Reading Essentials and Study Guide
Industrialization and Nationalism

Lesson 1  The Industrial Revolution

ESSENTIAL QUESTION
How can innovation affect ways of life?
How does revolution bring about political and economic change?

Reading HELPDESK

Content Vocabulary
- capital: money available for investment
- entrepreneur: a person who finds new business opportunities and new ways to make profits
- cottage industry: a method of production in which tasks are done by individuals in their rural homes
- puddling: the process in which coke derived from coal is used to burn away impurities in crude iron to produce high quality iron
- industrial capitalism: an economic system based on industrial production or manufacturing
- socialism: a system in which society, usually in the form of the government, owns and controls the means of production

Academic Vocabulary
- labor: work performed by people that provides the goods or services in an economy
- derived: obtained from; came from

TAKING NOTES: Categorizing Information
1. ACTIVITY As you read, use the table below to name important inventors mentioned in this lesson and their inventions.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inventors</th>
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IT MATTERS BECAUSE
The Industrial Revolution began in Great Britain during the late eighteenth century. Before that time, the economy had been based on farming and goods made by hand. An agricultural revolution and industrialization caused major changes in the economy. Now it was based on manufacturing by machines in factories.
The Industrial Revolution in Great Britain

GUIDING QUESTIONS What was the significance of the Agricultural Revolution in Great Britain? Why did the Industrial Revolution start in Great Britain?

The Industrial Revolution began in Great Britain in the 1780s. The revolution took many decades to spread to other Western nations. Many reasons help explain why Great Britain was the starting place of the revolution.

First, there was an Agricultural Revolution in Great Britain in the 1700s. It changed agricultural practices. Expansion of farmland, good weather, improved transportation, and new crops such as the potato increased the food supply. More people could be fed at lower prices with less labor. Now even ordinary British families could use some of their income to buy manufactured goods, such as clothing, buttons, shoes, and household items like dishes, clocks, and mirrors. Second, the increased food supply caused the population to grow. Landowners fenced off common lands when Parliament passed enclosure movement laws in the 1700s. This forced many peasants to move to towns and created a labor supply for factories.

Third, Britain had money, or capital, to invest in new machines and factories. Entrepreneurs found new business opportunities. They also found new ways to make profits.

Fourth, Britain had many natural resources. The country’s rivers provided water power for the new factories and a way for transporting raw materials and finished products. Britain also had large supplies of coal and iron ore.

Finally, Britain had markets where British manufacturers could sell their goods. Britain had a large colonial empire, and British ships could transport goods anywhere in the world. Also, domestic markets increased because of population growth and cheaper food at home. A growing demand for cotton cloth led British manufacturers to look for ways to increase production.

Cotton Production and New Factories

Great Britain produced a large amount of inexpensive cotton goods in the eighteenth century. The process of manufacturing cotton cloth had two steps. First, spinners made cotton thread from raw cotton. Then, weavers wove the cotton thread into cloth on looms. Individuals did these tasks in their rural cottages in the eighteenth century. This production method was called a cottage industry.

New inventions in the eighteenth century made cottage industry inefficient. In 1764 James Hargreaves invented a machine called the spinning jenny. The spinning jenny made the spinning process much faster. In fact, spinners produced thread faster than weavers could use it.

Edmund Cartwright invented a water-powered loom in 1787. With this loom, workers could now weave cloth as fast as spinners produced thread. It was now more efficient to bring workers to the new machines and have them work in factories near streams and rivers. The streams and rivers were used to power many of the early machines.

The cotton industry became even more productive when James Watt, a Scottish engineer, improved the steam engine in the 1760s. In 1782 Watt made changes that helped the engine drive machinery. Steam power could now be used to spin and weave cotton. Before long, cotton mills using steam engines were found all over Britain. Steam engines were powered with coal, not by water. As a result, mills no longer needed to be located near rivers.

British cotton cloth production greatly increased. In 1760, Britain had imported 2.5 million pounds (1.14 million kg) of raw cotton. This was used to produce cloth in cottage industries. By 1840, 366 million pounds (166 million kg) of cotton were imported each year. By this time, cotton cloth
was Britain’s most valuable product. British cotton goods were produced mainly in factories and sold around the world.

The factory was another important part of the Industrial Revolution. The factory created a new labor system. Factory owners wanted to use their new machines constantly. So, workers were forced to work in shifts to keep the machines producing at a steady rate.

Early factory workers came from rural areas. They were used to periods of very busy work during harvest time, followed by periods of little activity. Early factory owners made workers follow a system of regular hours and repetitive tasks. Adult workers received fines for being late and lost their jobs for more serious misconduct, especially being drunk. Child workers were often beaten with a rod or whipped to keep them at work. One early industrialist said that he wanted to make people like machines that did not make mistakes.

