



# Revolutions and Industry (1750 to 1900 CE)

## ➤ A THUMBNAIL VIEW

- Industrialization led the world to become truly interdependent. Industrialized nations in search of raw materials and new markets often colonized areas to protect their economic interests.
- New technologies quickened the pace of life. Populations grew and many people migrated to cities in search of work in factories. Free-wage laborers were more desirable in this new market-driven economy than forced labor. As a result, slaves and serfs were emancipated.
- Women gained some economic opportunities in the factories but were paid considerably less than their male counterparts. New economic opportunities and Enlightenment ideals pushed women to fight for political rights, as well.
- 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.
- 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, while elsewhere traditional religious organization maintained power and influence.
- The ideas of the Enlightenment, which said that the government was responsible to its people, inspired revolutions and independence movements and pushed some governments to experiment with democratic values. This democracy, however, extended to a limited class of people. “The nation” and nationalism became the new concepts of identity in the 19th century and would soon spread to many parts of the world.

## ➤ UPRISINGS AND FREEDOM GROUPS

### North America

From 1756 to 1763, France and Great Britain fought what is known as the Seven Years’ War. While the war broke out in Europe, it quickly spread to North America, where the French and their Native American allies fought the British and their colonist allies, and to India, where both enlisted the help of Indian allies. The war proved to be a disaster for the French, who lost in all three places, losing their Canadian territories in North America and their trading region in India. Because it was fought on three continents, the Seven Years’ War can be called the first global war. Britain’s

empire in America seemed secure after its victory over France in 1763, but the cost of the war had been high. Dealing with this debt started a chain of events that led to deteriorating relations between the crown in London and its subjects in North America.

The American colonists argued that they should not have to pay England's war debt as is evidenced by the famous quote, "No taxation without representation." In 1774, the Continental Congress organized and coordinated colonial resistance, and 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 king amid a declaration that **all men were created equal**. Though the British enjoyed many advantages such as a strong government, navy, and army, as well as American loyalists, the war was fought from a great distance, and the colonists had the support of other European states, including France.

By 1781, the British surrendered to George Washington, and in 1783, the Peace of Paris treaties formally recognized American independence. The colonies created a federal republic with 13 states and a written constitution that guaranteed freedom of speech and religion.

## France

Unlike the Americans, who wanted the right to self-govern, revolutionaries in France wanted to replace the "old order" with completely new political, social, and cultural structures. The causes of their discontent included large war debts, a large tax burden on the peasants, and an increasing gap between the rich and poor. The king was forced to call a meeting of the Estates-General (a legislative body) in hopes of addressing the war debts by increasing taxes on the nobility. The three estates consisted of the Roman Catholic clergy (less than 1 percent of the population), the nobility (2 percent), and the peasants (about 98 percent).

The Third Estate was further differentiated by three subdivisions. **Peasants and serfs** made up the bulk of the Third Estate but had no voice in government and still lived under feudal conditions, including extensive taxation and labor service to the nobles. The **townsfolk**, workers in the cities, earned wages and were mostly concerned with getting enough bread to feed their families. Finally, the merchants, bankers, and other businessmen made up a class called the **bourgeoisie**. The bourgeoisie were the leaders of the Third Estate.

After the revolutionaries succeeded in overthrowing the French monarchy, the revolution took a radical turn. The Committee for Public Safety, led by Maximilien Robespierre, took over the government of France and instigated a "Reign of Terror," executing many aristocrats. Eventually, the revolution turned on the very radicals who had started it, and it thrust France into war with the powers of Europe. The kingdoms of Austria, Britain, and Russia formed a coalition to defeat France and undo the revolution. The creation of a large revolutionary army to defend France helped catapult **Napoleon Bonaparte** to power. He named himself First Consul, then Consul for Life, and finally Emperor. In 1804, Napoleon issued his moderate 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 defeated many of the powers of Europe and took control of much of the continent. The Napoleonic era lasted from 1804 to 1815, as warfare ranged from Europe to North Africa and the Middle East. Taking on Russia in 1812 proved fatal, however, as the army did not survive the winter campaign. Following Napoleon's defeat by the British at Waterloo, the powers of Europe met at the **Congress of Vienna** in 1815 to restore the French monarchy and protect the old regimes. Attempted revolutions (most notably in 1830 and 1848) continued to shake the old monarchies throughout the 1800s.

