

CHAPTER 6

Period 5: 1750 to 1900 C.E. – Targeted Review and Practice

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After studying this time period, you will be able to:

- Describe the effects, both positive and negative, of legal systems and independence movements on race, class, and gender.
- Describe the interaction of specialized labor systems and social hierarchies.
- Demonstrate ways in which economic systems, and values and ideologies, have influenced each other.
- Explain how production and commerce develop and change.
- Explain how societies can be changed or challenged over time.
- Describe the impact of ideology and belief on populations.
- Assess the impact of technology and exchange networks on the environment.

RAPID REVIEW

Summary—Period 5: 1750 to 1900 C.E.

If you take away only 6 things from this chapter:

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

Key Topics—Period 5: 1750 to 1900 C.E.

Remember that the AP World History exam tests you on the depth of your knowledge, not just your ability to recall facts. While we have provided brief definitions here, you will need to know these terms in even more depth for the AP exam, including how terms connect to broader historical themes and understandings.

Revolutions and Independence Movements

- **Enlightenment:** Post-Renaissance period in European history devoted to the study and exploration of new ideas in science, politics, the arts, and philosophy.

- **American Revolution:** After American colonists served alongside the British in the French and Indian War, the Crown issued a series of taxes to recover the war debt. The colonists, angered that they were being taxed without representation, protested the taxes and began fighting for independence. Although the Revolutionary War itself lasted from 1775–1781, the signing of the Declaration of Independence in 1776 was significant in that it laid the foundations for the first large-scale democracy since Ancient Greece.
- **French Revolution:** Inspired by America’s victory in its own revolution, the “commoners” of eighteenth-century France sought to create a new political and social order free from royal control. The Third Estate, who vastly outnumbered the First and Second Estates (clergy and nobility, respectively), created the National Assembly and issued the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen. In response, the French faced war with the other European powers, in which they emerged victorious thanks to the leadership of Napoleon Bonaparte.
- **Maroon:** Term for a nineteenth-century escaped slave in the Americas who settled in his or her own settlement away from plantations. They caused tensions with the colonial authorities. This term can also be used to describe their present-day descendants.
- **Haitian Revolution:** Led by Toussaint L’Ouverture, this slave revolt lasted from 1791–1804, after which the former French colony of Saint-Domingue became the independent nation of Haiti, the second independent nation in the Western Hemisphere and the world’s first black republic.
- **Latin American independence movements:** Inspired by the success of the Haitian Revolution, these movements against Spanish colonial rule in Central and South America in the 1810s and 1820s led to the independence of every nation in those areas. Key leaders were Simon Bolívar, José de San Martín, and Bernardo O’Higgins. *Only need to know first two*

Nationalism and the Nation State

- **Nationalism:** As European empires began growing, the people in those empires began to see themselves as part of a group with common heritages, cultures, languages, and religions. This sense of national identity and pride fueled the expansion of empires and led to the unification of nations.

Industrialization

- **Adam Smith:** English economist whose 1776 work *The Wealth of Nations* advocated a laissez-faire policy toward economics (minimal government interference), making him one of the fathers of modern capitalism.
- **Factory system:** System of labor used in the Industrial Revolution. This involved rigorous mechanization and large numbers of unskilled workers to mass-produce goods that were once made skillfully by hand. In the nineteenth century, the use of interchangeable parts simplified assembly but made work repetitive.

Part 2

Targeted Review and Practice

- **Global division of labor:** With the Industrial Revolution underway, the European powers began devoting themselves to large-scale manufacturing and transportation, requiring raw materials like cotton from India, rubber from Brazil, and metals from Central Africa. As a result, industrialized societies grew at the expense of less industrial societies, providing an impetus for imperialist conquests later in the nineteenth century.
- **Imperialism:** As the nations of Europe began to industrialize in the nineteenth century, they needed sources of raw materials and markets for their goods. To prevent warfare among them, the European powers called the Berlin Conference in 1884 to divide the African continent into colonies and forge their new industrial empires. This has had significant effects, both positive and negative, on Africa ever since.
- **Second Industrial Revolution:** In the late nineteenth century, revolutionary new methods of producing steel, chemicals, and electrical power changed society in Western Europe, Japan, and the United States by introducing new ways of working and living.
- **Railroads:** With the invention of the steam-powered locomotive in England in the 1820s, a “transportation revolution” began in which mass-produced goods could be transported overland more quickly and inexpensively than ever before. By 1900, virtually every industrialized nation had a well-developed railroad system.

NOTE RE: DEFINITIONS OF SOCIALISM/COMMUNISM: Karl Marx wouldn't like these so let's clarify ;)

A communist society in its ideal form is a classless utopia, free of any authority. The ideal is NO government, not a totalitarian government (even though that is what it has always evolved into). That is why you hear people defending communism by saying “You don't know that it doesn't work, we've never actually witnessed it.” It would be more accurate to describe communism as a “complete form of socialism” rather than an extreme form. Socialism is the phase when society allows the government to make all of the economic decisions so that they can (ideally) redistribute wealth equally in order to create a classless society that is not affected by materialism. Some socialists argue the govt can be elected democratically, others argue against democratic methods. Either way, they all share the desire to remove power from the “bourgeoisie,” and give it to the government in order to fundamentally alter society by eliminating individual greed, the concept of wages, and private property.

Reactions to Industrialization

- **Socialism:** A utopian ideal in response to the poor conditions of factories and factory workers. In this radical form of society, the workers would run the economy in a self-sufficient manner and share everything equally, thereby overthrowing the moneyed classes.
- **Communism:** An extreme form of socialism in which governments make economic decisions for the people. Envisioned by Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels in 1848's *Communist Manifesto*, this system advocated the overthrow of the bourgeoisie (capitalists) by the proletariat (workers).
- **Liberalism:** As industry led to the growth of a middle class, philosophers and political scientists advocated systems of government based on constitutions, separation of powers, and natural rights. Based on the philosophies of the Enlightenment.

Reform

- **Tanzimât Movement:** From 1839–1879, as the rest of the great empires were industrializing, the Ottoman Empire attempted this period of reform with a modernized infrastructure, a French legal code, and religious equality under the law.
- **First Opium War:** Instigated in 1839 after Chinese customs officials refused British imports of Indian opium (due to the addictive effects it had on Chinese workers), these wars weakened the Qing Dynasty and opened up China to commercial domination by the West for the next century.

- **Second Opium War:** Lasting from 1856–1860, this war resulted from the Western European desire to further weaken Chinese sovereignty over trade, to legalize the opium trade, and to expand the export of indentured workers whose situations closely resembled slavery.
- **Self-Strengthening Movement:** An attempt by China, in the 1860s and 1870s, to modernize its military and economy under its own terms. Changes were minimal due to imperial resistance.
- **Taiping Rebellion:** In the 1850s and 1860s, Chinese scholar Hong Xiuquan led a Christian-based revolutionary movement to reform China's society. The violent reaction by the imperial court left China financially strained and caused the bloodiest civil war in world history.
- **Boxer Rebellion:** In response to the growth of Western economic privilege in China, a secret society of Chinese, backed by the anti-Western Empress Cixi, attacked Western soldiers and workers in 1900. A Western coalition defeated the Boxers and undermined the legitimacy of the Qing Dynasty.
- **Meiji:** After witnessing the arrival of American commodore Matthew Perry in Edo Bay (Tokyo Bay) in 1854 by steamship, young reform-minded Japanese sought to overthrow the isolationist Tokugawa shogunate. They were successful and in 1868 installed Emperor Meiji, who led Japan through a period of rapid, Western-guided industrialization.