**Coal, Iron, and Railroads**

The steam engine was important to Britain’s Industrial Revolution. The engine depended on coal for fuel. There seemed to be no limit on the amount of coal available. The success of the steam engine increased the need for coal and led to an expansion in coal production. New processes using coal helped change the iron industry.

Britain’s natural resources included large supplies of iron ore. A better quality of iron was produced in the 1780s when Henry Cort developed a process called **puddling**. Coke is a substance **derived** from coal. In the puddling process, coke was used to burn away impurities in crude iron, which is called pig iron. Burning away the impurities produced iron of high quality.

The British iron industry increased its production. In 1740 Britain had produced 17,000 tons of iron (15,419 metric tons or t). Production jumped to nearly 70,000 tons (63,490 t) after Cort’s process came into use in the 1780s. In 1852 Britain produced almost 3 million tons (2.7 million t). This amount was more iron than was produced by all the rest of the world. High-quality iron was used to build new machines such as trains.

In the eighteenth century, more efficient ways of moving resources and goods developed. Railroads were very important to the success of the Industrial Revolution. Richard Trevithick, an English engineer, built the first steam locomotive. In 1804, Trevithick’s locomotive ran on an industrial railway line in Britain. It pulled 10 tons (9 t) of ore and 70 people at 5 miles (8.05 km) per hour. Better locomotives soon followed. One called the Rocket was used on the first public railway line. This railway line opened in 1830 and extended 32 miles (51.5 km) from the cotton-manufacturing town of Manchester to the busy port of Liverpool.

The Rocket sped along at 16 miles (25.7 km) per hour while it pulled a 40-ton train. Within 20 years, locomotives were able to reach 50 miles (80.5 km) per hour. This was considered a very fast speed. In 1840 Britain had almost 2,000 miles of railroads. In 1850 more than 6,000 miles (9,654 km) of railroad track crisscrossed much of that country.

Building railroads created new jobs for farm laborers and peasants. Less expensive transportation led to lower-priced goods. This created larger markets. More sales meant more factories and more machinery. Business owners could reinvest their profits in new equipment. This added to the growth of the economy. This type of regular, ongoing economic growth became a basic feature of the new industrial economy.

**PROGRESS CHECK**
2. **Making Inferences** Why might it be important to have fast, reliable transportation between Manchester and Liverpool?

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The Spread of Industrialization

GUIDING QUESTION What factors fed the spread of industrialization in Europe and North America?

By the mid-nineteenth century, Great Britain had become the world’s first industrial nation. It had also become the world’s richest nation. It produced one-half of the world’s coal and manufactured goods. Its cotton industry alone in 1850 was equal in size to the industries of all the other European countries together.

The Industrial Revolution spread to the rest of Europe at different times and speeds. Belgium, France, and the German states were the first to be industrialized in continental Europe. Their governments actively encouraged industrialization. For example, governments provided funds to build roads, canals, and railroads. By 1850, a network of iron rails spread across Europe.

An Industrial Revolution also occurred in the United States during the first half of the nineteenth century. In 1800 more than 5 million people lived in the United States. Nearly 6 out of every 7 American workers were farmers. No city had more than 100,000 people. By 1860 the population had grown to more than 30 million people. Many of those people moved into cities. Eight cities had populations over 100,000. Only about 50 percent of American workers were farmers.

The United States was a large country. As a result, it needed a good transportation system to move goods across the nation. Thousands of miles of roads and canals were built to link east and west. Robert Fulton built the first paddle-wheel steamboat, the Clermont, in 1807. Steamboats made transportation easier on the waterways of the United States.

The railroad was of major importance in the development of the American transportation system. By 1860, about 30,000 miles (48,270 km) of railroad track covered the United States. The railroad made the country a single huge market for the manufactured goods of the Northeast.

Labor for the growing number of factories in the Northeast came mostly from the farm population. Women and girls made up a large majority of the workers in large textile factories.

PROGRESS CHECK
3. Comparing How did the effects of industrialization in the United States compare with those in Great Britain?

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Social Impact of Industrialization

GUIDING QUESTION What was the social impact of industrialization in Europe? The Industrial Revolution greatly changed society. Cities grew and two new social classes developed in the first half of the 1800s. These new classes were the industrial middle class and the industrial working class.

Population Growth and Urbanization
The European population was about 140 million in 1750. By 1850, the population had almost
doubled to 266 million. The key to this growth was a decline in death rates, in wars, and in major
diseases, such as smallpox and plague. People were better fed and better able to fight against
disease.