## Haiti

The island of Hispaniola in the Caribbean was 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 40,000 white French settlers, 30,000 **gens de couleur** (free people of color), and 500,000 black slaves, most born in Africa. There was also a large community of escaped slaves, known as **maroons**. The French colonial government had sent 800 gens de couleur to fight in the American Revolution, and they returned with ideas of reforming their own society. When the French Revolution broke out in 1789, the white settlers sought the right to govern themselves but opposed extending political and legal equality to the gens de couleur. This led to civil war between these two groups.

While these two groups were in conflict, a **slave revolt** occurred in August of 1791. As a result, the whites, gens de couleurs, and enslaved Africans battled each other. French troops—and later, British and Spanish troops—invaded the island in hopes of gaining control. The slaves, however, were led by Toussaint Louverture, who built a strong and disciplined army that, by 1797, controlled most of Saint Domingue. In 1801, a constitution was written that granted equality and citizenship to all, and in 1803, independence was declared. By 1804, Haiti was the **second independent republic in the western hemisphere**, and it was the first republic that abolished slavery. Great economic difficulty followed independence, however. Many nations such as the United States refused to recognize or conduct trade with Haiti because of slave emancipation, and small farmers were not as 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*; 3.5 million Creoles; and 10 million in less-privileged classes including black slaves, indigenous people, and those of mixed racial backgrounds. The Creoles were wealthy from the plantation economy and trade, but they had grievances about the administrative control and economic regulations of the colonies. They did not seek social reform but rather sought to displace the powerful *peninsulares*. Napoleon's invasion of Spain and Portugal in 1807 weakened the authority of those countries in the colonies, and by 1810, revolts were occurring in Argentina, Venezuela, and Mexico. In Mexico, a peasant rebellion was led by Father Miguel de Hidalgo, but conservative Creole forces gained control of the movement. The Creole Simon Bolivar led the revolts in South America and by 1824 deposed the Spanish armies. His goal was to achieve a United States of Latin America, but unity did not last.

In Brazil, the Portuguese royal family had fled there when Napoleon invaded in 1807. When the king returned in 1821 he left his son, Pedro, to rule as regent. Pedro agreed to the demands of the Creoles and declared Brazil independent. As a result of these independence movements, the Creoles became the dominant class, and many of the *peninsulares* returned to Europe. Society remained quite stratified, and slavery continued. The wealth and power of the Roman Catholic Church remained, and the lower classes continued to be repressed.

## ► PATRIOTISM AND THE NATION-STATE

Britain had made itself the model of an imperial power with a strong military and commercial base. Older powers—such as Russia and Austria—showed their age as their autocratic traditions created increasing tension within their large empires. During the 19th century, people came to identify as part of a community called a **nation**. The forces that drew these people together were a common language, customs, cultural traditions, values, historical experiences, and sometimes religion.

## Unification of Italy and Germany

The spirit of nationalism was rising in two regions. On the Italian peninsula, the Roman Catholic Church still had great influence and discouraged the growth of Italian nationalism. 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 di Cavour**, the prime minister to King Emmanuel II of Sardinia, aligned with France and expelled Austria from northern Italy. Finally, a power struggle between these two nationalist leaders was resolved in 1870, the nation of Italy was proclaimed, and the king of Sardinia was chosen as its sovereign.

Farther north, the kingdom of **Prussia** was becoming more powerful after the defeat of Napoleon. The chancellor of Prussia, **Otto von Bismarck**, had a vision of a united Germany and so engineered a series of wars with Denmark and Austria to consolidate territory. The final stroke was to maneuver France into declaring war on Prussia and to use that as a pretext for gathering all the German domains together to fight as one. The war was a resounding victory for Prussia, and Bismarck proclaimed the birth of the German nation. France was in decline, and Germany would now begin to rival Great Britain as an industrial producer and leader in technology.

## Zionism

One problem with the formation of nations was the issue of **minority** populations. Often, a minority living within a nation did not fit the nation's identity. One such group was the Jews. The Jews did not have their own territory but rather lived as a minority in other nations. As **anti-Semitism** (hostility or prejudice toward Jews or Judaism) rose in the 19th century, so did the Zionist movement. This movement sought to establish a Jewish state in Palestine. A Jewish reporter, Theodor Herzl, launched the Zionist movement in 1897.