Imperialism and Its Impact

- **Social Darwinism:** Popular nineteenth-century theory used to justify the rich getting richer and the poor getting poorer in industrial societies. It drew on evolutionary theorist Charles Darwin's view of "survival of the fittest."
- **Sepoy Mutiny of 1857:** Fought in India between the British and the sepoys (Indian soldiers in British service) after rumors spread that the cartridges for their rifles were sealed in pork and beef tallow, thereby violating Hindu and Muslim religious taboos. The British victory strengthened the legitimacy of the Crown's rule, and the British went so far as to declare Queen Victoria "Empress of India."
- **Congo Free State:** Established in 1885 by Belgium's King Leopold II as his "Free State," in reality, this Central African colony was a series of large rubber plantations worked by forced labor. Brutal weather and working conditions made this one of the most heinous examples of imperialist power. In the 1960s, it declared independence and became Zaire; now, it goes by the name Democratic Republic of the Congo.

Also called the Indian
Rebellion of 1857

Emancipation

- **Emancipation of slaves:** With the emergence of a new liberal political spirit came the idea that slavery was incompatible with Enlightenment ideals of freedom. As industry made field work and slavery less profitable, wage labor became more profitable, since it made sense to reward harder workers with higher wages. From the 1830s to the 1880s, every industrialized nation and their colonies gradually abolished slavery.
- **Feminism:** As new economic systems emerged and more professional jobs emerged, women started pushing for political and economic rights, in a challenge to the Enlightenment's conservative views of women.

Note: Remember that feminism is motivated by Enlightenment principles and documents (e.g., the Declaration of Rights and Sentiments is modeled after the Declaration of Independence). BUT there were many Enlightenment thinkers that didn't support the extension of rights to women. This is a great example of a contradiction among Enlightenment thinkers.

CHAPTER 11

Period 5: 1750 to 1900 C.E. – Complete Time Period Review

REVOLUTIONS AND INDEPENDENCE MOVEMENTS

High-Yield

North America

From 1756 to 1763, the European powers fought the Seven Years' War. As it was fought on three continents—North America, Europe, and the Indian subcontinent—the Seven Years' War can be called the first global war. The North American theater became known as the French and Indian War. This is because the British and their colonists fought an alliance of the French and their American Indian allies. Globally, the war proved disastrous for the French. They lost both their Canadian territories in North America and their trade influence in India.

Britain, in debt due to this costly war, enacted a series of laws aimed at raising tax revenues from its North American colonies. The British government felt justified in levying these taxes, as they felt the war had been partially waged in the interest of the colonists. American colonists, however, resented being subject to taxes that had been enacted by a government in which they had no representation. The colonists railed against taxation without representation and increasingly wished to govern themselves. Tensions escalated. After the Boston Tea Party, the British government retaliated against Massachusetts by passing the Intolerable Acts, which essentially took away its ability to self-govern. This outraged the other American colonies and led to the formation of the First Continental Congress in 1774.

The Continental Congress organized and coordinated colonial resistance. In 1775, British troops and American militia clashed at Lexington, Massachusetts. On July 4, 1776, the Declaration of Independence—inspired by **Enlightenment** ideas—justified independence. It listed a long list of abuses by the British crown and declared that all men were created equal. Though the British forces possessed many advantages, such as a strong centralized government, stronger military, and colonial loyalists, they were ultimately at a disadvantage. This was due to the war being fought on American soil and to the foreign support the Americans received, most notably from France. In 1781, the **American Revolution** ended with the British surrender at Yorktown to George Washington.

This segment on Revolutions has some errors in emphasis. Make sure to check your reading and class notes, or other sources, for clarification.

Example: I would NOT write on the AP Test that in the U.S. "there was NO legal and political equality." While you could argue that none of the societies discussed have actual complete equality in their political and legal institutions in reality (even if they wrote it into their Constitutions) you need to be able to illustrate a more complex/depth of understanding. 1) You must be able to appropriately compare political systems. 2) You must be able to explain the limitations of Enlightenment reform in different regions despite arguments about equality (e.g., continuation of slavery, exclusion of women, the continued wealth disparity, the continued legal and social discrimination of multiple groups to varying degrees). 3) You must also be able to compare the "successes" of implementing Enlightenment ideals across regions. You do not need to know details about EVENTS leading up to/following the North American Revolution, but must know 1) What was unique in terms of "equality" in the U.S. Example would include: land ownership was uniquely high before & after the Rev. which led to an unprecedented level of participation in public life, across classes. Also, BEFORE the North American Revolution there were no legal "titles" (e.g., no nobility, First Estate) nor were their official hereditary classes). These concepts will be connected to topics such as 1) MASS MIGRATION to the U.S. 2) Why this Revolution was "conservative" in its outcome for people within the U.S. 3) How Enlightenment philosophical/political discourse influence a variety of political movements and social

Part 3 Complete Time Period Review

✓ AP Expert Note

Be Able to Explain How Different Wars Interconnect

The American Revolution wasn't fought in isolation. You can trace its origin to the Seven Years' War. The foreign support offered to the Continental Congress served as a means for those nations to undermine their rival, Great Britain. The debt France built up aiding the United States would be a major contributing factor in the French Revolution and thus the subsequent Napoleonic Wars.

In 1783, the Peace of Paris formally recognized American independence. The colonies created a federal republic with 13 states and a written constitution that guaranteed freedom of speech and religion. In reality, however, there was no legal and political equality. Only white male property owners enjoyed full rights. The women, landless men, slaves, and indigenous people did not have access to this new freedom. Yet the U.S. Constitution was still an important step in the development of a republic responsible to its people through democratic means.

France

Unlike Americans, who sought independence from British colonial rule, French revolutionaries wanted to replace the existing monarchy and political structure—called the *Ancien Régime*—with a more democratic republic. In order to understand the **French Revolution**, it is important to first understand the social structure of Revolutionary-era France. Society was divided into three classes, or estates. The First Estate was the clergy; the Second Estate was the nobility; and the Third Estate was everyone else. This third class included the *bourgeoisie*, which is roughly equivalent to the modern-day middle class. As evidenced by the chart below, the clergy and nobility controlled nearly all the political power.

Estate	Political Leaders	Numbers	% of Population	% of Land Ownership	Taxes Paid
1st Estate	Roman Catholic Clergy	100,000	<1% of pop	10% of land	No taxes
2nd Estate	Nobility	400,000	2% of pop	20% of land	No taxes
3rd Estate	Peasants, townfolk	24 million	98% of pop	70% of land	Extensive taxes

Revolutionary sentiment brewed among the Third Estate, inspired by to the nobles' refusal to pay taxes, *bourgeois* resentment of the monarchy's power, the incompetence of Louis XVI, entrenched poverty among the peasantry, grain shortages, and the success of the American Revolution.

The Estates General convened in May 1789, but a dispute over voting created an impasse. Traditionally, each estate met and voted separately. The result from each estate was weighted equally, meaning that the First and Second estates always outvoted the Third Estate two to one. This time, the Third

Estate wanted all the estates to meet as one body and votes to be counted per delegate head. After weeks of deadlock, the Third Estate, claiming to represent the interests of all French people, unilaterally declared themselves the National Assembly.

Spurred on by the peasants storming the Bastille, a fortress in Paris which symbolized the monarchy, the National Assembly began issuing reforms. These included ending the privileged status of nobles, abolishing feudalism, and issuing the landmark Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen. The latter, like the Declaration of Independence, reflected Enlightenment-era political ideals. In 1791, the Assembly produced a new constitution that replaced the absolute monarchy with a limited monarchy. However, these reforms were both not enough for French radicals and too much for conservative monarchists. Backed by Paris crowds, the radicals took control of the Assembly and eventually beheaded the king.