Famine and poverty were two factors in migration and urbanization around the world. Over a
million people died during the Irish potato famine. Poverty led a million more to migrate to the
Americas. Large numbers of people migrated from the countryside to cities to work in factories.

In 1800 Great Britain had one major city, London, with a population of about 1 million. Six cities
had populations between 50,000 and 100,000. By 1850, London’s population had grown to about
2.5 million. Nine cities had populations over 100,000. Also, over 50 percent of the population lived
in towns and cities.

The rapid growth of cities in the first half of the nineteenth century led to terrible living conditions
for many. Urban reformers called on local governments to clean up their cities. Reforms would be
made in the second half of the nineteenth century.

**New Social Classes**

The Middle Ages saw the rise of commercial capitalism. Commercial capitalism is an economic
system based on trade. Industrial capitalism is an economic system based on industrial
production. This system rose during the Industrial Revolution and produced a new group in the
middle class. This group was the industrial middle class.

In the Middle Ages, the bourgeois, or middle-class person, was the burgher or person who lived in
town. The bourgeois were merchants, government officials, artisans, lawyers, or intellectuals.
Later, the term *bourgeois* included people involved in industry and banking, as well as lawyers,
teachers, and doctors. The new industrial middle class was made up of the people who built the
factories, bought the machines, and developed the markets. They had ideas, vision, ambition,
and, often, greed. One person said getting money is the main purpose in life.

The Industrial Revolution also created an industrial working class. The working class faced terrible
working conditions. Work hours were between 12 and 16 hours a day for 6 days a week. There
was no security of employment and no minimum wage.

Working conditions in the coal mines were extremely difficult. Steam-powered engines lifted the
coal from the mines to the top, but the men inside the mines dug out the coal. Dangerous
conditions, including cave-ins, explosions, and gas fumes, were a way of life. The lack of space in
mines and their constant dampness harmed workers’ bodies and ruined their lungs. The worst
conditions were in the cotton mills, which were dirty, dusty, dangerous, and unhealthy.

In Britain, women and children made up two-thirds of the cotton industry’s workforce by 1830.
However, the number of child laborers declined after the Factory Act of 1833. This law made 9
the youngest age for employment and limited working hours for older children. Women became 50
percent, or half, of the British labor force in textile factories after child labor was limited. Women
were paid half or less than half of the pay that men received. A new pattern of work emerged
after the work hours of children and women were limited. Men now earned most of the family
income by working outside the home. Women took over daily care of the family and performed
low-paying jobs that could be done at home.

**Early Socialism**

The Industrial Revolution created terrible living and working conditions in the first half of the
nineteenth century. This led to a movement known as *socialism*. The government owns and
controls factories and utilities in this economic system.
Early socialism was mostly the idea of intellectuals. Such ideas were impractical dreams to later socialists, especially the followers of Karl Marx. They called the earlier reformers utopian socialists. The term is still used today. Robert Owen was one utopian socialist. Owen was a British cotton manufacturer. He believed that humans would show their natural goodness if they lived in a cooperative environment. Owen changed the dirty factory town of New Lanark in Scotland into a flourishing community. He created a similar community at New Harmony, Indiana, in the United States in the 1820s, but that community failed.

**PROGRESS CHECK**

4. *Drawing Conclusions* Why do you think the working conditions during the Industrial Revolution led some to argue for socialism?

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Reading Essentials and Study Guide
Industrialization and Nationalism

Lesson 2  Nationalism and Political Revolutions

ESSENTIAL QUESTION
How can innovation affect ways of life?
How does revolution bring about political and economic change?

Reading HELPDESK
Content Vocabulary
universal male suffrage the right of all males to vote in elections
multinational empire an empire in which people of many nationalities live

Academic Vocabulary
radical relating to a political group associated with views, practices, and policies of extreme change
temporary lasting for a limited time; not permanent

TAKING NOTES: Comparing and Contrasting
5. ACTIVITY Use this graphic organizer to compare and contrast the revolutions of 1830 and 1848.

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<th>1830</th>
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<td>Governments/countries in power</td>
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<td>Groups revolting</td>
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IT MATTERS BECAUSE
European rulers wanted a return to stability, or order, after the Napoleonic wars. They wanted to do this by bringing back much of the old order, or old way of ruling. They also wanted to keep a balance of power among nations. However, new forces for change had become too powerful to stop. These new forces included liberalism and nationalism. Revolts and revolutions soon occurred in Europe.

The Revolutions of the 1830s
GUIDING QUESTION How did liberalism and nationalism present a challenge to conservatism in Europe during the 1830s and 1840s?

Governments in Europe attempted to maintain the old order during the nineteenth century. Beginning in 1830, however, the forces of change began to break through the conservative domination of Europe. These forces were liberalism and nationalism.

