# Test 5 – Study Guide

## The Industrial Age (The 19th Century)

### The Industrial Revolution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>APE Curriculum The Agricultural Revolution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>By the mid-1700s, higher agricultural productivity (New Word Crops, scientific management, new science [fertilizers, tools]) and improved transportation increased the food supply, allowing populations to grow</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industrialization &amp; Urbanization</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The putting-out system, or cottage industry, expanded as increasing numbers of laborers in homes or workshops produced for markets through merchant intermediaries or workshop owners. <strong>Richard Arkwright's loom</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Agricultural Revolution produced more food using fewer workers; as a result, people migrated from rural areas to the cities in search of work. [Urbanization]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cities offered economic opportunities, which attracted increasing migration from rural areas, transforming urban life and creating challenges for the new urbanites and their families.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe experienced rapid population growth and urbanization, leading to social dislocations. Along with better harvests caused in part by the commercialization of agriculture, industrialization eventually promoted population growth, longer life expectancy, and lowered infant mortality.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Why Britain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Britain’s ready supplies of coal, iron ore, and other essential raw materials promoted industrial growth. Economic institutions and human capital such as engineers, inventors, and capitalists helped Britain lead the process of industrialization, largely through private initiative. Britain’s parliamentary government promoted commercial and industrial interests because those interests were represented in Parliament.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great Britain established its industrial dominance through the mechanization of textile production, iron and steel production, and new transportation systems in conjunction with uniquely favorable political and social climates.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Following the British example, industrialization took root in continental Europe, sometimes with state sponsorship.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spread of the I.R.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>France</strong> moved toward industrialization at a more gradual pace than Great Britain, with government support and with less dislocation of traditional methods of production.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrialization in Prussia allowed that state to become the leader of a unified <strong>Germany</strong>, which subsequently underwent rapid industrialization under government sponsorship.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In some of the less industrialized areas of <strong>SOUTHERN and EASTERN Europe</strong>, the dominance of agricultural elites continued into the 20th century… some areas of Europe lagged in industrialization while facing famine, debt, and land shortages. <strong>Examples</strong> The “Hungry ’40s” Irish potato famine Russian serfdom</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industrial Society</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The growth of cities eroded traditional communal values, and city governments strained to provide protection and a healthy environment. With migration from rural to urban areas in industrialized regions, cities experienced overcrowding, disease, crime, and social alienation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The concentration of the poor in cities led to a greater awareness of poverty, crime, and prostitution as social problems and prompted increased efforts to police marginal groups. <strong>EX</strong>: Peels urban reforms (police, gas lights), Poor Laws 1834 (workhouses, poorhouses) [in UK]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
New technologies and means of communication and transportation—including railroads—resulted in more **fully integrated national economies**, a higher level of urbanization, and a truly global economic network.

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

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

Over time, the Industrial Revolution altered the family structure and relations for bourgeois and working-class families. **[nuclear family, cult of domesticity]** with distinct gender roles for men and women.

By 1900, higher wages, laws restricting the labor of children and women, social welfare programs, improved diet, and increased access to birth control led to an **improved quality of life for the working class (proletariat)**.

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

Leisure time centered increasingly on the family

**EXAMPLES:**
- Parks
- Sports clubs and arenas
- Department stores
- Museums
- and Theaters

**Isms**

**APE Curriculum**
Throughout the 19th century, new ideologies developed and took root throughout society as a response to industrial and political revolutions.

**Capitalism**

Adam Smith & *Wealth of Nations*
- division of labor
- **Main ideas of Capitalism**
  - What is capital?
  - Law of Supply & Demand
  - Law of Competition (and efficiency)
  - Self Interest, the Invisible Hand
  - Entrepreneur
  - laissez faire

David Ricardo 1"Iron Law of Wages"
Malthus

**Romanticism**

Rousseau is back
Kant — *a priori and a posteriori* truth / Ethics — the *categorical imperative* is felt

**Ideas**
- Man is good — radical individualism/nonconformity
- Intuition/feeling/passion over reason
- Against elitism and industry
- Fascination with mysterious, medieval, monsters
- Nature as source of truth via experience
- Nationalism and equality
While Enlightenment (MODERNIST) values dominated European ideas culture, they were challenged by Romanticism emerged as a challenge to Enlightenment rationality. Romantic writers responded to the Industrial Revolution and to various political revolutions.