Committee OF
Public Safety –
not FOR

The Committee for Public Safety, formed by the extremist Jacobins and led by Maximilien Robespierre, now governed France. It instigated a radical “Reign of Terror,” executing many aristocrats. Eventually, the Jacobins were deposed, and Napoleon Bonaparte took advantage of the ensuing power vacuum by naming himself First Consul, then Consul for Life, and finally Emperor. In 1804, Napoleon issued his Civil Code, which affirmed the political and legal equality of all adult men, established a merit-based society, and protected private property. However, it also limited free speech and allowed censorship of the newspapers.

Napoleon and his army rapidly defeated many of the European powers and took control of much of the continent. The Napoleonic era lasted from 1803 to 1814, as warfare ranged from Europe to North Africa and the Middle East. At times, France found itself faced with multiple enemies. Taking on Russia in 1812 proved fatal, however, as the army did not survive the winter campaign. A “White Terror” ensued in France, so called because white was associated with royalists, as the restored monarchy of Louis XVIII imprisoned or killed many associated with Napoleon and the republic. The powers which had defeated Napoleon met at the Congress of Vienna in 1815 to set the terms for a new global balance of power.

The downfall of Napoleonic France left the British Empire as the most powerful state in the international system. From 1815 until the outbreak of World War I in 1914, the *Pax Britannica* period saw British power and influence spread to almost every corner of the globe. Only the Russian Empire rivaled it, and then only in regional terms. This led to conflicts such as the Crimean War and the “Great Game” in Central Asia, and later the Anglo-Japanese Alliance (1902–1923) to contain Russian influence.

Haiti

By the end of the eighteenth century, the Caribbean island of Hispaniola had become a major center of sugar production. The Spanish controlled the east (Santo Domingo), and the French controlled the west (Saint-Domingue). One of the richest of all the European colonies, Saint-Domingue’s population consisted of three groups. There were 40,000 white French settlers, 30,000 *gens de couleur* (free people of color) of interracial ancestry, and 500,000 black slaves, most of whom had been born in Africa. These slaves worked under brutal conditions, and the

mortality rate was high. Some slaves escaped and formed independent communities in remote areas. These peoples were known as **maroons**. In some cases, maroons directly assisted slave resistance movements.

When the French Revolution began in 1789, the white settlers sought the right to govern themselves, but opposed extending political and legal equality to the *gens de couleur* and slaves. The National Assembly objected to the exclusion of both groups, and only allowed the island's whites a third of the seats they sought on the basis of the colony's entire population. The Declaration of the Rights of Man undermined the island's racial hierarchy with its first article: "*Men are born and remain free and equal in rights.*" Both the *gens de couleur* and slaves drew inspiration from that statement.

A slave revolt occurred in August of 1791. As a result, the whites, *gens de couleurs*, and slaves battled each other in a see-sawing multi-sided **Haitian Revolution**. French troops—and later, British and Spanish troops—invaded the island in hopes of gaining control. The slaves, however, were led by Toussaint L'Ouverture, a black military leader who built a strong and disciplined army, and, by 1797, controlled most of Saint-Domingue.

In 1803, independence was declared. By 1804, Haiti was the second independent republic in the Western Hemisphere, and the first republic that abolished slavery. However, great economic difficulty followed independence. Many nations, such as the United States, refused to recognize or conduct trade with Haiti due to its emancipation of slaves. Haiti was at a further disadvantage, as the new nation of small farmers was not as economically productive as the former large-scale plantations.

Latin America

In Latin America, the colonies controlled by the Spanish and Portuguese were comprised of a governing class of 30,000 *peninsulares* (Spanish-born Spaniards living in the New World colonies), 3.5 million Creoles (New World-born people of European descent), and 10 million less-privileged classes including black slaves, indigenous people, and those of interracial backgrounds known as mulattoes. The Roman Catholic Church also formed a major social and political force in these colonies.

Napoleon's 1807 invasion of Spain and Portugal weakened the authority of those countries in their respective colonies. By 1810, revolts had occurred in Argentina, Venezuela, and Mexico. A crucial document in the history of **Latin American independence movements** is the Jamaica Letter. Written by the Creole leader and revolutionary Simón Bolívar, it expressed his views on the independence movement in his native Venezuela and on the need for a union of the former Spanish colonies. Like the Declaration of Independence and the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen, the Jamaica Letter is firmly rooted in Enlightenment political ideals.

In Mexico, Father Miguel de Hidalgo led a peasant rebellion, but conservative Creole forces gained control of the movement. Simón Bolívar led revolts in South America and by 1824 deposed the Spanish armies. His goal was to establish a United States of Latin America, called Gran Colombia, but it did not last. The Portuguese royal family had fled to Brazil after Napoleon's 1807 invasion. When the king returned in 1821, he left his son, Pedro, to rule as regent. Pedro agreed to the demands of Creoles and declared Brazil independent.

As a result of these independence movements, the Creoles became the dominant class, and many *peninsulares* returned to Europe. Latin American society remained economically and racially stratified. Slavery continued. The wealth and power of the Roman Catholic Church persisted. Overall, the lower classes continued to be repressed.

NATIONALISM AND THE NATION-STATE

During the nineteenth century, people came to identify themselves as part of a community called a nation. The forces that drew these people together were their common language, customs, cultural traditions, values, historical experiences, ethnicity, and sometimes religion. **Nationalism** was often a reaction against foreign rule, as mass politics resulted in the people of a country defining themselves in contrast to their ruling elite. In 1815, the Congress of Vienna sought to stifle nationalist movements in Italy and Germany that had been inspired by the ideas of the French Revolution.

The Revolutions of 1848

Sometimes called the Springtime of the Peoples, the Revolutions of 1848 saw a series of uprisings throughout Europe. Reformers were dissatisfied with rising industrialization and with the conservative consensus that had dominated Europe since the Congress of Vienna. In Italy, Germany, and the Hapsburg Empire, they sought to unify their scattered countrymen under national banners. They also shared the goals of revolutionaries elsewhere in Europe of seeking democratic reforms. The revolutions, however, failed. Rather than reform, many governments increased repression. Many ex-revolutionaries fled to places like the United States, where they would work as activists in their new homelands. For example, one-tenth of the Union Army in the American Civil War consisted of German-born immigrants politically opposed to slavery.

Unification of Italy and Germany

On the Italian peninsula, the Roman Catholic Church still exerted great influence and discouraged the growth of Italian nationalism. The pope himself personally held large estates in central Italy. Under the leadership of Garibaldi in the south, young men pushed for an Italian nation, fighting a military campaign to unite the people behind this idea. In the north, Count Camillo Benso di Cavour, the prime minister to King Victor Emmanuel II of Sardinia, aligned with France and expelled Austria from northern Italy. In 1871, the Kingdom of Italy was proclaimed, and Sardinia's king was chosen as its ruler.

Farther north, the Kingdom of Prussia became more powerful after the defeat of Napoleon. The chancellor of Prussia, Otto von Bismarck, envisioned a united Germany. So, he engineered a series of conflicts with Denmark and Austria to consolidate the territory required. Bismarck eventually manipulated France into declaring war on Prussia, and used this conflict as a pretext for gathering then-separate German domains together to fight as one. The Franco-Prussian War (1870–1871) was a resounding victory for Prussia, and Bismarck proclaimed the birth of the German nation. He did

so in the French palace at Versailles, further humiliating France by taking the territory of Alsace-Lorraine on the Franco-German border. The latter would be an important factor in the outbreak of hostilities between France and Germany in World War I.