In France the Bourbon monarch, Charles X, was strongly against changes and reforms. He attempted to censor the press, and he took away the right to vote from much of the middle class. In response, liberals removed Charles X from power in 1830, and they established a constitutional monarchy. The new monarch was Louis Philippe, a cousin of Charles X. Political support for the new monarch came from the upper-middle class.

In the same year, three more revolutions occurred in Europe. Nationalism was the main force in all three revolutions. Belgium had been annexed to the former Dutch Republic in 1815. Belgium rebelled and created an independent state. Poland and Italy were also ruled by foreign powers, but their efforts to break free were less successful. Russian troops crushed the Polish attempt to establish an independent Polish nation. Meanwhile, Austrian troops marched south and stopped revolts in a number of Italian states.

PROGRESS CHECK
6. Evaluating In what ways were liberalism and nationalism causes for the revolutions of the 1830s in Europe?

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The Revolutions of 1848
GUIDING QUESTIONS How did liberalism and nationalism present a challenge to conservatism in Europe during the 1830s and 1840s? What were the results of the revolutionary uprisings that occurred throughout Europe in 1848?

Liberalism and nationalism were successful in France and Belgium, but the conservative order still dominated much of Europe in the mid-nineteenth century. However, the forces of liberalism and nationalism continued to grow, and these forces of change resulted in the revolutions of 1848.

Another French Revolution
Revolution in France was again the spark, or cause, for revolution in other countries. France had serious economic problems beginning in 1846. These problems brought great hardship, or suffering,
to the lower-middle class, workers, and peasants. At the same time, members of the middle class wanted the right to vote. The government of Louis Philippe refused to make changes, and opposition grew.

The monarchy was finally overthrown in 1848. A group of moderate and radical republicans set up a provisional, or temporary, government. The republicans were people who wanted France to be a republic. A republic is a government in which leaders are elected.

The provisional government called for the election of representatives to a Constituent Assembly. These representatives would write a new constitution for France. They were to be elected by universal male suffrage. This meant all adult men could vote, not just those who owned property.

The provisional government also established national workshops that provided work for the unemployed. The number of unemployed in the national workshops increased from about 66,000 to almost 120,000 from March to June. This emptied the treasury, and it also frightened the moderates. The moderates reacted by closing the workshops on June 21.

The workers refused to accept this decision and poured into the streets in protest. Government forces crushed the working-class revolt in four days of bitter and bloody fighting. Thousands were killed, and thousands more were sent to the French prison colony of Algeria in northern Africa.

The new constitution was ratified, or approved, on November 4, 1848. The constitution established a republic called the Second Republic. The Second Republic had one legislature, which was elected by universal male suffrage. It also had a president, who was also chosen by universal male suffrage. The president would serve four years. The elections for the president were held in December 1848, and Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte (called Louis-Napoleon), the nephew of the famous French ruler Napoleon Bonaparte, won a huge victory.

Revolt in the German States
News of the 1848 revolution in France led to upheaval in other parts of Europe. The Congress of Vienna, which was held from 1814 to 1815, had recognized the existence of 38 independent German states. These states were called the German Confederation. Austria and Prussia were the two great powers among these German states. The other German states varied in size.

In 1848 people called for change. The demands led many German rulers to promise constitutions, a free press, jury trials, and other liberal reforms. In May 1848, the Frankfurt Assembly was held. It was an all-German parliament, and its purpose was to prepare a constitution for a new united Germany. These were liberal and nationalist goals. The assembly's ideas for a new constitution included a parliamentary government. It also called for a hereditary emperor who would rule under a limited monarchy. The constitution also allowed election of deputies to the parliament by universal male suffrage.

In the end, the Frankfurt Assembly failed to gain the support needed to achieve its goals. Frederick William IV of Prussia was offered the throne, but he refused to accept the crown from a popularly elected assembly. This showed that the assembly members had no real way of forcing the German rulers to accept their drafted constitution. As a result, German unification was not achieved.

Revolutions in Central Europe
The Austrian Empire also had its problems because it was a multinational empire. It was a collection of different peoples including Germans, Czechs, Magyars (Hungarians), Slovaks, Romanians, Slovenes, Poles, Croats, Serbs, Ruthenians (Ukrainians), and Italians. Only the German-speaking Hapsburg dynasty held the empire together. The Germans were only a quarter of
the population, but they played a leading role in governing the Austrian Empire.

In March 1848, demonstrations began in the major cities of the empire. To calm the demonstrators, the Hapsburg court replaced the Austrian foreign minister Metternich, who then fled to England. In Vienna, revolutionary forces took control of the capital, and they demanded a liberal constitution. The government gave Hungary its own legislature. In Bohemia, the Czechs wanted their own government.