**EXAMPLES**
- Johann Wolfgang von Goethe – Young Werther (nonconformist, romantic love)
- William Wordsworth – nature
- Mary Shelley - Frankenstein, anti-industry
- Victor Hugo - Hunchback

**REACTIONARIES** were opposed democracy and favored tradition, the aristocracy and monarchy. They hated the legacy of the French Revolution.

**APE Curriculum**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reactionaries</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>The Concert of Europe</strong> (or Congress System) sought to maintain the status quo through collective action and adherence to conservatism. Led by Austrian Foreign minister Metternich, suppressed several uprisings between 1815-1830.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Conservatives**

Conservatives developed a new ideology in support of traditional political and religious authorities, which was based on the idea that human nature was not perfectible. They did favor limited popular sovereignty, rule of law, and government improvements, based on traditional morality. They tended to favor rule by the “better” people, aristocrats and bourgeois meritocracy.

**APE Curriculum**

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<td>Conservatives emphasized popular sovereignty, individual rights, and enlightened self-interest but debated the extent to which all groups in society should actively participate in its governance.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**EXAMPLES**
- Edmund Burke (UK), Reform Tories like Peel and Shaftesbury (UK), King Louis Phillippe (France), Louis Napoleon Bonaparte (France)

**Classical liberals**

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

**APE Curriculum**

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**EXAMPLES**
- Jeremy Bentham (Utilitarianism – happiness redefined as hedonism)
- Anti-Corn Law League
- John Stuart Mill On Liberty
- Chartist

Radicals and republicans on the continent demanded universal male suffrage and full citizenship without regard to wealth and property ownership, and the end of any privilege for aristocrats; some argued that such rights should be extended to women. They were often anticlerical.

In the latter 19c, Liberalism shifted from laissez-faire to interventionist economic and social policies in response to the challenges of industrialization. It also tended to become more assertively secular.

**EXAMPLES**
- Auguste Comte (sociology, positivism)

**Nationalists**

Nationalists encouraged loyalty to the nation in a variety of ways, including romantic idealism, liberal reform, political unification, and/or hostility toward other nationalities that threatened a particular ethnic group.

**APE Curriculum**

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**EXAMPLES**
- J. G. Fichte
- Grimm Brothers
- Giuseppe Mazzini
- Pan-Slavists
- Irish “Fenians”
- Polish nationalists

**Pan-Germanism**

Burschenschaft (students)
Carlsbad Decrees
Socialists

Socialists called for the redistribution of society’s resources and wealth and evolved from a utopian to a Marxist scientific critique of capitalism.

**Examples**
- Henri de Saint-Simon [Utopian socialist]
- Charles Fourier [Utopian socialist]
- Louis Blanc [Utopian socialist]
- Robert Owen [Christian socialist]

Karl Marx

Marx’s “scientific socialism” [aka communism] provided a systematic critique of capitalism and a deterministic analysis of society and historical evolution.

Anarchists asserted that all forms of governmental authority were unnecessary and should be overthrown and replaced with a society based on voluntary cooperation.
- Kropotkin
- Mikhail Bakunin
- Georges Sorel

**Communist Manifesto (Marx & Engels)**
- alienation of labor

**Capital (Das Kapital),**
- doctrine of surplus value [or “labor theory of value”]
- dictatorship of the proletariat

Edouard Bernstein & Democratic Socialism

1st International
2nd International

19th Century Politics and Society

Governments, pressured by various political or social organizations, responded to problems of industrialization. Reforms transformed unhealthy and overcrowded cities by modernizing infrastructure, regulating public health, reforming prisons, and establishing modern police forces. The reforms were enacted by governments motivated by such forces as public opinion, prominent individuals, and religious charity organizations.