The birth of a unified Germany caused a significant shift in the balance of power in Europe. France was in decline, and Germany now rivaled Great Britain as an industrial producer and leader in technology. German military strength and diplomacy contributed to its position in Europe.

The new German nation was in many ways deeply conservative in its politics. Bismarck, however, supported a series of reforms that robbed domestic left-wing opponents of causes that might galvanize larger movements. He established state pensions and public health insurance plans that protected the social welfare of the masses.

Zionism

The existence of minority groups conflicted with the nationalist concept of a singular ethnic and religious identity. One such group was the Jewish people. They lived as a minority in many European nations as a result of the Jewish diaspora—the cultural and physical dispersion of Jews since the time of the Roman Empire. Antisemitism increased over the nineteenth century, as burgeoning nationalist identities strengthened traditional prejudice toward Jews and Judaism. In reaction to this antisemitism, the Zionist movement arose. Like other nationalist movements, it sought to establish a state for one people, in this case for the Jews. A Jewish reporter, Theodor Herzl, launched the movement in 1897. Zionism successfully created the independent state of Israel in 1948.

Latin America

By the 1830s, most of Latin America was made up of independent nations, which had been established by revolutions against their respective colonial governments. These new nations faced many problems, such as economies that had been disrupted by many years of warfare and large armies loyal to regional commanders (*caudillos*) instead of to the new national governments. Additionally, the role of the Catholic Church remained strong. Few questioned its doctrines, but many wanted to limit its role in civil life. In Mexico, for example, politics was a struggle between conservatives and liberals, and instability and financial difficulty made it a target for foreign intervention by the United States and Europe.

INDUSTRIALIZATION

High-Yield

Scientific discoveries and technological advancements led to the rise of modern industry in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. The following factors made rapid industrialization possible:

- Increased agricultural production, to support a large workforce
- Possession of natural resources like coal and iron ore
- Investment capital (money) to build factories

Important!

- A stable government that protected private property
- Technical knowledge and communication of discoveries
- Control of sea ports, rivers, and canals

The Industrial Revolution would affect human labor, consumption, family structure, and much more. Major economic and social changes that occurred in industrialized nations were:

Domestic Effects	Global Impact
Growth of urban centers	Widened gap between industrial and non-industrial nations
Creation of middle class of merchants and factory owners	Competition for colonial territory to secure natural resources
Unsafe, harsh conditions in factories	Greater economic power in Europe
Loss of traditional artisan guilds	The Revolutions of 1848
Rising standard of living	World trade increased

Important!

Preconditions for Industrialization

England was the first modern industrial economy for several reasons:

- **Geography**—England's position in the Atlantic Ocean gave it access to raw materials from around the globe as well as sea access to markets for its manufactured goods.
- **Natural resources**—Rivers, coal, and iron ore were plentiful. They provided energy to power factories and other manufacturing.
- **Labor force**—Its growing population surpassed the amount of labor needed for agricultural production, thus providing surplus workers for industrial jobs.
- **Capital**—A business class existed which had grown wealthy through commerce, especially from the transatlantic slave trade, and was able to reinvest its profits in industry.

Other nations were close behind Great Britain in developing industrial capability. The United States and Germany both surpassed Britain in terms of steel production by 1900, while Russia, Japan, and the Ottoman Empire followed behind. Spain and the rest of continental Europe were largely excluded from industrialization during this period.

An Agricultural Revolution

Though it is counterintuitive, the Industrial Revolution was partially made possible by agricultural advances. The Dutch began this process by erecting earthen walls to reclaim land from the sea and using fertilizer from livestock to renew soil nutrients. In the 1700s, British farmers began experimenting with crop rotation, and Jethro Tull invented a mechanical seed drill that sped up the planting process. Farmers began to share their knowledge and techniques through farm journals. This resulted in higher agricultural output, which in turn created the population growth so key to maintaining an industrial labor force.

Technology

Technological development was the driving force of industrialization. For example, hydropower was used to make mills more efficient. A major advancement was the steam engine, which would become the foundation of this new mechanical age. Coal was vital in the production of iron, which was used to construct machinery and steam engines. New methods for producing iron resulted in a better product produced at lower costs. Iron was a vital material during the Industrial Revolution, especially in railroad construction. Cars, ships, and factories were both products and tools of further industrialization. A second industrial revolution in steel, chemicals, and electricity transformed society in the late nineteenth century. These advancements led to innovations in scientific fields such as engineering and medicine.

Financial Institutions

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

Impact on Gender, Family, and Social Structures

Industrialization greatly affected gender roles and families. It also radically altered the traditional social structures of the day. The family, which previously had been a self-sufficient economic unit, moved economic production outside the home. Working-class women and children entered the industrial workforce as low-paid factory laborers.

A sharp distinction now existed between family life and work life. The status of men increased because industrial work and the wage were considered more important than domestic work, which was largely performed by women. Middle-class values became distinct from those of the industrial working class, which were stereotyped as promiscuous, alcohol-abusing, and immoral. Middle-class women generally did not work outside the home, but instead were pressured to conform to the new models of behavior often referred to as the “cult of domesticity”—the glorification of women as the center of the well-kept home.

The Factory System

The Industrial Revolution led to the establishment of the **factory system** in which factories employed large numbers of workers and power-driven machines to mass-produce goods. In the late 1800s, manufacturers sought to increase productivity and profits by designing products with interchangeable parts: identical components that could be used in place of each other. This process simplified

assembly, but also made factory work tedious and repetitive. Factory work was also dangerous and had a negative impact on the health of laborers, both from environmental factors such as dust and chemicals and from accidents with machinery.

Global Effects of Industrialization

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

The dependency theory explains the uneven result of development as the result of **imperialism** by industrial nations. In short, the industrialization of some areas was achieved at the expense of others. Cash crop and colonial economies reinforced dependency on American and European manufactured goods.

Advances in Transportation and Communication

During the First Industrial Revolution (approximately 1760–1820), the development of the steam engine led to creation of steamships and steam-powered locomotives, which rapidly sped up transportation. The creation of canals enabled heavy loads to be transported long distances and linked previously separate waterways. The development of the telegraph revolutionized the speed at which businesses, people, and armies could communicate.

During the **Second Industrial Revolution** (1870–1914), the development of the internal combustion engine transformed how machines operated and initiated the rise of oil as a global commodity. It also saw the beginning of widespread electrification. Economic inequality within industrialized countries, spurred on by the growth of industries like steel and **railroads**, led to a sharp increase in socialist parties and unions.

REACTIONS TO INDUSTRIALIZATION

As the nineteenth century progressed, the ideals of reason and egalitarianism from the Enlightenment inspired many political movements. Some were revolutionary, while others were liberal or reformist. As the Industrial Revolution redefined both society and the economy, new tensions arose.

Socialism and Communism

The appalling conditions experienced by industrial workers in the 1800s inspired revolutionary reformers. Under the broad title of **socialism**, these movements critiqued capitalism and suggested instead an economy that was run by the *proletariat*, which is equivalent to the modern-day working class. **Communism**, which advocated an extreme form of socialism, sought to create self-sufficient communities in which property was owned in common. One of the most prominent socialist thinkers was Karl Marx, who, along with Friedrich Engels, wrote *The Communist Manifesto* in 1848. Marx and Engels advocated the overthrow of the moneyed classes which would be followed by a “workers’ state.”