Austrian officials had tried to satisfy the revolutionaries, but they also wanted to reestablish their control over the empire. Austrian military forces crushed the Czech rebels in Prague in June 1848. The rebels in Vienna had been defeated by the end of October. The Hungarian revolutionaries were finally defeated in 1849 with the help of a Russian army of 140,000 men. The revolutions in the Austrian Empire had failed.

Revolts in the Italian States
The Congress of Vienna had set up nine states in Italy, which were divided among the European powers. These states included the Kingdom of Piedmont in the north; the Two Sicilies (Naples and Sicily); the Papal States; a handful of small states; and the northern provinces of Lombardy and Venetia, which were now part of the Austrian Empire.

In 1848, a revolt began against the Austrians in Lombardy and Venetia. Revolutionaries in other Italian states also took up arms. They tried to reestablish complete control over Lombardy and Venetia. The old order also remained in control in the rest of Italy.

The Failures of 1848
In 1848 popular revolts started changes throughout Europe. These changes led to the creation of liberal constitutions and liberal governments. But how could so many successes in 1848 soon be followed by so many failures? There are two main reasons for this.

The revolutionaries were united at first, and this unity made the revolutions possible. However, moderate liberals and more radical revolutionaries were soon divided over their goals, and as a result, conservative rule was reestablished.

In 1848 nationalities everywhere had also revolted to gain self-government. However, little was achieved because of the divisions among nationalities. For example, the Hungarians wanted their freedom from the Austrians. However, they refused to give freedom to minorities in their lands. Their minorities included the Slovenes, Croats, and Serbs. These groups fought each other instead of joining together to fight the old empire. As a result, the old order won. However, the forces of nationalism and liberalism continued to influence political events even after the reestablishment of conservative governments.

PROGRESS CHECK
7. Drawing Conclusions Why did the revolutions of 1848 fail?
Reading Essentials and Study Guide
Industrialization and Nationalism

Lesson 3 Nationalism, Unification, and Reform

ESSENTIAL QUESTION
How can innovation affect ways of life?
How does revolution bring about political and economic change?

Reading HELPDESK
Content Vocabulary
militarism the reliance on military strength
kaiser German for “caesar”; the title of the emperors of the Second German Empire
plebiscite a popular vote
emancipation the act of setting free
abolitionism a movement to end slavery

Academic Vocabulary
unification the act, process, or result of making into a coherent or coordinated whole; the state of being unified
regime the government in power

TAKING NOTES: Summarizing Information
8. ACTIVITY As you read, use the table below to list the changes that took place in the indicated countries during the nineteenth century.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Great Britain</th>
<th>France</th>
<th>Austrian Empire</th>
<th>Russia</th>
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IT MATTERS BECAUSE
The revolutions of 1848 had failed, but the forces of nationalism and liberalism remained powerful for the rest of the nineteenth century. Both Italy and Germany were unified. Great Britain and France became more liberal, or accepting of reform.

Toward National Unification
GUIDING QUESTION What led to the unification of Italy and Germany after the revolution of 1848?
The revolutions of 1848 had failed. However, both Germany and Italy would be unified by 1871. The changes that made this possible began with the Crimean War.

**Breakdown of the Concert of Europe**
The Crimean War was the result of a long-term struggle between Russia and the Ottoman Empire. For many years, the Ottoman Empire had controlled most of the Balkans in southeastern Europe. By 1800, however, the Ottoman Empire began to lose power.

Russia was especially interested in expanding its power into Ottoman lands in the Balkans. Russian ships could then sail through the Dardanelles, the straits between the Black Sea and the Mediterranean. If Russia could achieve this goal, it would become the major power in Eastern Europe. Also, Russia could challenge British naval control of the eastern Mediterranean. Other European nations feared Russian ambition. These other nations had their own interest in the decline of the Ottoman Empire.

The Russians invaded the Turkish Balkan provinces of Moldavia and Walachia in 1853. In response, the Ottoman Turks declared war on Russia. Great Britain and France feared Russia would gain power and land, so they declared war on Russia the following year. This conflict came to be called the Crimean War. The Crimean War was poorly planned and poorly fought. Eventually, heavy losses caused the Russians to seek peace. The Treaty of Paris, which was signed in March 1856, forced Russia to allow Moldavia and Walachia to be placed under the protection of all the great powers of Europe.

The Concert of Europe was a loose agreement between the major European powers to work together to maintain peace. The Crimean War destroyed this agreement. Austria and Russia had been the chief powers maintaining the status quo, or current state of affairs, before the 1850s. They were now enemies. Austria had its own interests in the Balkans, so the country refused to support Russia in the Crimean War. Russia’s defeat was embarrassing, and it resulted in Russia’s withdrawal from European affairs for the next 20 years. Austria was left without friends among the former Concert members. This situation opened the way for the unification of two new countries—Italy and Germany.