**Examples**
- Laws restricting the labor of children and women
- Factory Act of 1833
- Mines Act of 1842
- Ten Hours Act of 1847
- Laws improving cities
- Sewage and water systems [Edwin Chadwick]
- Public lighting / modernized police forces
- Public housing / housing codes
- Urban redesign
- Public transportation

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

Various nongovernmental reform movements, many of them religious, assisted the poor and worked to end serfdom and slavery.

**Examples**
- The Sunday School / Ragged School movement
- The temperance movement
- Abolition (Wilberforce)
In the first half of the 19th century [1815-1848], revolutionaries attempted to destroy the status quo. Illustrative examples, early 19th-century political revolts:
- War of Greek Independence
- Decembrist revolt in Russia
- Polish rebellion(s)
- July Revolution in France  1830

Mass-based political parties emerged as ways of social, economic, and political reform.

**EXAMPLES**
- Conservatives and Liberals in Great Britain
- Conservatives and Socialists in France
- Catholic Center and Social Democratic Party in Germany

Workers established labor unions and movements promoting social and economic reforms that also developed into political parties.

**EXAMPLES**
- Unions legalized in UK, 1831
- German Social Democratic Party
- British Labour Party
- Russian Social Democratic Party
- Catholic Labor movements after *Rerum Novarum* (1891)

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

**EXAMPLES**
- Flora Tristan
- The Pankhurst family

### BRITAIN evolves

Religious reformers (Evangelicals)
- Clapham Sect
- William Wilberforce
- Robert Peel
- Lord Ashley

*Peterloo* 1819
- Reform Bill 1832
- Chartist movement 1838-48

situation in 19c Ireland including famine of 1840s
- Repeal of Corn Laws | Peel
- After 1850...Whigs to Liberals / Tories to Conservative party
- Unions, Fabians and the Labour Party  | 1890s

### FRANCE

white terror after 1815
- The July Revolution in France 1830  
  Louis Phillippe

### 1848 Revolution

The revolutions of 1848, triggered by economic hardship and discontent with the political status quo, challenged conservative politicians and governments and led to the breakdown of the Concert of Europe.

**APE Curriculum**

FRANCE
- Louis Blanc & Bloody June Days
- Louis Napoleon Bonaparte

GERMANY - the Frankfurt Assembly, 1848
- Prussia’s Frederick William IV grants Prussia a constitution
  ...and crushes the Frankfurt Assembly

AUSTRIA & ITALY
- Metternich flees Vienna riots
- Italian revolts / Garibaldi seizes Rome
Slavs and Hungarians revolt
Emperor Franz Josef takes over and crushes revolts
Russia helps crush Hungary
France protects Pope

THE BIG "SO WHAT'S" of '48

Late 19th Isms

| APE Curriculum | Positivism, or the philosophy that science alone provides knowledge, emphasized the rational and scientific analysis of nature and human affairs. (Comte) | Charles Darwin provided a scientific and material account of biological change and the development of human beings as a species, and inadvertently, a justification for racialist theories that became known as Social Darwinism. |

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philosophical materialism
secularism or naturalism
scientism
humanism
determinism

Darwin

Inspirations and theories…and implications

*Origin of Species* 1859
*Descent of Man* 1871

Spencer & Social Darwinism

Effects of Darwinism on social and political thought
Herbert Spencer
As justification for capitalism, imperialism, racism
Eugenics | Francis Galton
Ernst Haeckl