The most notable expression of socialism in the eighteenth century was the Paris Commune, a revolutionary socialist government that ruled the city of Paris following the collapse of the French Empire in the Franco-Prussian War. It existed from March 18 to May 28 in 1871, and enacted a number of anti-clerical and pro-labor laws. The Paris Commune inspired many later socialist and communist revolutionaries, like Lenin, and it also popularized the use of the red flag as a left-wing symbol. The French Army overthrew the Commune, killing approximately 20,000 revolutionaries in the process of retaking Paris.

Unionism

The union movement advocated the organization of workers so that they could negotiate with their employers for better wages and working conditions. This led to extreme tensions and considerable bloodshed: factory owners fought to stop workers from banding together, and workers struggled to remain unified against violent oppression. As a left-wing movement, unionism was often accused of being socialistic. The lines sometimes became blurred, due to overlapping concerns about the industrialized economy and the well-being of the working class.

Liberalism

One response to industrialization was the rise of **liberalism**, which resulted from the rapid growth of the middle class. With philosophical roots in the Enlightenment, liberals wanted written constitutions based on separation of powers. They were opposed to monarchies and proponents of natural rights. Having greatly benefited from the new capitalist, industrial economy, liberals were staunch supporters of these laissez-faire economic ideas and lukewarm to unionism and socialism.

✓ AP Expert Note

Be Sure to Know the Definitions of Political Terms

Source documents on the AP exam will reference terms that might be unfamiliar to you or possess a different meaning from what you might expect. For example, *liberalism* in the classical sense differs from the modern-day American usage. It put a major emphasis on laissez-faire economics. Political terms can gain different nuance depending on the time period, or outright change definition. Take note of the publication date on AP source documents!

REFORM

High-Yield

The traditionalist nations of the Ottomans, Russia, China, and Japan were all forced to confront modernization and the social issues accompanying it during this period. Conservative forces resisted these dramatic reforms to varying degrees of success.

Ottoman Empire

By the 1700s, the once-legendary Ottoman armies had fallen behind those of Europe. As the empire's military weakened, its political power weakened too. The Ottomans suffered from economic problems, further undermining their position. In addition, nationalist revolts in the Balkans and Greece contributed to the empire's problems.

The Ottomans also experienced economic decline. Europe circumvented them and began to trade directly with India and China. Also, global trade shifted to the Atlantic Ocean, where the Ottomans had no involvement. European products flowed into the empire, and it began to depend heavily on foreign loans. Europeans were even given capitulations (special rights and privileges), such as being subject to only their own laws, not to those of the Ottomans. All of this was a great blow to the empire's prestige and sovereignty.

The empire did attempt to reform itself, beginning with the rule of Mahmud II. He organized a more effective army and a system of secondary education. The Ottomans built new roads, laid telegraph lines, and created a postal service. These reforms continued into the **Tanzimat** ("Reorganization" in Ottoman Turkish) **Movement** from 1839 to 1879, when the government used the French legal system as a guide to reform its own laws. Public trials were instituted.

However, these reforms were met with great opposition, particularly from religious conservatives and the Ottoman bureaucracy. Many saw the concept of civil liberties as a foreign one, a kind of soft imperialism in its spread through Ottoman society. The new sultan, Abdul Hamid II, adopted the first Ottoman constitution in 1876 but suspended it in 1879 and reinstated absolute monarchy.

The Young Turks, a group of exiled Ottoman subjects, pushed for universal male suffrage, equality before the law, and the emancipation of women and non-Turkish ethnic groups. In 1908, they led a coup that overthrew Abdul Hamid II and set up a "puppet" sultan that they controlled. Though the Ottoman Empire attempted to reform, it was still in a delicate state by 1914. Ultimately, it dissolved in the aftermath of World War I, with large portions colonized by the British and French Empires or ruled by their local allies.

Russia

Much like the Ottoman Empire, the Russian Empire was autocratic, multiethnic, and multilingual. Russian czars were supported by both the Russian Orthodox Church and the noble class, which owned most of the land. The peasants were the majority of the population, but the feudal institution of serfdom essentially enslaved them. Even at the end of the nineteenth century, the country's

literacy rate was below 20 percent, far beneath other European nations. Unlike the Ottomans, who were losing territory, the Russian Empire vastly expanded—east to the Pacific, south into the Caucasus and Central Asia, and southwest to the Mediterranean. Its military power and strength could not compete with that of Europe, however, as demonstrated in its defeat in the Crimean War in 1856.

The loss to the Franco-British-Ottoman alliance in the Crimean War (1853–1856) highlighted the comparative weakness of Russia’s military and economy, pushing the government to modernize. A first step was the emancipation of the serfs by Czar Alexander II in 1861. He also created district assemblies (*zemstvos*) in 1864, in which all classes had elected representatives. The government also encouraged industrialization. Policies designed to stimulate economic development were issued, such as the construction of the Trans-Siberian Railroad and the remodeling of the state bank.

Anti-government protests increased through the involvement of the university students and intellectuals known as the *intelligentsia*. The more these groups were repressed by the government, the more radical they became. A member of the revolutionary “People’s Will” group, which was organized in 1879 and employed terrorism in their attempt to overthrow Russia’s czarist autocracy, assassinated Czar Alexander II in 1881, bringing an end to government reform. The new czars used repression—not gradual political reform—to maintain power.

Fast-paced, government-sponsored industrialization led to many peasant rebellions and industrial worker strikes. As a response, in 1897 the government limited the maximum workday to 11.5 hours, though it also prohibited trade unions and outlawed strikes. Czar Nicholas II, in an attempt to deflect attention from the growing opposition, focused on expansion through the Russo-Japanese War in 1904, but the Russians suffered an embarrassing defeat. This loss also sparked an uprising.

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

China

The Chinese, like the Ottomans and Russians, were forced to confront their own issues of reform and reaction in the nineteenth century. The Qing dynasty had grown increasingly ineffective as rulers. New World crops, like sweet potatoes and corn, brought about a rapid population increase. During the Qing dynasty, it is estimated that the Chinese population quadrupled to 420,000,000. This increase created great strains on the nation. Famines were increasingly common, provoking a series of rebellions which further weakened the Qing dynasty.

The Dzungar were Buddhist Mongols. See me for more information on this genocide (1755–58 in Northern Xinjiang)

The Chinese military also stagnated from the mid-seventeenth century onward, as the evolution of gunpowder weapons finally ended the threat of horse-riding steppe nomads that had troubled China for millennia. The last nomadic confederation to threaten China, the Dzungar Khanate in what is the modern-day Chinese region of Xinjiang, lost a series of conflicts with the Qing dynasty. These conflicts culminated in organized genocide, as approximately eighty percent of the Dzungar people were killed under the orders of the Qing emperor and ethnic Chinese people were settled on their former lands. Without neighboring threats, China had no reason to keep pace with the military technology of the European empires, and its army lacked battlefield experience.

With its vast population and resources, China was self-sufficient and, along with its rejection of foreign influence, felt it required nothing that the outsiders produced. However, Europeans, Britain in particular, sought trade with China to acquire silks, lacquerware, and tea, the latter of which was increasing in popularity in their homelands. British merchants paid in silver bullion for Chinese goods. The amount of bullion a nation or company owned determined its wealth and its strength (mercantilism). This silver drain from Britain inspired its merchants to find something the Chinese wanted other than bullion. They found it in opium, an addictive narcotic made from the poppy plant. Despite the emperor declaring the opium trade illegal, British merchants smuggled it into the country. Chinese merchants agreed to pay for opium in silver, which the British merchants used to buy Chinese goods, making a profit on both ends of this drug trafficking. This reversed the silver drain from Britain to China but also created a large number of Chinese opium addicts.