**Italian Unification**
In 1850 Austria was the dominant power on the Italian Peninsula. The revolution of 1848 had failed. The people began to look to the northern Italian state of Piedmont for leadership. They hoped the kingdom of Piedmont, under the rule of the royal house of Savoy, would take the lead in bringing Italy under one government. The kingdom included Piedmont, the island of Sardinia, Nice, and Savoy. King Victor Emmanuel II became the ruler of the kingdom in 1849.

In 1852 the king chose Camillo di Cavour for his prime minister. Cavour worked on bringing in more money for the government to equip a large army. Cavour knew that Piedmont’s army was not strong enough to defeat the Austrians, so he made an alliance with the French emperor Louis-Napoleon. Then he provoked the Austrians to declare war in 1859.

The peace settlement that ended the conflict gave Nice and Savoy to the French. Lombardy, which had been under Austrian control, was given to Piedmont. Austria kept control of Venetia. Nationalists in other Italian states were inspired by Cavour’s success. The people of Parma, Modena, and Tuscany overthrew their governments and joined their states to Piedmont.

At the same time, a new Italian leader had arisen in southern Italy. Giuseppe Garibaldi, a dedicated patriot, gathered an army of a thousand volunteers. A branch of the Bourbon dynasty ruled the Two Sicilies (Sicily and Naples), and a revolt against the king had started in Sicily. Garibaldi’s forces landed in Sicily, and by the end of July 1860, Garibaldi controlled most of the island. In August, Garibaldi’s forces crossed over to the mainland and began a victorious march up
the Italian Peninsula. The entire Kingdom of the Two Sicilies fell in early September.

Garibaldi chose to give his conquests to Piedmont. On March 17, 1861, a new state of Italy was proclaimed with King Victor Emmanuel II as the ruler. Unification of Italy was not yet complete, however. Austria still held Venetia in the north, and the pope, supported by French troops, still controlled Rome, in the central part of Italy.

When Austria and Prussia went to war, the Italians gave their support to Prussia. As a result, the Italians gained control of Venetia in 1866. During the Franco-Prussian War, French troops withdrew from Rome in 1870. Their withdrawal allowed the Italian army to take over Rome on September 20, 1870. Rome became the capital of the new European state of Italy.

**German Unification**

The Frankfurt Assembly failed to unify Germany in 1848 and 1849. So, Germans looked to Prussia for leadership in the cause of German unification. Prussia had become a strong, prosperous, and authoritarian state in the course of the nineteenth century. The Prussian king had firm control over both the government and the army. Prussia was also known for its militarism, or reliance on military strength.

In the 1860s, King William I tried to increase the size of the Prussian army. The Prussian legislature refused to levy new taxes to build the army. So William I appointed a new prime minister. His name was Count Otto von Bismarck. Bismarck was a strong believer in the “politics of reality,” or realpolitik. He made decisions based on practical matters rather than on ethics, or moral values.

Bismarck openly stated his strong dislike for anyone who opposed him. After he became prime minister, Bismarck ignored legislature’s opposition to the military reforms. He proceeded to collect taxes and strengthen the army. From 1862 to 1866, Bismarck governed Prussia without the approval of the parliament. At the same time, he followed an active foreign policy, which soon led to war.

Prussia defeated Denmark with Austrian help in 1864. As a result, Prussia gained control of the duchies (lands ruled by a duke or duchess) of Schleswig and Holstein. Bismarck then goaded the Austrians into war on June 14, 1866. The Austrians were no match for the well-disciplined Prussian army. Austria was defeated on July 3.

Prussia now controlled the German states north of the Main River. These states were organized into the North German Confederation. The southern German states were largely Catholic, and they feared Protestant Prussia. However, they feared France, their western neighbor, more. So, they agreed to sign military alliances with Prussia. In turn, they received protection against France.

Prussia now dominated all of northern Germany. The growing power and military might of Prussia worried France. In 1870 a relative of the Prussian king became a candidate for the throne of Spain. Prussia and France argued over whether he had the right to rule. Bismarck took advantage of this situation. He pushed the French into declaring war on Prussia on July 19, 1870. This conflict became the Franco-Prussian War.

Prussian armies moved into France. On September 2, 1870, at Sedan, an entire French army and the French ruler, Napoleon III, were captured. Paris finally surrendered on January 28, 1871. An official peace treaty was signed in May. France had to pay 5 billion francs (about $1 billion). In addition, the country had to hand over the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine to the new German state. The French were angry about the loss and wanted revenge.
Before the war had ended, the southern German states agreed to enter the North German Confederation. On January 18, 1871, Bismarck and 600 German princes, nobles, and generals filled the Hall of Mirrors in the palace of Versailles, 12 miles (19.3 km) outside Paris. William I of Prussia was proclaimed kaiser, or emperor, of the Second German Empire. (The first was the medieval Holy Roman Empire.)

