greece, which was a major failure, angering Hitler "because the disastrous invasion of Greece exposed his southern flank to British air bases in Greece. To secure his Balkan flank, Hitler first invaded Yugoslavia," and later took down Greece. Hitler once again turned to the east with a massive army, but underestimated the size and power of the Soviet army. Winter hit the Germans and the Soviets



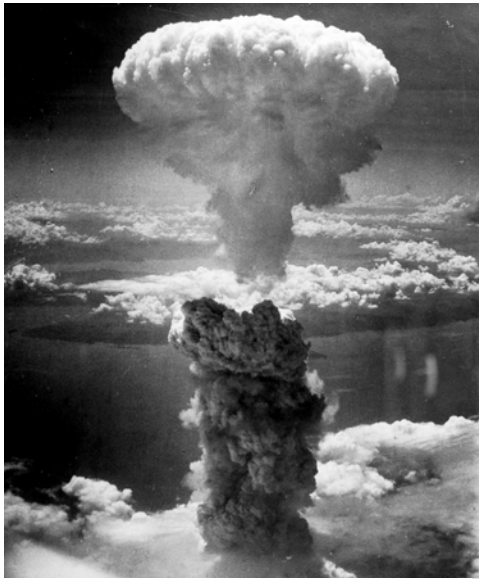
continued to resist. The Germans had been halted, and were getting weaker as the Soviets sent a counterattack, leading to a failed invasion of the Soviet Union for Germany. Hitler's decisions would eventually add up to lead to his downfall, including the decision to declare war on the United States. The Japanese had attacked Pearl Harbor and not many days later, Hitler brought the United States into European conflict. The Japanese had come to control a majority of Asia and had gained resources they had required to fight the war. "The entry of the United States into the war created a coalition (the Grand Alliance) that ultimately defeated the Axis powers." Forming the Grand Alliance to a lot of trust, especially with the principle of unconditional surrender, saying that they would fight until the Axis powers were defeated. Hitler continued to pound at the Soviet Union, capturing the Crimea, and had hoped that Germany would be able to reach as far as India, the sack the British. "But this would be Hitler's last optimistic outburst."



The United States entry in to World War II proved as a turning point.

Hitler felt that the best move for Germany following the Crimea was taking down Stalingrad on the Volga. Hitler sent the German Sixth army and destroyed a majority of the city, but the Soviets "Not a Step Back," policy, kept the battle going, until the German army was surrounded and crushed by Soviet forces. The Soviet Union proved to be too strong for Hitler and the Germans. In Asia, American forces had halted the movement of the Japanese, as the hope of conquering the Pacific "began to fade" for the Japanese. In Europe, the Allies began working to fight back in the west, with a more offensive approach. The Allies tricked the Germans and did not land in flat land, but instead on the Normandy beaches. The Allies managed to break through German defenses and moved south and east. The Allies later pushed farther into Germany where they met up with Soviet forces. The Soviets, with revamped and more inspired army, moved into Germany, where Hitler committed suicide, and the

Germans surrendered. "The war in Europe was over." In Asia, Japan and the United States were still fighting, as the Americans struggled to move into Japanese land. This led to the decision to drop the atomic bomb, forcing Japan to surrender, and the war was over.



The atomic bomb that the United States unleashed on Japan, forced the Japanese to surrender, ending World War II.

The Nazis rise to power had caused them to control many parts of Europe. The Nazi Germany was a threat to other Allied states but also began making the other Axis states feel pressure. The Nazis had annexed many states that had been taken over and were located close to Germany, and still administered states that were located farther away. Their empire had grown drastically. There was also the Nazi New Order in the German policies, which determined how the supposedly "inferior" races to the Aryan people were to be treated. This included many different races that were considered a threat to the Aryan race, such as the Slavic peoples. In Eastern Europe, the Slavic people were kicked out of their land and replaced with Germans who settled there. Some Slavic people were even used as slaves. Hitler and Heinrich Himmler also targeted other races; even the Soviets would become slave labor. The Germans used the gained territories as places for living, but also as places to gain raw materials and natural resources. The Nazis exploited took an over advantage of the gains, which led to shortages of food, clothing, and shelter. There were also labor shortages and the Nazi Germans were forced to allow foreign workers by recruiting them, but the mistreatment of the laborers caused many people to oppose Nazi ideas and occupation. Resistance movements popped up in Nazi-occupied areas. The resistance movements used ideas such as "acts of sabotage against German installations, [assassination] of German officials, spread anti-German newspapers, wrote anti-German sentiments on walls, and spied on German military positions for