The **First Opium War** (1839–1842) broke out over a customs dispute, but resentment over British drug trafficking played a major role as well. China suffered a major defeat, and a series of unequal treaties gave Britain and other European nations commercial entry into China. For example, Hong Kong was ceded to the British in 1841, and control over it was only transferred back to China in 1997. This began a period of Chinese history referred to as the Century of Humiliation.

The **Second Opium War** (1856–1860) resulted from the Western European desire to further weaken Chinese sovereignty over trade, to legalize the opium trade, and to expand the export of indentured workers whose situations closely resembled slavery. In October 1860, a Franco-British expeditionary force looted and burned Beijing's Old Summer Palace. British and French museums still feature its stolen art, and the palace ruins are an important landmark for China. Shock over the defeat led to the Qing's **Self-Strengthening Movement**. Drug use also became even more rampant thanks to opium flooding the country.

Uprisings such as the **Taiping Rebellion** (1850–1864) placed further stress on China. An obscure scholar named Hong Xiuquan, who believed he was the brother of Jesus Christ, founded an offshoot of Christianity. A social reform movement grew from this in the 1850s, which the government suppressed. Hong established the Taiping Tianguo (Taiping Heavenly Kingdom), and his followers created an army that, within two years of fighting, controlled a large territory in central China. Nationalism influenced this rebellion, as the majority Han ethnic group resented rule by the minority Manchus, who had conquered the native Ming dynasty but now seemed powerless against European imperialism.

Internal disputes within the Taipings finally allowed the Qing dynasty to defeat them, but it was a long struggle that exhausted the imperial treasury. Between twenty and thirty million people died in the Taiping Rebellion, making it the bloodiest civil war in history. It did, however, lead to greater inclusion of Han Chinese in the Qing dynasty's government. Both Sun Yat-sen and Mao Zedong viewed Hong Xiuquan as a spiritual predecessor, for both his anti-Manchu and his anti-imperialist stances.

The Qing did implement limited reforms. With government-sponsored grants in the 1860s and 1870s, local leaders promoted military and economic reform in China using the slogan: "*Chinese learning at the base, Western learning for use.*" These leaders built modern shipyards, railroads, and weapon industries, and they founded academies for the study of science. It was a solid foundation, but the Self-Strengthening Movement brought only minimal change. It also experienced resistance from the imperial government.

The Qing's last major reform effort took place in 1898. It was known as the Hundred Days' Reform. This ambitious movement reinterpreted Confucian thought to justify radical changes to the system, with the intent to remake China into a powerful modern industrial society. The Emperor Guangzu instituted a program to change China into a constitutional monarchy, guarantee civil liberties, and build a modern education system. These proposed changes were strongly resisted by conservative officials. Particularly upset was the Empress Dowager Cixi, who cancelled the reforms and imprisoned the emperor in a coup. With that, Qing China's chance for a reformed society ended.

Another rebellion further complicated issues in China. The anti-foreign **Boxer Rebellion** (1899–1901) sought to rid China of foreigners and foreign influence. Empress Cixi supported the movement, hoping to eliminate all foreign influence. A multinational force from countries such as the United States, Russia, and Japan, however, handily defeated the Boxers and forced China to pay a large indemnity in silver for the damages. Now, Cixi belatedly supported modest reforms: the New Policies, also known as the Late Qing Reforms. In Qing China's weakened state, some provinces adopted them, others did not.

Amid all of these rebellions and attempts at reform, a revolutionary movement was slowly emerging. It was composed of young men and women who had traveled outside China—who had seen the new liberalism and modernization of both the West and Japan. They hoped to import those ideas. Cells were organized in Guangzhou and overseas in Tokyo and Honolulu, where plots to overthrow the Qing were developed.

Under the leadership of Sun Yat-sen (Sun Zhong-shan), after many attempted unsuccessful uprisings, the Qing were forced to abdicate in 1911 and the Republic of China was proclaimed. Sun dreamed of a progressive and democratic China based on his Three Principles of the People: nationalism, democracy, and socialism. His goal would never be achieved due to civil war and the Warlord Era.

1916–1928

See me for a super interesting article on Empress Dowager Cixi!

Japan—The Meiji Restoration

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

The Japanese knew of China's humiliation at the hands of the British in the mid-1800s. After the California Gold Rush of 1849, the United States became more interested in Pacific commerce, sending a mission to conclude a trade agreement with Japan. Commodore Matthew Perry, in an example of gunboat diplomacy, arrived in Edo (Tokyo) Bay in 1853 with a modern fleet of armed steamships. For the Japanese, who had restricted its trade from much of the world for over two centuries, this was a troubling sight. Contact with Americans caused tense debate within the ruling Tokugawa Shogunate and the samurai class.

Two clans in the south—Satsuma and Choshu—supported a new policy to “revere the emperor and repel the barbarians.” This was a veiled critique of the shogun in Edo, as they perceived his inability to ward off the Western “barbarians” as embarrassing. A younger generation of reform-minded samurai far from Edo made bold plans to undermine the *bakufu* (the military government led by the shogun). These “men of spirit” banded together to overthrow the shogun, restore the emperor, and advance the idea of Japanese modernization.

The rebels armed themselves with guns from the West, and a civil war broke out in 1866. When the anti-government forces demonstrated their military superiority, the momentum began to shift in favor of the rebels. The overthrow of the Tokugawa Shogunate was complete in 1868, when the victorious reformers pronounced that they had restored the emperor to his throne. His title was **Meiji**, or Enlightened One. The nation rallied around the 16-year-old emperor, and plans were made to move the imperial “presence” to the renamed capital of Tokyo (Eastern Capital).

This transition in Japanese history can be seen as both a restoration and a revolution. While the emperor was nominally restored to authority, real power was held in the hands of nobles. A national legislature called the Diet was established, but the aristocratic upper house was in primary control. They reformed Japan in radical ways. Compulsory public schools were introduced. The feudal system was abolished, and the ownership of weapons was no longer restricted to the samurai class.

Some samurai were displeased not just with the loss of their privileges, but with the mass adoption of “barbarian” ways by Japan. The resulting Satsuma Rebellion (1877) saw traditionalist samurai launch a brief civil war. Both sides fought with modern weapons, however. In the end, the government's army of peasant conscripts defeated the rebels.

The rapidity of the industrialization and modernization of Japan impressed the rest of the world. This development was driven, in part, by the *zaibatsu* (“financial cliques”), which were family-owned business conglomerates that dominated the economy. Within the first generation of the Meiji period, Japan had built a modern infrastructure and military, had defeated the Chinese and Russians in war, and had begun building an empire in the Pacific. The rise of Japan as an imperial power altered the global balance of power as the twentieth century began.

You should be able to explain this

COMPARATIVE CLOSE-UP: REFORM AND REACTION IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

	Political	Economic	Social
Ottoman Empire	Institutes French legal code (equality before the law, public trials) but reforms see major opposition. Empire collapses after World War I.	As trade shifts to the Atlantic Ocean, it becomes heavily reliant on loans from Europe.	Young Turks push for greater centralization, universal male suffrage, emancipation of women.
Russia	<i>Zemstvos</i> (local assemblies) are created. Duma established after Revolution of 1905, but is subject to whim of czar. Monarchy overthrown in 1917.	Government sponsors industrialization projects such as the Trans-Siberian Railroad. Unions and strikes banned by law.	Emancipates the serfs in 1861. Students and intelligentsia spread ideas of change in the countryside.
China	Hundred Days of Reform attempts to create constitutional monarchy, but is halted by Empress Cixi. Rebellions like the Taiping and Boxer weaken the empire. Qing dynasty overthrown in 1911.	After the Opium Wars, European powers gain economic and territorial concessions under the Unequal Treaties and divide China into spheres of influence.	Peasant-led Taiping Rebellion attempts to create a more egalitarian society, but is eventually defeated.
Japan	Tokugawa Shogunate is overthrown by samurai and other elites. The emperor is restored to power. A legislative body, the Diet, is formed.	Government sponsors massive industrialization and trade. Japan rises to economic prominence.	Samurai class loses power, but some transition to roles in industrial leadership. New industrial working class develops.