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THREE WESTERN WORLDVIEWS</th>
<th>Judeo-Christian</th>
<th>Modernism</th>
<th>Romanticism...Nietzsche</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Key Books/Thinkers...19th Century Thinkers</td>
<td>Bible, Augustine, Aquinas, many others...Kierkegaard, Chesterton</td>
<td>Descartes, (various) Enlightenment...Darwin, Spencer, Freud, B. Russell, Comte, Mill, W. James, Bentham</td>
<td>Rousseau... Hegel, Kant, Nietzsche</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is prime reality?</td>
<td>God matters</td>
<td>Matter matters (philosophical materialism)</td>
<td>What I will or experience to be true (&quot;No such thing as facts&quot;)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human nature?</td>
<td>Body &amp; soul; good &amp; evil</td>
<td>Merely matter</td>
<td>Whatever I say it is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Truth</td>
<td>Absolute - Reason; intuition; revelation</td>
<td>Absolute - Reason alone</td>
<td>Relative - What you will / feel / intuit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethics</td>
<td>Align with moral order authored by God</td>
<td>What is practical, what works; might makes right; greatest material prosperity for greatest number</td>
<td>No good or evil; Might makes right</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the later 19th century, a new relativism or **IRRATIONALISM** in values and the loss of confidence in the objectivity of knowledge led to modernism in intellectual and cultural life. Illustrative examples, philosophers who emphasized the irrational:

**EXAMPLES**

**Friedrich Nietzsche**

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

Developments in the natural sciences, such as quantum mechanics and the theory of **relativity**, undermined the primacy of Newtonian physics as an objective description of nature.

**EXAMPLES**

**Max Planck**

**Albert Einstein**

**Freud**

- Ego/superego/id
- Animal drives
- Determinism in humanity

**Jung** – personality, collective subconscious

**Nietzsche**

- nihilism  
- “nothing matters”!
- truth - will [power]
- *ubermens*ch

**The Second Industrial Era** [*1850-1945*]

**APE Curriculum**

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**EXAMPLES**

**Max Planck**

**Albert Einstein**

**Freud**

- Ego/superego/id
- Animal drives
- Determinism in humanity

**Jung** – personality, collective subconscious

**Nietzsche**

- nihilism  
- “nothing matters”!
- truth - will [power]
- *ubermens*ch

**The Second Industrial Era** [*1850-1945*]

**APE Curriculum**

During the **second industrial revolution**, more areas of Europe experienced industrial activity, and industrial processes increased in scale and complexity. New efficient methods of transportation and other innovations created new industries, improved the distribution of goods, increased **consumerism**, and enhanced the quality of life. Mechanization and the factory system became the predominant modes of production by 1914.

**Examples**

- communication and transportation:
  - Telegraph
  - Steamship
  - Streetcars or trolley cars
  - Telephones
  - Internal combustion engine - Automobile
  - Airplane
  - Radio
  - Streetcars
  - Bicycles
  - Refrigerated rail cars [c.1890s]

**Examples**

- Processes and factories
  - Bessemer process [steel]
  - Mass production and standardized parts
  - Chemical industry
  - Electricity and utilities

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

**Examples**

- Advertising
- Department stores
- Catalogs
- Leisure travel
- Professional and leisure sports
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BUILDING MATERIAL</th>
<th>FIRST INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION</th>
<th>2nd INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION (after 1850)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Iron</td>
<td></td>
<td>Steel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ENERGY</td>
<td>Coal, Steam</td>
<td>Oil &amp; Gas, Electricity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DOMINANT NATION(s)</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>USA, Germany, France, Britain, Japan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MACHINES</td>
<td>In factories</td>
<td>On farms and in homes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRAVEL</td>
<td>Trains &amp; Canals</td>
<td>Planes &amp; Automobiles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CITIES</td>
<td>Few technological benefits</td>
<td>Technological infrastructure [subways, wiring, sewage]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMMUNICATION</td>
<td>Telegraph</td>
<td>Telephone &amp; Radio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORGANIZATION</td>
<td>Single owner factories</td>
<td>Global Corporations (“trusts” or “cartels”)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

...for these people what was/were their major invention or discovery?