the Allies,” as ways to resist Nazi control. There were also women involved in the resistance movements. They carried out various tasks such as carrying messages, planting bombs in Nazi headquarters, assassinating Nazi officers, spreading anti-German ideas, and help carry weapons, medicines, and money to help the resistance. Domestic resistance in Germany occurred for example the ideas of Colonel Count Claus von Stauffenberg, in an attempt to blow up Hitler. Many of the resistance movements in Germany failed, like Stauffenberg’s idea, because of the increased security by the SS and the Gestapo. Despite all of the Nazis hatred toward other ethnicities, none was greater than their hatred toward the Jews. At the beginning, Nazis began looking to expel any German Jews out of the country on the orders of Hitler, who believed that there could only be one group to survive, the Jews or the Aryans. The idea of kicking Jews out of the country, though, turned more violent in the Nazis Final Solution, wiping out the whole Jewish population. With the Einsatzgruppen, Jews were rounded up and killed in masses while thrown into huge graves that fit many people. The shooting of so many innocent people was psychologically affecting the SS and the Einsatzgruppen so a new way of poisoning the Jews with gas was developed, also killing the Jews really quickly. Death camps were also established where many people were killed; the most infamous camp was Auschwitz. Zyklon B gas was used in “shower rooms” and bodies were burned in a crematorium.



The Einsatzgruppen participated in the mass murdering of millions of Jews and other people that were targeted by the Nazis.

In Asia, after Japan had taken over much of the Pacific, Japan became very defensive. Prisoners of war were taken, while Japan had gained the resources that they had much longed for. The Japanese also viciously abused and killed many other people, and also took citizens to be used as forced labor. People were also overworked, which led to the death of many citizens and captured troops from the Allies.

By 1944, 55% were in the armed forces or civilian war work. The British relied on women for filling jobs that were vacant because of the men being at war. The British also increased food production by turning land to growing crops. War required unusual government interference such as production of fuel and power. In the Soviet Union, two out of every five people killed in the war were Soviet citizens.

Because of the invasion of Germany, factories moved to the interior of the Soviet Union. 55% of the Soviet income went to produce machinery that would be contributed to the war. As a result, the Soviet citizens experienced shortages of both food and housing. Soviet women also played a key role in the war effort by working in factories and mines. The Soviet Union was also the only country in World War II to use women as soldiers and pilots. Government propaganda played a large role in patriotic feelings for the Soviet Union.

In the United States, military equipment was produced and the American economy expanded. New industries were developed such as chemicals and electronics and new products such as rocket engines, and the development of the atomic bomb. This ended the Great Depression because the United States was supplying machinery to its allies. Federal Bureaucracy grew, which led to a stronger federal government. African Americans migrated from the south towards the north and the west creating social tensions. Japanese Americans were put into internment camps as a result of Japan's attack on Pearl Harbor. (Like Grandma Kiyo)

In Germany, Hitler did not increase production of military equipment because he didn't want to affect the morale in Germany. He thought he could just plunder the resources of conquered areas. Although Germany under Albert Speer made an effort form mobilization, it was too little, too late. In Japan, they relied on old traditional codes such as Bushido to demand loyalty and service to the emperor and country. Young Japanese pilots flew suicide missions known as Kamikaze to live up to these codes. Women in Japan played little role in military effort.

In World War II, civilian bombing occurred. The German Luftwaffe bombed London and its citizens and British planes bombed Germany and its citizens. Americans bombed transportation facilities and war industries. The bombing of Dresden in Germany may have killed up to 35,000 people. The bombing forced people into the country, but bombing reached a whole new level when the atomic bomb was dropped on Hiroshima and Nagasaki.

At least 21 million soldiers died in World War II. Forty million citizens also died, especially citizens from the Soviet Union and China. The Soviet Union experienced the largest loss of people from the war. The world faced starvation and cities lay in ruins. World War II was not succeeded by peace, though, but instead was followed by the Cold War due to differences between the Soviet Union and the United States. At a conference in the Ukraine in 1945, Churchill, Roosevelt, and Stalin met to discuss post-war issues. The United Nations was created and Germany would be divided into four zones. Stalin agreed to free elections but they were supposed to be pro-Soviet. Differences between the west and the Soviets deteriorated between 1945 and the alliance between them that was made to defeat the Nazis was disbanded after they had successfully completed their goal. The Soviets were asserting control over Eastern Europe. At the Potsdam conference, President Truman demanded free elections in Eastern Europe but was ignored by the Soviet

power and Stalin. In 1946, Churchill declared that an iron curtain had fallen dividing Germany and Europe into two hostile camps.



Potsdam Conference between the allies.