1750 to 1900 C.E.

IMPERIALISM AND ITS IMPACT

At the turn of the twentieth century, large portions of Africa and Asia had been absorbed into foreign empires. The Belgians, British, French, German, Italians, Portuguese, and Spanish, along with the United States and Japan, were enthusiastic empire builders. Every nation in Africa except for Ethiopia and Liberia would be colonized by 1900. China would be carved into spheres of influence, Korea would be conquered by Japan, and the United States would take over the Philippines. What explains this desire for an empire? Economic, political, and cultural factors motivated it.

Economically, overseas colonies served as sources of raw materials and as markets for manufactured goods. These colonies were strategic sites with harbors and resupply stations for naval ships, commercial and military. Politically, colonial expansion spurred nationalist sentiment at home, as citizens took pride in military conquest. Lopsided wars against native peoples and second-tier powers were often justified with sensationalist journalism about supposed crimes committed in those foreign countries against Europeans, often missionaries or women.

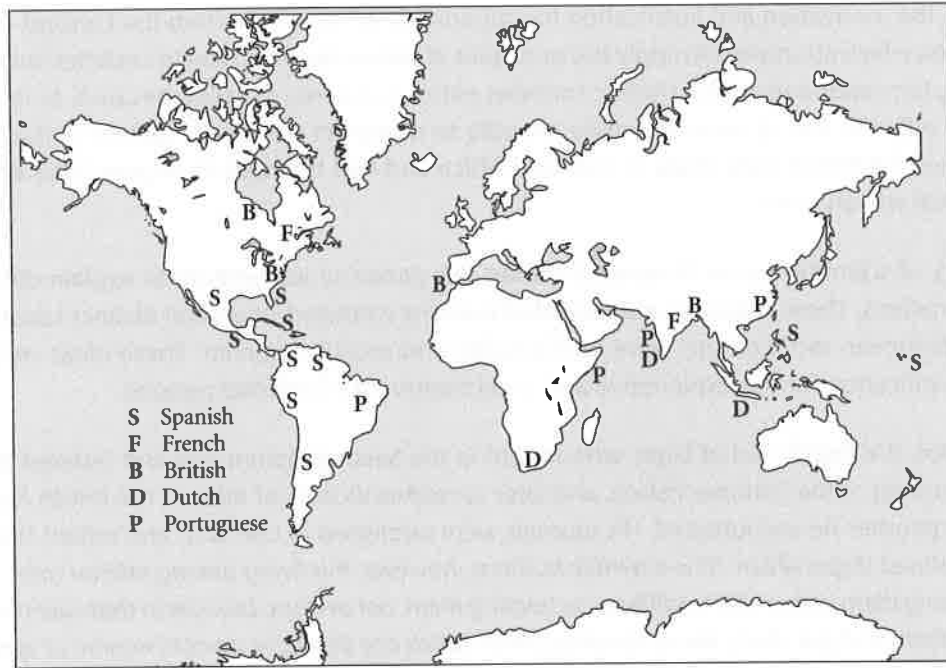
Culturally, the motivation and justification for imperialism arose in part from the concept of **Social Darwinism**, which attempted to apply the principles of Darwinian evolution to societies and politics. According to proponents of this theory, societies either prospered or failed because, as is the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

The theory of scientific racism developed during this period of imperialism to explain differences between nations. These theorists assumed that humans consisted of several distinct racial groups and that European racial groups were intellectually and morally superior. These ideas were often used as justification for the exploitative and cruel treatment of colonial peoples.

James Bruce, the Eighth Earl of Elgin, who fought in the Second Opium War and ordered the looting and burning of the Summer Palace, and later served as Viceroy of India in the British Raj, wrote about the peoples he encountered. His journals were published in the 1872, and reflect the racism that underlined imperialism: *"It is a terrible business, however, this living among inferior races. . . . one moves among them with perfect indifference, treating them, not as dogs, because in that case one would whistle to them and pat them, but as machines with which one can have no communion or sympathy."*

Additionally, missionaries hoped to convert Asians and Africans to Christianity. While many missionaries served as protectors of native peoples, some saw their mission as one of bringing civilization to the uncivilized. The poem "The White Man's Burden" by Rudyard Kipling, written in 1899, illustrates this mindset well. Below is an excerpt:

*Take up the White Man's burden—
Send forth the best ye breed—
Go bind your sons to exile
To serve your captives' need;
To wait in heavy harness,
On fluttered folk and wild—
Your new-caught, sullen peoples,
Half-devil and half-child.*



European Imperialism

India

England's involvement in India began strictly as a business venture. Founded in 1600, the British East India Company enjoyed a monopoly on English trade with India, and increasingly took advantage of the Mughal Empire's growing weakness. Expanding its trading posts, the Company petitioned the British government to outright conquer areas important to its trade in order to protect its interests. It enforced its rule with a combination of British troops and Indian troops, known as **sepoys**.

In the subcontinent's Punjab region, which overlaps modern-day eastern Pakistan and northern India, the previously pacifistic Sikhs grew militant due to persecution under the Mughal Empire. While only seven percent of the Punjab's population, the Sikh message of religious tolerance and social justice attracted many supporters from other faiths. This eventually led to the founding of the Sikh Empire (1799–1849).

Following the collapse of the Mughals, the Sikh Empire was the last rival power on the subcontinent to the British East India Company. The British sought greater control over Central Asia as part of their "Great Game" with the Russian Empire; they also saw the non-sectarian Sikhs as a potential threat to their control over the rest of India. Sepoys were often used to police areas of the Indian subcontinent that clashed with their own ethnic or religious identity. The British Empire did this to play different native groups against each other, ensuring that they stayed in overall control. Following two Anglo-Sikh wars, the British conquered the Sikhs, cementing imperial control over India.

In 1857, the sepoy mutinied after they received rifles with cartridges rumored to be greased in animal fat; beef and pork fat violate Hindu and Muslim customs, respectively. The sepoy killed British officers, escalating the conflict into a large-scale rebellion. At least 800,000 Indians would die

in the ensuing war. This conflict has been called many names, such as the **Sepoy Mutiny of 1857**. By May 1858, the British government had crushed the rebellion. It went on to impose direct imperial rule on India (the “British Raj”) with a viceroy represented British authority.

✓ AP Expert Note

One War Can Have Many Different Names

When studying for AP World History, please be aware that a war’s name can vary depending on time and context. For example, “Sepoy Mutiny” is increasingly disfavored due to its implicit pro-British perspective, as mutiny is a crime, but the College Board still uses it for APWH. Modern-day alternatives include the “First War of Indian Independence”. The standpoint of a war’s participants also affects naming. What Americans call “The Vietnam War” is called “The American War” by the Vietnamese.

Under British rule, forests were cleared; tea, coffee, and opium were cultivated; and railroads, telegraphs, canals, harbors, and irrigation systems were built. English-style schools were set up for Indian elites and Indian customs were suppressed. British imperialism had a profound effect on the decline of existing Indian textile production, as British merchants desired Indian cotton, which would be shipped to England, made into textiles, and then sold in India. Severe famines became more frequent, as British laissez-faire policies focused on export agriculture rather than domestic food production, and heavy taxes to support the empire left poorer Indians unable to buy food whenever prices rose. Between the eighteenth and mid-twentieth centuries, areas under British administration would experience fourteen major famines. Over fifty-five million people would die.