Alexander Bell  
Guillermo Marconi  
Gottlieb Daimler  
Count von Zeppelin & the Wright Brothers  
Joseph Lister  
Louis Pasteur & Robert Koch  
[as a group] Michael Faraday, Nikola Tesla, Thomas Edison  
Louis Daguerre

19c Art/Lit

APE Curriculum

Romanticism broke with Neoclassical forms of artistic representation and with rationalism, placing more emphasis on intuition, emotion, nature, individuality, the supernatural, and nationalism.

Examples:
Francisco Goya  
Caspar David Friedrich  
J.M.W. Turner  
John Constable  
Eugène Delacroix  
Music:
Ludwig van Beethoven  
Frédéric Chopin  
Richard Wagner  
Pyotr Tchaikovsky

Examples:
Freidrich  
Turner  
Constable  
Delacroix  
Goya
**Realism** depicted the lives of ordinary people and drew attention to social problems.

**AUTHORS**
- Charles Dickens
- Fyodor Dostoevsky
- Leo Tolstoy
- Emile Zola

Modern art, including **Impressionism, Post-Impressionism, and Cubism**, moved beyond the representational to the subjective, abstract, and expressive and often provoked audiences.

**Examples**
- Honore Daumier
- Gustave Courbet
- Jean-Francois Millet

- **Impressionism**
  - Claude Monet
  - Paul Cezanne
  - Edgar Degas

- **Post-Impressionism**
  - Vincent Van Gogh
  - Edvard Munch

- **Cubism**
  - Pablo Picasso

- **Decadent movement**
  - Gustav Klimt

**Examples**

- **Cézanne**
- **Monet**

- **Munch**
- **VanGogh**
- **Picasso**
### RELIGIOUS RESPONSES to Modernity & Secularism

**Vatican I (1870)**  
**Leo XIII** *Rerum Novarum* (1891)  
**Abraham Kuyper**  
Christian Centrists / Christian Democratic parties  
**Dostoyevsky**  
**Kierkegaard**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spectrum in Politics (Europe, c.1900)</th>
<th>Marxists</th>
<th>Democratic Socialists</th>
<th>Liberals (after 1880s)</th>
<th>Classical Liberals &amp; Social Darwinists</th>
<th>Christian Center</th>
<th>Conservatives</th>
<th>Reactionaries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Equality and Voting</strong></td>
<td>Equality for all...but Marxists want a REVOLUTION...anti-democratic.</td>
<td>Equality for all</td>
<td>Equality for all</td>
<td>Legal equality; most (but not all) MEN should vote*</td>
<td>Equality of all men</td>
<td>Legal equality; most (but not all) MEN should vote</td>
<td>Rule of the aristocrats or racial elite...anti-democratic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Poverty</strong></td>
<td>Destroy bourgeoisie; equalize poverty</td>
<td>Heavy taxes on rich to equalize property</td>
<td>Social programs; progressive taxation</td>
<td>The poor are less fit...but education and a few social programs ok</td>
<td>Social aid and education for poor</td>
<td>The poor are less fit...but education and a few social programs ok</td>
<td>The poor are stupid; private charity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Religion</strong></td>
<td>Very anticlerical</td>
<td>Very anticlerical</td>
<td>Very anticlerical</td>
<td>Very anticlerical</td>
<td>Churches have a legitimate role to play in society, including education.</td>
<td>The national Church has a strong role in society, including education.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Right to Property</strong></td>
<td>No; nationalize all industry.</td>
<td>Some; but property should be redistributed from rich to poor; nationalize some industry.</td>
<td>Some; but heavy taxes on rich; nationalize some industry.</td>
<td>Yes; strong.</td>
<td>Yes; strong.</td>
<td>Yes; strong.</td>
<td>Yes; strong.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Nationalism &amp; Colonies</strong></td>
<td>Internationalists; weak on national pride. Anti-colonial</td>
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<td>Somewhat nationalistic; some favor colonies as a means to civilize non-whites.</td>
<td>Nationalistic; favor colonies as a means to civilize non-whites.</td>
<td>Somewhat nationalistic; some favor colonies as a means to civilize non-whites.</td>
<td>Strongly nationalistic; pro-colonial.</td>
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<td><strong>Women</strong></td>
<td>Equality for women.</td>
<td>Equality for women.</td>
<td>Equality for women.</td>
<td>* As time goes on some favor women’s vote</td>
<td>* As time goes on some favor women’s vote</td>
<td>Generally opposed to women’s right to vote.</td>
<td>Generally opposed to women’s right to vote. (Or voting in general)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Parties</strong></td>
<td>Communists</td>
<td>Social Democrats (GER); Socialists (FR, ITALY, SPAIN); Labour (UK)</td>
<td>Labour (UK); Whigs (UK); Liberal Party (UK)</td>
<td>Catholic Center (later Christian Democrats) (FR, ITALY, NETH, Conservatives (UK)</td>
<td>Tories/Conservatives (UK)</td>
<td>Monarchists Militarists</td>
<td></td>
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</table>
AP Key Concepts for this unit (For what it’s worth)