#### Chapter 28:

#### Cold War and a New Western World: 1945-1965

After World War II had ended, the United States and the Soviet Union were in a power struggle over Europe. The United States wanted free elections in Eastern Europe, while Joseph Stalin had his red army install pro-Soviet regimes in Poland, Romania, Bulgaria, and Hungary. During this time, there was a civil war in Greece between the Communists and anti-Communists. Under the Truman Doctrine, the United States would provide foreign aid to countries that claimed they were threatened by Communist expansion. The United States provided economic and military aid for Greece and Turkey. In 1947, under the Marshall Plan, billions of dollars were sent to Europe for economic recovery. George Marshall thought that Communism would spread only in those countries that were poor. Some believed the Marshall Plan forced Stalin to push for even greater control of Eastern Europe. By 1947, the United States played an increasingly important role in European affairs because of the fear of Soviet aggression. George Kennan advocated a policy of containment, which means counterforce to every move the Soviets made. Germany was divided into four occupied zones. The Soviets moved factories from Germany to the Soviet Union, as they controlled eastern Germany. Britain, France, and the United States merged their zones in Germany, forming West Germany. The Soviets imposed a blockade on West Berlin to prevent the formation of West Germany. Rather than going to war, the Western Allied forces dropped food supplies and fuel into West Berlin, called the Berlin Airlift. The Soviets finally lifted the blockade in 1949; East and West Berlin were formed. In 1949, the Soviet Union detonated its first atomic bomb, an arms race began and soon the East and West relied on mutual deterrence based on the thought that large nuclear arsenals would prevent an attack from the other. In 1949, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) was formed. The United States, Canada, and other Western European countries agreed to mutual assistance if anyone of them was attacked. The Eastern European states organized a military alliance in the Warsaw Pact. Cold War spread to the rest of the world, as Chinese communists took over China. The United States and the Soviet Union agreed

to divide Korea into two separate occupation zones, Communist in the North, and anti-communist in the south. On June 25, 1950, North Korean troops invaded South Korea, initiating the Korean War. Americans intervened by sending troops to turn back the invasion. Under the command of General Douglas MacArthur, the American army crossed the 38<sup>th</sup> parallel with the aim of unifying Korea under a non-Communist government. Mao Zedong, leader of Communist China, sent Chinese forces, pushing MacArthur's troops back to South Korea. Fighting between North and South failed to produce a victory for one or the other so an armistice was signed in 1953, keeping North and South Korea separate. As a result of the Chinese intervention, the west was not friendly to China as they relied on the Soviet Union for support.



The North and South Korean conflict increased tension between the United States and the Soviet Union, also getting China involved.

After World War II, Ho Chi Minh and his Communist party, seized power in North and Central Vietnam, while the French controlled South Vietnam. When conflict broke out between North and South Vietnam, the United States got involved again, and so did China. In a Geneva Conference in 1954, the French agreed to a division of Vietnam, creating north and south Vietnam. The United States joined with other countries in central Europe to form the Central Treaty Organization to prevent Soviet expansion. The United States, with other Asian countries, also formed the Southeast Asia Treaty Organization for the same reasons. When Stalin died in 1953, there was thought that there would be "rapprochement" between east and west, but the Soviets crushed an uprising in Hungary and no such peace would be established. In 1957, the Soviet Union launched its first intercontinental ballistic missile and Sputnik I, the first space satellite. In 1961, the Soviet Union built the Berlin Wall around West Berlin to prevent East Germans to move to West Germany. In 1959, Fidel Castro took over Cuba and established a Soviet supported regime. In 1961, an American supported attempt to overthrow Castro by using the Bay of Pigs failed. In 1962, Soviets decided to station nuclear missiles in Cuba, threatening America, leading to the infamous Cuban missile crisis. The Cuban Missile Crisis brought the



Michael Nakamura  
AMES  
May 2014

war frighteningly close to nuclear warfare. Khrushchev, the Soviet leader, agreed to turn back his fleet carrying nuclear weapons to Cuba, if President Kennedy agreed not to invade Cuba. In the same year, the Soviets and the United States agreed to ban nuclear tests to lessen tensions between the two nations.

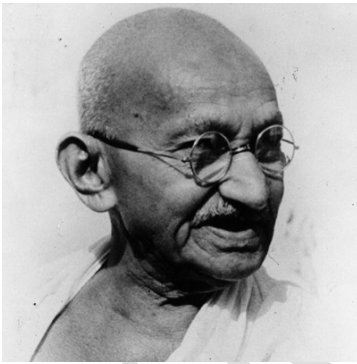
Between 1945 and 1965, European colonies in Africa, Middle East, and Asia began to move towards independence. Important to the process of decolonization was that European countries had been exhausted by the struggles of World War II. In the Gold Coast of Africa, the first African political party called the Convention Peoples Party had formed. In Kenya, the Mau Mau used terrorism to seek independence from Britain. In Egypt, the political party called Wafd formed, and promoted Egyptian independence. In North Africa, France granted full independence to Morocco and Tunisia. In South Africa, South African whites were strengthening the laws separating whites and blacks creating a system of apartheid. After the arrest of Nelson Mandela, members of the African National Congress called for an armed resistance to the white government. By the 1970s, all colonies in Africa were independent.



In South Africa, racial segregation called Apartheid occurred, and many Africans, such as Nelson Mandela, called for resistance against the White government.