## Latin America

By the 1830s, most of Latin America was made up of independent nations. The leaders of these independence movements had hoped to create representative governments with freedom of commerce and protection of private property. **Early constitutions** were written to create order and representation, but voting restrictions regarding property and literacy were instituted. Some early leaders, like **Simon Bolivar**, dreamed of a unified nation, but regional rivalries and economic competition prevented that from occurring.

These new nations faced many problems, such as economies that had been disrupted by many years of warfare and large armies that were loyal to regional commanders (**caudillos**) instead of the new national government. Most leaders agreed that the governments should be republics but disagreed on what kind—a strong central government or a regional state-based government. 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

The rise of modern industry was a direct outcome of the scientific activity and inventions of the 1600s. Water power was being harnessed to create mechanical energy, which would run more efficient mills. A machine that pumped water out of mines was patented in 1769. It ran

### Factors of Industrialization

- Technical knowledge and invention
- A large population to serve as a workforce
- Possession of natural resources like coal and iron ore
- Investment capital (money) to build factories
- A stable and capitalist-minded government

on coal that heated water, and the steam pressure was used to push a piston. The **steam engine** would be the foundation of a new mechanical age in which cars, trains, boats, and factories would all be piston driven. The consequences of this revolution would impact human labor, consumption, family structure, and much more.

### Changes in Industry

#### Before Industrialization

- Agricultural/rural economy
- Family-farm economy
- Home-based manufacturing
- Rural population

#### After Industrialization

- Manufacturing/urban economy
- Wage-earning economy
- Factory-based manufacturing
- Urban population

## Preconditions for Industrialization

Several factors encouraged industrialization, including resources and technology, and England possessed all of them in the early 1700s, making it the first country to leap into the industrialization arena. Poorer nations often have plenty of people, but they struggle to come up with investment capital and a stable government to help industrialization. France and the United States 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 other nations such as Russia lagged behind.

## Technology

Major developments in technology took place prior to 1914. Higher-grade steel was adapted for use in transportation and weaponry. Naval warships transitioned from wind-powered wooden frigates to engine-driven steel ships weighing many tons. Trains revolutionized transportation for industrialized nations and were transplanted to their Asian and African colonies.

## Impact on Gender, Family, and Social Structures

Industrialization greatly impacted gender roles and families and radically altered traditional social structures. Slavery declined, because slaves could not pay for industrial products as did free-wage laborers. The family, which had been an economic unit, moved that economic production outside the home. Working-class women and children entered the workforce as low paid factory laborers. Men's status increased because industrial work and earning wages were considered more important than domestic work. Middle-class values became distinct from those of the working class. Middle-class women generally did not work outside the home but instead were pressured to conform to a new model of behavior often referred to as the "**cult of domesticity**."

## Global Effects of Industrialization

As a result of industrialization, a new **global division of labor** emerged. Industrial societies needed raw materials from distant lands, and demand grew 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 industrialized nations but established little or no industrialization themselves. Most of the profits from these cash crops went abroad, and wealth was concentrated in the hands of few. The **dependency theory** attempts to explain the uneven result of development. Instead of underdevelopment being a result of failed

modernization, it claims that underdevelopment and development are part of the same process because the development of some areas is achieved at the expense of others. One example of this would be the development of a cash crop economy in Africa, which reinforced Africans' dependency on European manufactured goods.

## REACTIONS TO INDUSTRIALIZATION

### SOCIALISM

As the 19th century progressed, the ideas of tolerance 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, other tensions arose. The appalling conditions that workers experienced in the 1800s inspired **anticapitalist reform** and revolutionary movements. Under the broad title of **socialism**, these movements critiqued the money economy and suggested instead a utopian alternative—an economy that was run by the workers. The utopians sought to create self-sufficient communities in which property was owned in common and work was shared. One of the most prominent socialist thinkers was **Karl Marx**, who advocated the **overthrow of the moneyed classes** and the establishment of a “workers’ state.” Socialist movements ranged from revolutionary to liberal.

### UNIONISM

Less radical was the union movement, which advocated the organization of workers so that they could negotiate with their employers for better wages and working conditions. Unionization led to extreme tensions and considerable bloodshed: factories fought to stop workers from banding together, and workers fought to remain unified. As a left-wing movement, unionism was often accused of being socialistic. The lines became blurred, as some workers became radicalized and adopted violence as a tactic.