Key Concept 3.1
The transition from an agricultural to an industrial economy began in Britain in the 18th century, spread to France and Germany between 1850 and 1870, and finally spread to Russia in the 1890s. The governments of those countries actively supported industrialization. In southern and eastern Europe, some pockets of industry developed, surrounded by traditional agrarian economies. Although continental nations sought to borrow from and in some instances imitate the British model—the success of which was represented by the Crystal Palace Exhibition in 1851—each nation’s experience of industrialization was shaped by its own matrix of geographic, social, and political factors. The legacy of the revolution in France, for example, led to a more gradual adoption of mechanization in production, ensuring a more incremental industrialization than was the case in Britain. Despite the creation of a customs union in the 1830s, Germany’s lack of political unity hindered its industrial development. However, following unification in 1871, the German Empire quickly came to challenge British dominance in key industries, such as steel, coal, and chemicals. Beginning in the 1870s, the European economy fluctuated widely because of the vagaries of financial markets. Continental states responded by assisting and protecting the development of national industry in a variety of ways, the most important being protective tariffs, military procurements, and colonial conquests. Key economic stakeholders, such as corporations and industrialists, looked to national governments to promote economic development by subsidizing ports, transportation, and new inventions; registering patents and sponsoring education; encouraging investments and enforcing contracts; and maintaining order and preventing labor strikes. In the 20th century, some national governments assumed far-reaching control over their respective economies, largely in order to contend with the challenges of war and financial crises.

Key Concept 3.2
Industrialization promoted the development of new socioeconomic classes between 1815 and 1914. In highly industrialized areas, such as western and northern Europe, the new economy created new social divisions, leading for the first time to the development of self-conscious economic classes, especially the proletariat and the bourgeoisie. In addition, economic changes led to the rise of trade and industrial unions, benevolent associations, sport clubs, and distinctive class-based cultures of dress, speech, values, and customs. Europe also experienced rapid population growth and urbanization that resulted in benefits as well as social dislocations. The increased population created an enlarged labor force, but in some areas migration from the countryside to the towns and cities led to overcrowding and significant emigration overseas.

Industrialization and urbanization changed the structure and relations of bourgeois and working-class families to varying degrees. Birth control became increasingly common across Europe, and childhood experience changed with the advent of protective legislation, universal schooling, and smaller families. The growth of a cult of domesticity established new models of gendered behavior for men and women. Gender roles became more clearly defined as middle-class women withdrew from the workforce. At the same time, working-class women increased their participation as wage laborers, although the middle class criticized them for neglecting their families. Industrialization and urbanization also changed people’s conception of time; in particular, work and leisure were increasingly differentiated by means of the imposition of strict work schedules and the separation of the workplace from the home. Increasingly, trade unions charged themselves as the protectors of workers and working-class families, lobbying for improved working conditions and old-age pensions. Increasing leisure time spurred the development of leisure activities and spaces for bourgeois families. Overall, although inequality and poverty remained significant social problems, the quality of material life improved. For most social groups, the standard of living rose, the availability of consumer products grew, and sanitary standards, medical care, and life expectancy improved.