At the end of World War II, Zionists wanted Palestine as a home for the Jews. With the support of the United States, an independent Jewish state was formed in Palestine, even though only one third of the local population was Jews. The Jewish state became Israel. The Arab countries and Israel remained bitter and unfriendly towards each other. In 1954, Colonel Nasser seized control of the Egyptian government, and nationalized the Suez Canal Company, which had been under

British and French control. British and France, with the help of Israel, attacked Egypt, but the United States sided with Nasser, along with the Soviet Union. Nasser emerged as a powerful leader and began to promote Pan-Arabism, or Arab unity. Egypt united with Syria to form the United Arab Republic with Nasser as president. The Arab unity, however, failed. In 1964, Egypt took the lead in form the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO) to represent the interest of the Palestinians. The PLO under Yasir Arafat, launched terrorist attacks on Israel. During the 1960s, disputes between Israel and other Middle East states intensified. Egypt imposed a blockade against Israeli shipping, and Israel responded by attacking Egypt and occupied the Sinai Peninsula. In a six-day war, Israel devastated Nasser's forces, and tripled the size of its territory, including all of Jerusalem and the Golan Heights. In Asia, the United States granted independence to the Philippines, Britain did the same to India. Britain realized, however, that India had to be divided into two countries, Hindu (India), and Muslim (Pakistan). A leader in India, named Gandhi, did not want to divide India because there would be war and violence between the Hindus and the Muslims. Gandhi was right, and after the division occurred, millions of Hindus and Muslims crossed the borders leading to violence, while millions were killed, including Gandhi.



Gandhi foresaw the violence that occurred in India when the British divided the country into Pakistan and India.

Other areas in Asia also achieved independence. At the end of World War II, two Chinese governments existed side-by-side, one led by Chiang Kai-shek. Mao's army drove Chiang Kai-shek and his followers to the island of Taiwan. Mao became the leader of Mainland China. He wanted to build a socialist society under the Great Leap Forward. He formed collective farms, but they turned out to be a disaster. In Vietnam, the northern half was under communist leader Ho Chi Minh, supported by the Soviet Union, and the South was kept afloat by American financial and military aid. The Second Vietnam War was because Americans thought they needed to stop Communist expansion.

World War II devastated the Soviet Union. Soviet laborers were expected to work hard for little pay since millions of men were lost in the war and women did forty

percent of manual labor. By 1947, the Soviet Union had achieved economic recovery. The Soviet people, however, were still poor. Stalin, the dictator of Soviet Union, used political terror and intimidation to repress free thought. He died in 1953 opening the door for Khrushchev. He took steps to undo some of Stalin's worse practices, such as allowing more freethinking. But this caused rebellion in some of the Soviet's satellite states. The Soviets crushed the rebellions and Khrushchev had to downplay his de-Stalinization. Khrushchev was forced to leave his position and was replaced by Brezhnev. The Soviet Union remained in control of Eastern Europe and the Balkans. In Yugoslavia, Tito became the leaders of the Communist. After Stalin's death, Eastern European states began to pursue a more nationalistic course. They wanted to become independent from Soviet control, which was forbidden by the Soviets. A compromise was made between Poland and the Soviets, which said that Poland would be given leeway, yet remained part of the Warsaw Pact.



Khrushchev succeeded Stalin  
As leader of the Soviet Union.

By 1950, moderate political parties made a comeback in Western Europe. In France, Charles de Gaulle assumed leadership. De Gaulle drafted a new constitution for the Fifth Republic that enhanced the power of the president. He invested in nuclear arms, but never did achieve his ambitious goals of world power. His nationalization of the French industries led to large deficits and dissatisfaction, and he resigned in 1969.

In West Germany, Adenauer became the leader. He worked with the United States and France, which allowed West Germany to rearm and have a military. West Germany became a very strong economic power. The West German government prosecuted Nazis and gave reparation to Israel and the Holocaust survivors. Great Britain created a modern welfare state, which began with the nationalization of the banks and industries, and transportation and electricity and gas. In 1946, Britain created the national health insurance, social security, and socialized medicine. Britain dismantled the British Empire.

After World War II Italy became a democratic republic. The Marshall Plan helped stabilize the post-war Italian economy. After the war, Western Europe thought it was necessary to create some sort of a European unity among the states. European

Michael Nakamura  
AMES  
May 2014

nations did not give up their sovereignty but they did create economic unions. Six European nations signed the Rome Treaty, or Common Market, which eliminated custom barriers, created large free trade areas, and promoted free trade among them.

In the 1950s, Roosevelt's new deal still had an effect on American society. The power of the federal government increased, organized labor became more significant, and it was the beginning of a welfare state. It was a prosperous time in America. There was also a fear during this time of communism infiltrating the United States. Senator Joseph McCarthy spread the Red Scare, which went too far in hurting people's individual rights. At age 43, President Kennedy was the youngest president of the United States, but was assassinated on November 22, 1963. Lyndon B. Johnson, as president, pursued what he called the Great Society, including healthcare for the elderly, a war on poverty, food stamps, job core, and the new department of Housing and Urban Development. Johnson was also involved in passing the Civil Rights Act in 1964. Martin Luther King Jr. became the leader for racial equality with non-violent protests. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibited segregation and discrimination in the workplace. Race riots broke out in 1965, and radical black leaders such as Malcolm X, promoted violence as a means of change.