## ➤ POLITICAL REFORM AND RESPONSES

### Ottoman Empire

By the 1700s, the armies of the Ottoman Empire had fallen behind those of Europe in both strength and technology. The central government was becoming less effective, while the provinces were becoming increasingly independent—often controlling their own private armies.

In 1800, Egypt was a semi-independent province of the Ottoman empire that was ruled by **Muhammad Ali**, who was appointed governor in 1805. He built a powerful army and sponsored industrialization in the areas of cotton textiles and armaments. Egypt remained nominally subordinate to the sultan, but by 1820, Ali was the effective ruler of Egypt. His son went on to commission a French firm to build the **Suez Canal**, which opened in 1869. This transformed Egypt into a crucially strategic location, home of a link between Europe and its empires in Asia and East Africa. In addition to losing territory, the Ottomans also experienced a decrease in trade. They were circumvented as Europe began to trade directly with India and China. Also, much trade shifted to the Atlantic Ocean, in which 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 those of the Ottomans. All of this was a great blow to the empire's ego.

The empire did attempt to reform itself beginning with the rule of **Mahmud II** (1803–1809). Mahmud organized a more effective army and a system of secondary education, and he built new roads, telegraph lines, and a postal service. These reforms continued into the **Tanzimat Era** (1839–1876), when the government used the French legal system as a

guide to reform its own laws. Additionally, public trials and equality before the law were instituted for Muslims and those from other religious groups. These reforms were met with much opposition, particularly from religious conservatives and the Ottoman bureaucracy. The **Young Turks**, a group of exiled Ottoman subjects, pushed for universal suffrage, equality before the law, and the emancipation of women. In 1908, they led a coup that overthrew the sultan and set up a “puppet” sultan whom they controlled. Though the Ottoman Empire had attempted to reform and change with the times, it was weak and vulnerable by the end of the 19th century.

## Russia

Much like the Ottoman Empire, the Russian Empire was autocratic, multiethnic, multilingual, and multicultural. The ruling 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, and the institution of serfdom guaranteed social stability. But unlike the Ottomans, who were losing territory, the Russian Empire had **vastly expanded**—east to Manchuria, south into the Caucasus and Central Asia, and southwest to the Mediterranean. Its military power and strength was not up to par with that of Europe, however, as demonstrated by its defeat in the **Crimean War** (1853–1856). The Crimean War highlighted the weakness of Russia’s military and economy as compared to Europe’s, 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, where all classes had elected representatives but were subordinate to czarist authority.

Policies designed to stimulate economic development were issued, such as the construction of the **Trans-Siberian Railroad** (1891–1913) and the remodeling of the state bank. This relatively fast-paced, government-sponsored industrialization led to many peasant rebellions and industrial worker strikes. The government limited the maximum workday to 11.5 hours in 1897 as a response, though it also prohibited trade unions and outlawed strikes. Anti-government protest increased through the involvement of 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 Land and Freedom Party assassinated Czar Alexander II in 1881, bringing an end to government reform. The new czars used repression—not reform—to control the people. 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 a defeat.

In January 1905, a group of workers marched to the czar’s Winter Palace to petition and were killed by government troops. The **Bloody Sunday** massacre set off anger and rebellion across the empire; as a whole this conflict 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.

## China

The Qing had grown more and more ineffective as rulers of China. New food crops brought about a rapid population increase. During the Qing dynasty, it is estimated that the Chinese population quadrupled to 420 million. This increase created great strains, and famines were increasingly common. A series of wars and rebellions further weakened the dynasty in the 1800s.

Aggressive British traders began to import opium from India into China. Europeans trying to trade with China had found themselves at a disadvantage. With its vast population and resources, China was self-sufficient and, along with its superior attitude towards foreigners, required nothing that the Europeans produced. Europeans, Britain in particular, desired trade with China to acquire silks, lacquerware, and tea, which was rapidly becoming the national drink of England. British merchants paid in silver bullion for Chinese goods. The amount of bullion a nation or company

had determined its wealth and its strength (**mercantilism**). This drain of silver from England led 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's making the opium trade illegal, British merchants smuggled it into China, where Chinese merchants were only too happy to buy it for silver, which the British merchants used to buy Chinese goods, making a profit on both ends. This reversed the silver drain from Britain to China, where the number of opium addicts was growing tremendously, causing labor problems.