Note the contradiction in British behavior & Adam Smith’s philosophy (remember mercantilism?)

See me for articles on these devastating famines.

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

Important Note: There is no systematic effort at modernizing India’s domestic economy. In fact, you actually see DEINDUSTRIALIZATION in India during this time frame. This is an example of the contradiction described in your textbook. British government actions and intervention in the economy are in clear violation of Enlightenment economic and political principles – with devastating consequences.

Africa

With the exception of coastal colonies and trading posts, Europeans had little presence in Africa in the early nineteenth century. European territorial acquisition occurred rapidly during the imperial “Scramble for Africa.” From 1875 to 1914, almost the entire continent was carved up by European empires, with Ethiopia and Liberia the only two African nations to retain their independence.

Note the CHANGE (turning point!)

From 1879 to 1882, the Urabi Revolt (or Revolution) saw Egyptians fight against foreign domination of their country’s government, army, and economy. After a naval bombardment of Alexandria, the British launched an invasion that defeated the rebels and took control of the Suez Canal, a key

shipping route. In 1885, King Leopold II of Belgium established the **Congo Free State**, ostensibly as a free-trade zone. In reality, the Congo served as his personal colony, with rubber plantations supported by forced labor. The conditions were brutal; infamously, workers who did not meet their quota would have a hand hacked off. As European competition intensified, a world war seemingly loomed. In response to this rising tension, German Chancellor Otto von Bismarck called the Berlin Conference (1884–1885). Delegates—none of whom were African—were invited to establish the ground rules for the colonization of Africa. It was decided that any European state could establish an African colony after notifying the others and establishing a large enough presence.

European colonies in Africa operated under three main types of rule: direct rule, indirect rule, and settler rule. The French, Belgians, Germans, and Portuguese used direct rule. These centralized administrations, usually in urban centers, enforced assimilationist policies by forcing the adoption of Western values and customs. The British mostly used indirect rule to govern their colonies. This system used indigenous African rulers within the colonial administration, although they were often relegated to subordinate roles. Settler rule refers to the type of colonialism in which European settlers imposed direct rule on their colonies. Settler colonies differed from other African colonies in that many immigrants from Europe settled in these colonies. These settlers were not like missionaries or European colonial officials. They were more like early European settlers in the United States and Canada, who planned to make the colonies their permanent home and displace the native population.

Japan

Because Japan was so greatly strengthened by government-sponsored industrialization, it was able to compete with other imperial powers. The First Sino-Japanese War (1894–1895) was sparked by a rebellion in Korea. Japan quickly defeated the Chinese fleet and was ceded Taiwan, the Pescadores Islands, and the Liaodong peninsula. China was forced to sign unequal treaties with Japan as it had with the Western powers. In 1910, Japan annexed Korea.

Japan's victory in the Russo-Japanese War (1904) is, however, the most notable globally. The war solidified Japan's international position. As the first time a non-European people had defeated a major Western power

LEGACIES OF IMPERIALISM

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

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

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

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

In addition, Social Darwinists adapted Darwin's evolutionary idea of "survival of the fittest" to explain the development of human societies. These ideas were used to justify the invariably unequal and often brutal mistreatment of non-whites by European imperialists and colonizers.

EMANCIPATION

Slavery

Many nineteenth century liberals in Europe and North America supported the abolition of slavery, as the Enlightenment ideas of liberty and equality directly conflicted with the institution of slavery. Additionally, frequent slave revolts in the 1700s and 1800s were making slavery a dangerous business. Economically, it became less profitable, as protection from the revolts required an expensive military force.

As the price of sugar decreased, the profitability of sugar declined, but the price for slaves increased. Many plantation owners shifted their investments to manufacturing, where wage labor was more profitable. In turn, those laborers would buy the manufactured goods. Though smuggling of slaves continued through much of the nineteenth century, the slave trade officially ended first in Great Britain in 1807, and then in the United States in 1808. While importing slaves to the United States was illegal after 1808, the institution itself was not. The emancipation of the slaves occurred in British colonies in 1833, French colonies in 1848, the United States in 1865, and Brazil in 1888. 1888 marks the year in which slavery was finally illegal worldwide.

Freedom, however, did not bring equality. In the states of the southern United States, for example, property requirements, literacy tests, and poll taxes were implemented to prevent freed slaves from voting, and many freed slaves were trapped in low-paying jobs, such as tenant farming.

Note the difference between the slave trade and the legal status of slavery.

But not in the US... They mean Latin America and the Caribbean. In the US, it is outlawed WITH slavery in the 13th Amendment (see me for an article on the decline of indentured servitude).

The end of the transatlantic slave trade and the eventual **emancipation of slaves** throughout the Americas led to an increase in indentured servitude. These workers signed a contract giving them transportation to the land where they would work, as well as room and board and a small wage, in return for five to seven years of labor. In the mid to late nineteenth century, these indentured servants came from Asian nations like India, Ceylon (modern-day Sri Lanka), the Philippines, Indonesia, and China. This migration led to distinct cultural changes in many Latin American and Caribbean nations.

Serfdom

The key to social change and reform in Russia was the emancipation of the serfs. Opposition to serfdom had been growing since the 1700s. While some opposed it on moral grounds, most saw it as an obstacle to economic development in Russia, as well as a source of instability due to the possibility of peasant revolt.

In 1861, Czar Alexander II abolished serfdom, and the government compensated landowners for the loss of land and serfs. The serfs gained their freedom and their labor obligations were gradually cancelled. However, they won very few political rights and had to pay a redemption tax for most of the land they received. Few former serfs prospered and most were desperately poor and uneducated. Their emancipation led to little increase in agricultural production, as peasants continued to use traditional methods of farming. It did, however, create a large urban labor force for the industrializing empire.

Changing Gender Roles

High-Yield

Generally speaking, Enlightenment thinkers were fairly conservative in their view of women's roles in society. In an effort to challenge these accepted beliefs, Mary Wollstonecraft published *A Vindication of the Rights of Woman* in 1792, which argued that women should have access to a public education as they possessed the same capacity for reason as men.

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

Some feminists, however, were wary of granting women the right to vote, fearing they were too conservative and religious and would thus vote accordingly. The movement continued, however, and New Zealand became the first country to grant women the right to vote (1893). Several others followed after World War I, including Great Britain and Germany (1918), followed soon by the United States (1920).

CULTURAL INFLUENCES

High-Yield

African and Asian Influences on European Art

Not likely to be on AP Test anymore.

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

Cultural Policies of Meiji Japan

As Japan was opening up to the industrialization of the West, it was also heavily influenced by the culture of the West. Japanese literature took inspiration from European literature, and writers experimented with Western verse. Architects and artists created large buildings of steel, with Greek columns like those seen in the West, although wooden buildings would continue to predominate throughout the country until their destruction in the Allied firebombings of Japan in World War II.

Leisure and Consumption

The industrial age brought higher wages and shorter work hours. ^{Must know!} These changes gave people new opportunities. The middle class increased, leading to a new focus on the concept of leisure. The field of advertising communicated to the people the sense of needing things. The bicycle, for instance, became the “must-have item” of the 1880s and a vehicle of women’s emancipation. Newspapers, theaters, and professional sports all became popular in this new era of leisure and consumption.

THE ENVIRONMENT

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

Part 3

Complete Time Period Review

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

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