Martin Luther King Jr. helped lead the Civil Rights Movement in the United States during the 1960s.

Canada joined with the United States forming the North American Air Defense Command (NORAD). Canada moved to a welfare state by enacting the Canada pension plan and a national health insurance program.

Between 1945 and 1965, western society changed rapidly because of scientific advance, computers, television, and jet planes. Blacks demanded civil rights, the welfare state came into being, and women demanded equal rights, too. In Europe, the middle class expanded to include new managers and technicians that required higher education. There was a dramatic shift of people from rural to urban areas. Increase in wages enabled the working class to consume like the middle class leading to a consumer society. The most visible symbol of mass consumerism was the automobile. There was a greater market for mass leisure activities, also. All aspects of popular culture like music and sports became commercialized. Mass tourism grew as well. The creation of the welfare state saw the power of the government over the lives of the citizens. Affordable health care was the goal of the welfare state, to provide the citizens with required medical needs. In some countries there were family allowances that provided minimal material care for children. Welfare states expanded access to universities by providing help with tuition. The British welfare system was based on a belief that women should stay at home, same with the West German system. In the Communist countries, women were encouraged to work outside the home. France sought to maintain individual rights of women in their welfare system. Women were removed from the workplace at the end of the war to provide jobs for returning soldiers. After World War II, birth rates began to rise creating a baby boom, but it did not last. The size of families started to decline, due in part to the use of birth control, such as the pill. Women, particularly married women, in the workplace increased by the 1970s, but despite this increase, women still earned a lower salary than men. Many European women faced the double burden of a job and taking care of the family household. A women's liberation movement arose during the 1960s. Simone de Beauvoir published a book called "The Second Sex," which said that women had second-class status, but she said that women should be liberated.

In post-war art, Dubuffet painted to capture the effects of war. New York City replaced Paris as the art center of the west. One of the styles that were commonly painted was abstract expressionism, or action painting. Jackson Pollock was one of the abstract expressionists, by creating energetic and spontaneous works.



Jackson Pollock painted  
Energetic pieces of art.

In the 1950s and early 1960s, pop art emerged. This was painting images of popular culture, like Andy Warhol's painting of the Campbell soup cans. In literature, a new

trend was called Theatre of the Absurd. The famous writer was Samuel Beckett, who wrote *Waiting for Godot*. During this time, the philosophy of Existentialism was born. Two famous philosophers were Jean-Paul Sartre and Albert Camus. The central point of Existentialism was the absence of God, no future, not hope, no purpose. "Man is nothing else, but what he makes of himself." On the other side of Existentialism was a revival of religion. Carl Barth and Carl Rahner attempted to revitalize traditional Catholic theology by incorporating modern thought. The United States was the most influential force of shaping popular culture and mass consumerism through movies, television, and popular music. In the United States, jazz, blues, and rock-n-roll, but they were rooted in African American innovations and it inspired music in other countries such as The Beatles and Elvis Presley.

#### Chapter 29:

##### Protest and Stagnation: The Western World

Overview: The late 1960s was described as a permissive society in the western world. Sweden took the lead in the sexual revolution such as sex education and decriminalization of homosexuality. A gay rights movement emerged in California in 1969. Birth control pills were widely available in the 1960s. There was a break down in the traditional family as divorce rates increased and there were sexually explicit movies and magazines. The 1960s also saw the rise of the drug culture. The youth questioned authority and fostered rebellion against the older generation. There were student revolts due to discontent with the education system and heavy opposition to the second Vietnam War. Student protest reached its high point in 1968 as they attacked materialism and the Second Vietnam War. Also in the 1960s, women began to speak their rights as feminists. The Women's Liberation movement, called feminism, wanted political and legal equality. An important contributor to this movement was Betty Friedan. She wrote the *Feminine Mystique*, which said what women were being denied equality with men. She founded the National Organization for Women (NOW). The major issue that mobilized protestors in the United States and Europe was the Americans involvement in the Vietnam wars. A severely bad case was the killing of four students and Kent. State university. In the Soviet Union, under the Brezhnev doctrine, the Soviet Union thought it had a right to intervene if socialism was threatened in another socialist, such as Czechoslovakia. During the Brezhnev years, the relationship between the United States and Soviet Union was détente. The Soviet Union did not advance economically during this time because their bureaucracy discouraged the efficiency of productivity and guaranteed employment and encouraged apathy. The Communist party in the Soviet Union chose Mikhail Gorbachev as their leader. In Poland there was unrest because of the labor movement called Solidarity, led by Lech Welsa. The movement was crushed. In Hungary, under Janos Kadar, the country moved away from Communism and established friendly relations with the west. In Czechoslovakia, the Soviets crushed the Prague Spring to prevent the people from moving away from Communist rule. In Germany, the East Germans remained a



satellite of the Soviet Union, and West Germany developed a stronger economy and prospered. In Romania, Ceausescu ruled with an iron grip. In Great Britain, violence increased as the Irish Republican Army continued its terrorist attacks in Northern Ireland to get away from British rule. In the 1980s, Great Britain elected its first female Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher. She was called the iron lady. As she improved the economy, she also undermined the social welfare system and the quality of education in Britain. France in the early 1980s elected Mitterrand as president. He froze prices and wages to reduce budget deficits and he expanded social programs and pushed socialist policies.