A customs dispute in Guangzhou led to the first **Opium War** in 1839. This resulted in two humiliating defeats for China and a series of **unequal treaties** that gave Britain and other European nations commercial entry into China. Rebellions such as the **Taiping Rebellion** 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 began to suppress. Hong established the Taiping Tianguo (Heavenly Kingdom), and his followers created an army that, after two years of fighting, controlled a large territory in central China. Internal disputes within the Taipings finally helped the Qing dynasty defeat them, but the desperate ten-year struggle exhausted the imperial treasury. The death toll is estimated to be between twenty and thirty million, making it the bloodiest civil war in human history.

### Sun Yixian's Three Principles of the People

1. Nationalism: Self-determination of the Chinese people; freedom from foreign influence (pertaining to both Manchu rule and European encroachment)
2. Democracy: Self-rule with a constitutional government
3. Socialism: "The People's Livelihood," which combined a desire to modernize with a desire to institute land reform in China

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 great foundation and beginning, but the **Self-Strengthening Movement** only brought about change on the surface. It also experienced resistance from the imperial government. The last major reform effort

took place after China's crushing defeat in the Sino-Japanese War (1894–1895) and was known as the **Hundred Days of Reform** (1898). This ambitious movement reinterpreted Confucian thought to justify radical changes to the system, with the intent of remaking China into a powerful modern industrial society. The **Emperor Guangzu** instituted a program to change China into a constitutional monarchy, guarantee civil liberties, and encourage foreign influence. These proposed radical changes were strongly resisted by the imperial household and were unsuccessful. In 1900, the **Boxer Rebellion** sought to rid China of foreigners and foreign influence. **Empress Cixi** threw her support behind the movement. A multinational force from countries such as the United States, Russia, and Japan, however, handily defeated the Boxers and forced China to pay an indemnity for the damages.

Amidst all of these rebellions and attempts at reform, a revolutionary movement was slowly emerging in China. It was composed of young men and women who had traveled outside Asia—who had seen the new liberalism and modernization of the West and hoped to import it to China. Cells were organized in Guangzhou and overseas in Tokyo and Honolulu, where members plotted to overthrow the Qing. Under the leadership of **Sun Yixian** (Sun Yat Sen), the revolutionaries attempted many unsuccessful uprisings, but it wasn't until 1911 that the Qing were forced to abdicate. With the dynasty in considerable chaos, the **modern Republic of China** was proclaimed. Sun dreamed of a progressive and democratic China based on his **Three Principles of the People**, but China's huge population was largely undereducated and unable to feed itself.



## Japan—The Meiji Restoration

Japan made the most radical reforms and changes in its response to the challenges of reform and reaction, and it emerged from this period as a world power. Even as it continued to isolate itself selectively 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. The U.S. Navy 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 an awe-inspiring sight. They told the Americans to leave, but this caused tense debate within the 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. This was their chance to restore the emperor in Kyoto to prominence.

A younger generation of reform-minded samurai from domains distant from Edo made bold plans to undermine the Shogun. These “men of spirit” banded together to overthrow the Shogun and to advance the idea that Japan needed to modernize. They armed themselves with guns from the West, and a civil war broke out in 1866. When the antigovernment forces showed the superiority of outside technology, momentum began to shift in favor of the rebels. The overthrow of the Tokugawa regime was complete in 1868, when the victorious reformers pronounced that they had restored the emperor to his throne. They named him “**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 (literally “eastern capital”). This great transition in Japanese history has been called both a **revolution** and a **restoration**. Historians debate about which term to use because the Japanese did not overthrow the old order and replace it with something new. Rather, they reached into their past and used an older model to transform their nation.

The rapidity of industrialization and modernization in Japan was a marvel to the observing world. 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 that European powers had to take note of. This was a clear sign that the industrial revolution was achievable by non-Europeans and that new power shifts were in the wind.