The Prussian monarchy and army had unified Germany. The new German state gladly accepted the authoritarian and militaristic values of Prussia. The unified Germany had abundant industrial resources and military might. As a result, Germany became the strongest power in Europe.

**PROGRESS CHECK**
9. **Explaining** How did the Crimean War destroy the Concert of Europe?

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**Nationalism and Reform in Europe**

**GUIDING QUESTION** What were the political climates in Great Britain, France, Austria, and Russia?

While Italy and Germany worked for unification, other European states were also experiencing changes.

**Great Britain**

Europe saw many revolutionary upheavals in the first half of the nineteenth century. Great Britain, on the other hand, managed to avoid revolution. In 1815 aristocrats who owned land dominated both houses of Parliament. In 1832 that changed. Parliament passed a bill that increased the number of male voters. The new voters were chiefly members of the industrial middle class. This law allowed industrial middle class members to participate in government. As a result of this change, Britain avoided revolution in 1848. In the 1850s and 1860s, Parliament made several social and political reforms. These reforms helped the country remain stable. In addition, Britain's economy was growing. By 1850, the British middle class was prosperous as a result of industrialization. After 1850, real wages of workers also rose significantly.

Queen Victoria ruled from 1837 to 1901, which was the longest reign in English history. Her dedication to her country perfectly reflected the national pride of the British. She was a dutiful and morally respectable queen. Her character came to define the values and attitudes of her age. Later that time period was named the Victorian Age.

**France**

After the revolution of 1848, Louis-Napoleon was elected president of France. From that time on, the French moved toward restoring the monarchy. Four years later, Louis-Napoleon asked the people to restore the empire. He put the question to vote. In this plebiscite, or popular vote, 97 percent answered yes. On December 2, 1852, Louis-Napoleon became Emperor Napoleon III. (Napoleon II was the son of Napoleon Bonaparte, but he never ruled France.) The Second Empire had begun.

The government of Napoleon III was clearly authoritarian. As chief of state, Napoleon III controlled the armed forces, police, and civil service. He was the only one who had the power to
introduce legislation and declare war. The Legislative Corps appeared to represent the people because members of the group were elected by universal male suffrage for six-year terms. However, they could not suggest new laws or influence the budget, or the government’s plan for spending.

Napoleon III completely controlled the government and limited civil liberties. He needed to distract the public from their loss of political freedom. As a result, he focused on expanding the economy. The government gave money to companies to support the construction of railroads, harbors, roads, and canals.

At the same time, Napoleon III also invested in the rebuilding of Paris. Paris was a city with narrow streets and stone walls. After Napoleon’s changes were finished, Paris was a modern city. It contained broad boulevards, spacious buildings, public squares, an underground sewage system, a new public water supply system, and gaslights.

In the 1860s, the French began to oppose some of Napoleon’s economic and governmental policies. In response, Napoleon III began to liberalize his régime, or government. He gave the legislature more power. After the French were defeated in the Franco-Prussian War, Napoleon’s Second Empire fell.

The Austrian Empire
Nationalism was a major force in nineteenth-century Europe. However, one of Europe’s most powerful states—the Austrian Empire—was a multinational empire. Its government kept control even though its ethnic groups desired independence.

The Hapsburg rulers crushed the revolutions of 1848 and 1849. They then brought back centralized, autocratic government to the empire. In 1866 Austria was defeated by the Prussians. As a result, the government was forced to make concessions to the fiercely nationalistic Hungarians. The Compromise of 1867 created the dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary. Each of these two parts of the empire now had its own constitution, its own legislature, its own government bureaucracy, and its own capital (Vienna for Austria and Budapest for Hungary). A single monarch ruled both. Francis Joseph was emperor of Austria and king of Hungary. Also, the two states shared a common army, foreign policy, and system of finances.

Russia
At the beginning of the nineteenth century, Russia was still mostly rural. Its economy heavily depended on agricultural. Its government was autocratic. The Russian czar was seen as a divine-right monarch. That is, the people believed he had a god-given right to rule. He had unlimited power. In 1856 the Russians were overwhelmingly defeated in the Crimean War. Even conservative Russians realized that the country had fallen hopelessly behind the western European states. Czar Alexander II decided to make some reforms.