Margaret Thatcher was elected as Britain's first female prime minister.

Western European states continued to pursue their goal of integrating Europe economies through the European Economic Community. In the United States, Richard Nixon was elected president, ending the war in Vietnam and became a law and order president. He was paranoid about conspiracies and began to use illegal methods to gather information from his opponents. He resigned due to the Watergate Scandal in 1974. Under Ford and Carter, the United States economy stagnated, which became known as stagflation, a combination of high inflation and high unemployment. Oil prices increased due to the Middle East getting together and controlling oil prices through OPEC. Carter lost to Ronald Reagan in 1980. The Reagan revolution cutback spending on social welfare programs and implemented supply side economics, which gave tax breaks to the wealthy, with the idea that it would trickle down to the poor.

After Vietnamese forces defeated the French in 1954, Vietnam was divided between North and South. The North, under Ho Chi Minh, received Soviet aid while the pro-western regime in South Vietnam, under Diem, received United States support. South Vietnam was having trouble dealing with the Viet Cong who was South Vietnamese Communist guerillas, backed by the North Vietnamese. The Viet Cong were on the verge of taking control of the entire country, so President Johnson decided to bomb the north and send troops to South Vietnam. This was to prevent the spread of Communism under the domino theory, which meant that if Vietnam went, all the other Asian countries would fall to Communism. U.S. forces failed to prevail against the North Vietnamese forces. Anti-war protests broke out in Europe and the United States. In 1973, President Nixon reached an agreement with North

Michael Nakamura

AMES

May 2014

Vietnam allowing the United States to withdraw. The domino theory never occurred, though.



Vietnam was divided during the Cold War.

In China, Mao unleashed the Red Guards to eliminate the Four Olds: Old Ideas, Old Culture, Old Customs, and Old Habits. This was called the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution. Mao found out that you couldn't have a permanent revolution, which after Mao died, future leaders of China understood. Nixon visited China in 1972 and released tensions between the United States and the Communist China. By the 1970s, American-Soviet relations entered a phase known as *détente*, which was a reduction of tensions between the two states. They signed an anti-ballistic missile treaty to make it unlikely that either superpower could win a nuclear exchange. This was the policy of equivalence. They signed the Helsinki Agreements, freezing the borders of all European nations. When the Soviet Union invaded Afghanistan in 1979, President Carter canceled American participation in the 1980 Olympic games in Moscow. President Reagan began military build up, which ignited the arms race. He supported the strategic defense initiative, nicknamed "Star Wars," to create a "space shield" that could destroy incoming missiles. The Soviet Union had experienced its own Vietnam like war in Afghanistan.

World War II forced the development of technology such as the radar, jet airplanes, propelled rockets, and the computer. The most important product of the war was the atomic bomb developed by Oppenheimer. In the late 1960s and 1970s, massive government funds financed scientific research and technological advances. Grace Hopper developed the early computer. The transistor and silicon chip was developed, also. In a book written by E.F. Schumacher entitled "Small is Beautiful," pointed out the dangers of the new science and technology on the environment. Air pollution was a problem, and rivers, lakes, and seas had become polluted. A nuclear power disaster at Chernobyl in the Ukraine made Europeans even more aware of

potential environmental hazards. The growing concerns of these environmental problems gave rise to the green movement and the green parties. The green parties never replaced the traditional parties, though.



Disasters like at Chernobyl made Europeans more aware of potential Environmental hazards.

In the 1970s, Post-Modernism focused on the relative nature of reality and knowledge. Post-structuralism or deconstruction, composed by Derrida, believed that culture is created in many ways according to the manner in which people create their own meaning. There is no fixed truth or universal meaning. Foucault said that power is exercised rather than possessed and marks all relationships. All norms are culturally produced and entail some degree of power struggle.

Art in the 1960s and 70s created “happenings” works of art, such as Jackson Pollock’s action paintings. Allen Kaprow created events or happenings as art. Robert Smithson’s used a bulldozer to move rock and created the Spiral Jetty on the Great Salt Lake.



Smithson's Spiral Jetty

Photo realists painted or sculpted with such minute detail that the paintings and sculptures appeared to photographs or real life. They emphasized low culture and commonplace. Post Modernism was also evident in literature. The literary style was called magic realism, found in the novel of 100 Years of Solitude by Marquez, who was a Latin-American author. In music, composers such as Schonberg, Messiaen, and Glass followed a music trend called serialism. From 1967-1973, it was the golden age of rock music with the Rolling Stones, inspired by African-American blues artists. They also experienced with Indian Sitar. A lot of the music was anti-Vietnam War and anti-materialism. The music promoted peace and love.