## The Course of Imperialism

The European (and later U.S. and Japanese) drive toward imperialization had three major motives: economic, political, and cultural. Economically, the overseas colonies served as **sources of raw materials and markets for manufactured goods**. Politically, these colonies were strategic sites with harbors and supply stations for commercial ventures and naval ships. The key was to gain the advantage before one's rival did. Imperialism also stirred up feelings of nationalism at home.

Culturally, **missionaries** hoped to convert the Asian and African people to Christianity. While many missionaries served as protectors of native peoples, some saw their mission as one of bringing civilization to the “uncivilized.”

## Reform and Reaction in the 1800s

### Ottoman Empire

- *Political:* Instituted French legal system (equality before the law, public trials) but met with considerable opposition. Empire collapsed after World War I.
- *Economic:* As trade shifted to the Atlantic Ocean, became heavily reliant on European loans.
- *Social:* Young Turks pushed for universal suffrage and emancipation of women.

### Russia

- *Political:* Zemstvos (local assemblies) were created. Duma established after Revolution of 1905, but was subject to whim of czar. Czar overthrown in 1917.
- *Economic:* Government sponsored industrialization projects such as the Trans-Siberian Railroad.
- *Social:* Emancipated the serfs in 1861. Students and intelligentsia spread ideas of change in the countryside.

### China

- *Political:* Hundred Days of Reform attempted to create constitutional monarchy but was halted by Empress Cixi. Rebellions like the Taiping and Boxer weakened the empire. Dynasty overthrown in 1911.
- *Economic:* After Opium War, European powers gained economic concessions under the Unequal Treaties and divided China into spheres of influence.
- *Social:* Peasant-led Taiping Rebellion attempted to create a more egalitarian society, but was eventually defeated.

### Japan

- *Political:* Tokugawa Shogunate was overthrown, and the emperor was restored to power. A legislative body, the Diet, was formed.
- *Economic:* Government sponsored massive industrialization and trade. Japan rose to economic prominence.
- *Social:* The old feudal order was disrupted. Samurai class lost power, but some transitioned to roles in industrial leadership. New industrial working class developed.

## INDIA

England's involvement in India began strictly as a business venture. The **British East India Company** enjoyed a monopoly on English trade with India, and it soon took advantage of the Mughal Empire's weakness. Expanding its trading posts, it began to press the British government to outright conquer and protect its interests. It enforced its rule with a small British army and Indian troops, known as **sepoys**. In 1857, the sepoys **mutinied** after they received rifles with cartridges greased in animal fat (cow fat was offensive to Hindus, and pig fat was offensive to Muslims). The sepoys killed British officers, escalating the conflict into a large-scale rebellion. By May 1858, the British government had crushed the rebellion and restored authority. It went on to impose direct imperial rule on India with a viceroy, who served as the representative of British authority. Under British rule, forests were cleared; tea, coffee, and opium began to be cultivated; and railroads, telegraphs, canals, harbors, and irrigation systems were built. English-style schools were set up for Indian elites, and Indian customs such as sati (widow burning) were suppressed. British rule in India helped to create a sense of Indian identity. The elites 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. 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. By the end of the 19th century, 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 reform had become a mass movement.

## AFRICA

From 1875 to 1900, almost the entire continent of Africa was carved up by European nations spurred on by the quest to exploit African resources and outmaneuver their European rivals.

In 1885, **King Leopold II of Belgium** established the Congo Free State. He called it a free-trade zone, but in reality it was his personal colony with rubber plantations supported by forced labor. The labor conditions were harsh—so harsh that they drew the attention of humanitarians who fought to end the treatment. The British gained influence in Egypt in 1882, when they occupied the area to protect their financial interests and the **Suez Canal**. As European competition heated up, the potential for conflict seemed imminent. In response to this rising tension, German Chancellor Otto von Bismarck called the **Berlin Conference** (1884). Delegates (none of which were African) were invited to establish the ground rules for the colonization of Africa; they decided that any European state could establish an African colony after notifying the others.

## JAPAN

Because Japan was so greatly strengthened by government-sponsored industrialization, it too was able to enter the imperialism game. In 1876, the Japanese bought modern warships from the British and went on to defeat Korea easily. In fact, it forced Korea to sign unequal treaties, much like those to which Japan itself had been subjected earlier. The **Sino-Japanese War** (1894) was sparked by a rebellion in Korea. Japan quickly defeated the Chinese fleet, and Korea became a dependency of Japan. China also ceded Taiwan, the Pescadores Islands, and the Liaodong peninsula and was forced to sign unequal treaties. Japan then defeated Russia in the **Russo-Japanese War** (1904) over territory in Manchuria and Korea, solidifying itself as a world player.