Key Concept 3.3
The French and industrial revolutions triggered dramatic political and social consequences and new theories to deal with them. The ideologies engendered by these 19th-century revolutions—conservatism, liberalism, socialism, nationalism, and even romanticism—provided their adherents with coherent views of the world and differing blueprints for change. The responses to socioeconomic changes reached a culmination in the revolutions of 1848, but the failure of these uprisings left the issues raised by the economic, political, and social transformations unresolved well into the 20th century.

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

Nationalism acted as one of the most powerful engines of political change, inspiring revolutions as well as campaigns by states for national unity or a higher degree of centralization. Early nationalism emphasized shared historical and cultural experiences that often threatened traditional elites. Over the course of the 19th century, leaders recognized the need to promote national unity through economic development and expanding state functions to meet the challenges posed by industry.
Key Concept 3.4
Following a quarter-century of revolutionary upheaval and war spurred by Napoleon’s imperial ambitions, the Great Powers met in Vienna in 1814–1815 to re-establish a workable balance of power and suppress liberal and nationalist movements for change. Austrian Foreign Minister Klemens von Metternich led the way in creating an informal security arrangement to resolve international disputes and stem revolution through common action among the Great Powers. Nonetheless, revolutions aimed at liberalization of the political system and national self-determination defined the period from 1815 to 1848. The revolutions that swept Europe in 1848 were triggered by poor economic conditions, frustration at the slow pace of political change, and unfulfilled nationalist aspirations. At first, revolutionary forces succeeded in establishing regimes dedicated to change or to gaining independence from great-power domination. However, conservative forces, which still controlled the military and bureaucracy, reasserted control. Although the revolutions of 1848 were, as George Macaulay Trevelyan quipped, a “turning point at which modern history failed to turn,” they helped usher in a new type of European politics and diplomacy. Conservative leaders, exemplified by Napoleon III of France, used popular nationalism to advance state power and authoritarian rule. Further, the Crimean War (1853–1856), prompted by the decline of the Ottoman Empire, shattered the Concert of Europe established in 1815 and opened the door for the unifications of Italy and Germany. Using the methods of Realpolitik, Cavour in Italy and Bismarck in Germany succeeded in unifying their nations after centuries of disunity. Their policies of war, diplomatic intrigue, and, in Bismarck’s instance, manipulation of democratic mechanisms created states with the potential for upsetting the balance of power, particularly in the case of Germany.

Key Concept 3.6
The romantic movement of the early 19th century set the stage for later cultural perspectives by encouraging individuals to cultivate their uniqueness and to trust intuition and emotion as much as reason. Partly in reaction to the Enlightenment, romanticism affirmed the value of sensitivity, imagination, and creativity and thereby provided a climate for artistic experimentation. Later artistic movements such as Impressionism, Expressionism, and Cubism, which rested on subjective interpretations of reality by the individual artist or writer, arose from the attitudes fostered by romanticism. The sensitivity of artists to non-European traditions that imperialism brought to their attention also can be traced to the romantics’ emphasis on the primacy of culture in defining the character of individuals and groups. In science, Darwin’s evolutionary theory raised questions about human nature, and physicists began to challenge the uniformity and regularity of the Newtonian universe. In 1905, Einstein’s theory of relativity underscored the position of the observer in defining reality, while the quantum principles of randomness and probability called the objectivity of Newtonian mechanics into question. The emergence of psychology as an independent discipline, separate from philosophy on the one hand and neurology on the other, led to investigations of human behavior that gradually revealed the need for more subtle methods of analysis than those provided by the physical and biological sciences. Freud’s investigations into the human psyche suggested the power of irrational motivations and unconscious drives. Many writers saw humans as governed by spontaneous, irrational forces and believed that intuition and will were as important as reason and science in the search for truth. In art, literature, and science, traditional notions of objective, universal truths and values increasingly shared the stage with a commitment to and recognition of subjectivity, skepticism, and cultural relativism.