Rock music was lead by the Rolling Stones.

Punk rockers such as the Sex Pistols rejected social conventions and preached anarchy and rebellion. The introduction of the music channel MTV in the early 1980s radically changed the music scene. Michael Jackson used music videos as an art form. Rap and hip-hop emerged as a music form. Sports became a major product of pop culture and leisure. Olympic games could be broadcast around the world and sports television revenue escalated. Soccer remained the dominant world sport. The World Cup was the most watched sporting event on television, serving as an outlet for national and local pride.

Marshall McLuhan said that mass communication technology would eventually shrink the world, lessen cultural distinctions, break down cultural barriers, and transfer the world into a single global village. Some say this was not true because a small number of multinational corporations still control the communications. They argued that this let western popular culture to disrupt the culture of less developed countries.

#### Chapter 30:

##### After the Fall: The Western World in a Global Age (Since 1985)

In 1980, the Soviet Union was seriously ailing. A young reformer by the name of Mikhail Gorbachev was chosen as Party secretary. Gorbachev's radical reforms were called perestroika, or "restructuring." At first this meant only the reordering of economic policy as he began a market economy with limited free enterprise and

some private property ownership. One of the most important aspects of perestroika was glasnost, or “openness.” Glasnost encouraged open discussion about the strengths and weaknesses of the Soviet Union. Pravda, the official communist party newspaper, started reporting problems with the government. Banned works of art were now published for the public and western music was now allowed. Gorbachev also separated the state from the communist party and became the Soviet Union’s first president. The ethnic groups took advantage of the new openness to protest. The Soviet army, tired of its war in Afghanistan, could not stop the Soviet Republic from becoming independent. Boris Yeltsin was elected president of Russia. By 1991, the Soviet Union was disintegrating and the Ukraine voted for independence in December of 1991.



Gorbachev helped lead to the disintegration of the Soviet Union.

In 1991, Gorbachev resigned and Boris Yeltsin took over. By the end of 1991, one of the largest empires in world history had evaporated and a new era had begun in its lands. In the New Russia, Yeltsin tried to move to a free market economy. A war in Caucasus, where Muslim people of Chechnya saw independence from Russia, drained the government’s budget and exposed how weak the Red Army was.

At the end of 1999, Yeltsin resigned and was replaced by **Vladimir Putin**, former member of the KGB. Putin centralized the government and vowed to return the breakaway state of Chechnya to Russia. Although many Russians are uneasy about the decline of social order, they seemed to sympathize with Putin’s attempt to restore a sense of pride and discipline in Russia. In Poland, the newly elected solidarity coalition formed a new government, ending communist rule. Other events in Europe during this time included the election of Lech Walesa, the new Polish president, and Hungary became a democratic government. In Romania, Nicolai Ceausescu became a dictator. The fall of communist governments in Eastern Europe during the revolution of 1989 brought a wave of euphoria to Europe. The problem was that the Eastern European countries had no experience with democratic systems and were having difficulty making the transitions. The ethnic divisions still continued in these countries. Nonetheless, these independent eastern European states worked with the west and joined both NATO and the European Union. During this time, the most dramatic events took place in East Germany. In 1989, the East

Germans opened up the border with the west. The Berlin Wall tumbled down to rubble and Germany was reunified in 1990. In Yugoslavia, under the rule of Milosevic, the fighting between the Slovenians, Croats, and Bosnians was violent. Bosnia- Herzegovina, Slovenia, and Croatia became independent, but the Serbs turned their guns on Bosnia. The Serbian policy of ethnic cleansing, which meant killing and forcibly removing Bosnians from their land, reminded people of the Nazis atrocities of World War II.



My info gram on the Yugoslavia ethnic cleansing.

Fighting between the Muslim and Croatian army, and the Serbian forces, had forced the United States to become involved under President Bill Clinton. The United States encouraged a treaty that would split Bosnia and Herzegovina into two republics. In Yugoslavia, the Serbs, under Milosevic, began massacring Albanians in Kosovo. The United States and NATO wanted it to stop. When Milosevic refused, the NATO bombed Yugoslavia in an attempt to end the conflict. Later, Milosevic was put on trial for war crimes but later died in prison. Yugoslavia ceased to exist when in



Michael Nakamura

AMES

May 2014

2004; a new government under Kostunica renamed the countries of Serbia and Montenegro.

With the reunification of Germany led to a new leading power in Europe under Helmut Kohl. The problem, however, was that West Germany had to absorb the problems of East Germany. The current leader of Germany is Angela Merkel, who was the first female chancellor in Germany.