## ➤ LEGACIES OF IMPERIALISM

Many economic and social changes occurred throughout the world as a result of imperialism. For one, many countries were transformed into suppliers of raw materials and consumers of imported goods. In India, for instance, the cultivation of cotton became solely used for export to England, and inexpensive English textiles were then imported. India, once the world's leading manufacturer of cotton, 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 freely, though some were **indentured servants**. Migrants from Asia and Africa, on the other hand, were most often indentured servants, and they 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. 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.

The theory of **scientific racism** developed during this period. 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 treatment of colonial peoples. 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 European domination over their subject peoples.

## Emancipation

### SLAVERY

Many 19th-century liberals of the Enlightenment supported the abolition of slavery. Also, economically, slavery became **less profitable**, as protection from slave revolts required an expensive military force. As the price of sugar decreased, its profitability decreased, but the price for slaves increased. Many plantation owners shifted their investments to manufacturing, where wage labor was cheaper. Though a secret slave trade continued through much of the century, the slave trade ended first in Great Britain in 1807 and then in the United States in 1808. (Here, however, the importation of slaves ended but not the trade itself.) The emancipation of the slaves came later, though that took much longer: British colonies in 1833, French colonies in 1848, the United States in 1865, and Brazil in 1888. In many areas, however, property requirements, literacy tests, and poll taxes were imposed to prevent freed slaves from voting, and many individuals were forced to continue with low-paying jobs.

The ending of the slave trade from Africa and the eventual emancipation of slaves in the Americas led to an increase in indentured servitude to replace the slaves. Indentured servants signed a contract giving them transportation to the land where they would work, room and board, and a small wage in return for five to seven years of labor. These indentured servants came from Asian nations like India, Ceylon (now Sri Lanka), the Philippines, China, and Indonesia, which 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 and potential 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. They won very few political rights and had to pay a redemption tax for most of the land they received. Few serfs prospered, and most were desperately poor. Their emancipation led to very little increase in agricultural production, since peasants continued to use traditional methods of farming. It did, however, create a large urban labor force for the industrializing empire.

### CHANGING ROLES OF WOMEN

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 wrote *A Vindication of the Rights of Women*, which argued that women should possess the same rights granted to men (education, for one). In Britain, Canada, and the United States, a reform-minded women's movement became active in the 19th century. Women began to push for the right to vote. These powerful feminist movements 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 Norway became the first country in Europe to grant women the right to vote (1910). Several others followed after World War I, including Great Britain (1918) and the United States (1920).

## ➤ CULTURAL SHIFTS

### African and Asian Influences on European Art

During this time, 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 in Japan. Based on 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 opened up to the industrialization of the West, it was also heavily influenced by the culture of the West. Japanese literature was affected by European models, and writers experimented with Western verse. Architects and artists created large buildings of steel with Greek columns like those seen in the West. Many Japanese also copied Western fashion and hairstyles. Amidst all of these influences, however, Japan also preserved its own values.

## Leisure and Consumption

The industrial age brought higher wages and fewer work hours. These changes gave people new opportunities. The size of 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. Popular newspapers, theaters, and professional sports all became popular in this new era of leisure and consumption.

## The Environment

The Industrial Revolution had significant and long-lasting impacts on the environment. Air and water pollution affected the health of urban areas; there was also an increase in noise pollution. Entire landscapes were destroyed as humans cut down forest timber for railroad ties, stripped hills and mountains for ores, and denuded areas of vegetative cover for farming. Deforestation exacerbated desertification in some areas and flooding and mudslides in others. Mechanical methods of hunting made fishing and whaling more effective with the result that many areas were significantly depleted by the early 20th century and many whale species were in danger of becoming extinct, until the discovery of petroleum products made whale oil less valuable for use as a lubricant. Improved firearms made hunting easier, often with disastrous results as animals like the bison of the North American plains were hunted almost to extinction. The invention of dynamite in 1867 opened the way to more effective removal of earth and stone, particularly for mines and tunnels. Urbanization accelerated, and the human population, about 790 million in 1750, more than doubled to over 1.5 billion by 1914. It was also during this era, however, that concern for the environment, beyond the need to conserve a nation's resources, first developed. 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 humans' impact on the interconnectedness of nature. Scientific methods in medicine and chemistry helped 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 had plagued mankind throughout the centuries.