Serfdom was the largest problem in czarist Russia. On March 3, 1861, Alexander issued an emancipation edict, which freed the serfs. Peasants could now own property. The government bought land from landlords to give to the peasants. The new land system, however, was not very helpful to the peasants. The landowners often kept the best lands for themselves. As a result, the Russian peasants had little good land to farm to support themselves. In the end, emancipation failed to create a free, landowning peasantry. Instead, the reform created unhappy, landstarved peasants who largely followed old ways of farming.

Alexander II tried other reforms as well. Even with the changes, he seemed to please no one. Reformers wanted more changes while conservatives thought the czar was destroying Russia’s basic institutions. In 1881 radicals assassinated Alexander II. His son, Alexander III, turned against reform. He returned to the old methods of oppression.
Nationalism in the United States

GUIDING QUESTION How did nationalism influence events in the United States during the 1800s?

Nationalism and liberalism were key ideas of the Unites States Constitution. However, the new nation found it difficult to act in a united way. A major issue was the division of power in the new government. Federalists wanted a strong central government, while Republicans wanted the federal (central) government to be less powerful than the state governments.

By the mid-nineteenth century, another dividing issue arose. Four million enslaved African Americans were in the South by 1860, compared with one million in 1800.

The South's economy was based on growing cotton on plantations. Enslaved Africans worked on them. The South was determined to maintain the cotton economy and plantation-based slavery. In the North, abolitionism, a movement to end slavery, arose and challenged the Southern way of life.

Opinions about slavery grew more and more divided and compromise seemed impossible. In 1858, Abraham Lincoln addressed the issue in a speech. He expressed his belief that the U.S. government would not survive “half slave and half free.” When Lincoln was elected president in November 1860, war became certain. In April, fighting arose between North and South—the Union and the Confederacy.

The American Civil War (1861–1865) was a bloody struggle. Lincoln’s Emancipation Proclamation declared most of the nation’s enslaved people “forever free.” The Confederate forces surrendered on April 9, 1865. The United States remained united, “one nation, indivisible.”

PROGRESS CHECK

11. Identifying What issues divided Americans in the 1800s?
Video Worksheet
Mass Society and Democracy
Lesson 1 The Growth of Industrial Prosperity

The Growth of Industrial Prosperity

Directions: Review the questions below and think about these questions as you watch the video. Take notes that answer these questions as the video plays.

12. Identifying In European cities around 1900, what modes of transportation did most people use?

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13. Identifying Central Issues What was Henry Ford’s goal in developing the assembly line?

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14. Drawing Conclusions What was the advantage of being able to afford an automobile?

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Video Worksheet
Mass Society and Democracy
Lesson 2 The Emergence of Mass Society

The Emergence of Mass Society

Directions: Review the questions below and think about these questions as you watch the video. Take notes that answer these questions as the video plays.

15. Determining Cause and Effect How did the introduction of automation or assembly lines affect the jobs of skilled workers such as steel puddlers?

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16. Identifying Central Issues Why did working women earn one-third to one-half as much as men?

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17. Drawing Conclusions What caused there to be a division between “women’s jobs” and “men’s jobs”?

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Industrialization and Nationalism: Reading Essentials and Study Guide: Lesson 1
Answer Key

1. Hargreaves: spinning jenny; Watt: steam engine; Cort: puddling; Trevithick: steam locomotive; Fulton: paddle-wheel steamboat

2. The faster that goods can be moved from factories in Manchester to the port at Liverpool, the faster they can be shipped.

3. Industrialization led to urbanization. As factories grew, both expanded their transportation systems.

4. Working conditions were dangerous. Reformers thought giving government control of the factories would improve conditions.


6. People wanted a government run by native powers and more natural rights.

7. Moderate and radical revolutionaries were divided over their goals, and nationalities fought one another.

8. Great Britain: Vote extended, social and political reforms; France: Economic expansion, Paris rebuilt, war with Prussia; Austrian Empire: dual monarchy; Russia: serfs freed.

9. Russia and Austria became enemies. Russia withdrew from world affairs for 20 years. Italy and Germany pursued unification.

10. They gained their own constitution, legislature, government bureaucracy, and capital.

11. The balance of power between the federal government and state governments, and slavery.

12. Most people used public transportation such as horse-drawn vehicles, trams, buses, and trains. Only the wealthy used cars.

13. Henry Ford wanted his Model I car to be affordable and reliable for ordinary people, not just the wealthy.

14. Having an automobile made a person less dependent on the schedules of public transportation. This gave the person more individual freedom.

15. Automation made their skills unnecessary. Also, a skilled worker could determine how much work he could produce. With automation, the manager of the plant decided how much work people could produce.

16. Business owners assumed that women did not have to support a family with their wages.

17. Men refused to work at the same jobs as women because wages were lower for “women’s work.”