In Britain, a prominent prime minister, Tony Blair, was a centrist. However, he lost popularity with his support of the U.S. war in Iraq. The new prime minister of Britain is Gordon Brown. In France, there was economic decline in 1988, as France became conservative under President Jacques Chirac. France was experiencing an immigration problem. There has been tension with the Muslim population in France. Corruption has continued to trouble Italian politics after 1985, including the antics of Silvio Berlusconi. In 1994, the European community became known as the European union. It encouraged trade between 15 members and it also introduced a common currency called the Euro, adopted in 1999. A European central bank was also created. The European Union is considering adding states of eastern and southeastern Europe. In 2004, the European Union added ten new eastern European countries. The European Union also expanded in 2007. In the United States, Bill Clinton became president in 1992. His first term was helped by an economic revival and his second term was overshadowed by charges of misconduct stemming from an affair with a White House intern. George Bush won the presidential election in 2000, even though he lost the popular vote. His term was occupied with a war in Iraq and a war on terrorism. In Canada, Brian Mulroney sought greater privatization of Canada's state-run corporations and negotiated a free trade agreement with the United States. His big problem was the province of Quebec, which was French speaking, wanted to secede from Canada. Quebec voters narrowly defeated the plan but the debate continues.

Gorbachev, under his "new thinking," started a plan for arms limitation that led to an agreement with the United States in 1987 to eliminate intermediate range nuclear weapons. During the Reagan years, the United States moved from the biggest creditor nation to the world's largest debtor nation. In 1990, the Iraqi military forces occupied Kuwait. International forces led by the United States liberated Kuwait during the Gulf War. The Soviets actually supported the American actions.





Gorbachev and Reagan discussing  
The new agreement of weapons in front of  
Saint Basil's Cathedral

Acts of terror became an aspect of modern western society. In 1996, President Clinton called terrorism the enemy of our generation. A prominent terrorist group was the Irish Republican Army, which resorted vicious attacks in Northern Ireland. Palestinian terrorists were prominent throughout Europe. By December 21, 1988, Pan American flight 103 exploded over Lockerbie, Scotland. Two Libyan terrorists planned the explosion.

One of the most destructive acts of terrorism occurred on September 11, 2001, when terrorists flew to airplanes directly into the World Trade Towers in New York City, including a third plane slamming into the Pentagon, and a fourth plane headed towards Washington D.C. was crashed in Pennsylvania. The International Terrorist Organization, known as al Qaeda, (the base) run by Osama bin Laden, was responsible for the terrorist attacks that occurred. The Islamic rulers known as the Taliban protected terrorist training camps in Afghanistan. In October 2001, the United States and NATO bombed Taliban control centers in Afghanistan. Afghan forces opposed to the Taliban and assisted by U.S. forces, pushed the Taliban out of Kabul, the capital of Afghanistan. In 2002, under President George Bush, the United States attacked Iraq. Although Saddam Hussein, the Iraqi leader, was captured and executed, it was difficult to form a new government in Iraq because of the different ethnic groups: the Shiite Muslims, the Sunni Muslims, and the ethnic Kurds. In 1979, a revolution in Iran created a new Islamic government under the Ayatollah Khomeini, who hated the United States. There is a deep anti-American sentiment in the Arab world.



Saddam Hussein was captured and killed by the United States, but the Iraqi government still did not change.

In the 1960s, the birth rates in Europe declined. Women in the workforce rose. The feminist formed consciousness-raising groups to heighten awareness of women's issues. Women fought for the right to both contraception and abortion. As women became activists, they became involved in movements like the anti-nuclear movement and the ecological movement. As the economies of Western European countries revived in the 1950s and 1960s, there was a labor shortage that encouraged the government to rely on foreign workers or guest workers from Eastern and Southern Europe and from the Caribbean, India, and Pakistan. European countries passed legislation to restrict new immigration. So many foreigners increased tension in the European countries because native residents opposed making their countries ethnically diverse. In the early 1990s, there were organized campaigns of violence against African and Asian immigrants. Also with the influx of foreigners in Europe, there was a dramatic increase in the number of Muslims.

Western culture has expanded to most parts of the world. Church attendance in Europe and the United States declined in the 1960s and 1970s as a result of growing secular attitudes. Fundamentalism, which preaches strict interpretation of the bible, rose, however. In the United States, fundamentalists organized to elect candidates that supported their views, and more important in electing Ronald Reagan and George Bush. Islam fundamentalism also grew, such as the rise of the Taliban. Islam is growing in both Europe and the United States.

In the 1980s and 90s, Pope John Paul II was the leader of the Catholic Church. He was the first non-Italian to be elected pope since the 16<sup>th</sup> century. Also in the 80s and 90s was an age of commerce in art and music. Neo-expressionism reached its height with artists like Kiefer and Basquiat. Grunge music emerged in the 90s that questioned consumerism as rock bands like Nirvana, Sonic Youth, and Pearl Jam. Hip hop continued to gain popularity and rappers like Dr. Dre and Snoop Doggy Dogg created gangster rap.

Michael Nakamura  
AMES  
May 2014



Neo-expressionism was the popular form  
Of art during this time