## Practice Section

### ► COMPARATIVE QUESTION

**Directions:** You are to answer the following question: You should spend five minutes organizing or outlining your essay. Write an essay that:

- Has a relevant thesis and supports that thesis with appropriate historical evidence
- Addresses all parts of the question
- Provides ample historical evidence to substantiate thesis
- Relates comparisons to larger global context
- Discusses change over time
- Makes direct, relevant comparisons
- Analyzes relevant reasons for similarities and differences

Analyze and compare the approaches and resistance to political and economic reform in the 19th century of TWO of the following:

- *China*
- *Japan*
- *Ottoman Empire*
- *Russia*

### ► HOW TO APPROACH THE COMPARATIVE QUESTION

By the last essay of this exam, most students are exhausted. At best, their hands are tired. At worst, they have not managed their time well and have only a few minutes to complete a task that counts for one-sixth of their grade. As a result, the third essay is often the weakest of the group. It does not need to be this way. The comparative question (the COMP) **asks what is the same and what is different**. It requires a task familiar to historians and nonhistorians alike: analyzing similarities and differences.

Unlike the CCOT, which focuses on changes and continuities across time, the COMP focuses on similarities and differences between areas. By the time you reach the COMP, take a deep breath, stretch out your arms, and dive into it with the best that you have. Your handwriting may be messy, but fortunately AP readers are accustomed to reading all sorts of handwriting. Consequently, don't take the time to rewrite an essay to make it look more presentable—an essay cannot earn points for neatness and cannot lose points for sloppiness. Even so, try to make your essay as neat as possible: If you have sloppy handwriting, don't abbreviate words. If you are a poor speller, do not disguise the problem by writing difficult words with a few letters at the beginning and then a scribble. Moreover, don't include too many arrows that point to inserted sentences elsewhere in the essay—they just make the whole essay less readable.

### Organizing Your Essay in Five Minutes

The COMP asks you to analyze a broad historical issue or issues for two areas of the world. Often several areas are listed, and you have a choice. If given a choice, pick those areas about which you know the most facts that relate to the

question. Underlining and note taking are key. Even a few notes jotted down in the green booklet can make your essay more focused. You are being asked for similarities and differences between two areas in politics and economics. Not all COMP questions are this complex. Some might ask you to compare just one aspect. Yet other questions might not provide categories of comparison as this one does with politics and economics. In those cases, you will need to create your own categories of comparison. Think broadly and brainstorm about three aspects for comparison. Good categories for analysis might include economic, social, technological, cultural, intellectual, and artistic aspects.

## Core Point Scoring

The COMP is scored in much the same way as the CCOT—up to 7 basic core points in five task areas. Though the essays are fundamentally different, several of the tasks are the same.

### POINTS TASK

- 1 Has acceptable thesis.
- 2 Addresses all parts of the question.
  - (1) (Addresses most parts of the question.)
- 2 Substantiates thesis with appropriate historical evidence.
  - (1) (Partially substantiates thesis with appropriate historical evidence.)
- 1 Makes at least one or two relevant, direct comparisons between or among societies.
- 1 Analyzes at least one reason for the similarities or differences.
- 7 *Subtotal for all basic core points*
- 2 Possible number of points earned for the expanded core
- 9 *Total possible points for the CCOT*

## Do You Go Beyond the Basic Requirements?

If your essay scores all 7 basic core points, it is eligible for up to 2 expanded core points for excellence. Essays that earn those expanded points may include some or all of the following:

- A clear and analytical thesis
- An abundance of evidence
- Comparisons related to larger global processes
- Clear mention of similarities as well as differences
- Explanations of the reasons the differences and similarities existed
- Frequent and consistent direct comparisons between areas
- Comparisons made within regions in addition to between areas. These indicators show a kind of sophistication that separates the truly great essays from the merely acceptable ones.

### ▶ AP EXPERT TIP

Make sure that the categories you pick for comparisons actually answer the question. A strong essay will have at least four comparisons: two differences and two similarities or any combination of three and one.

## Final Notes on How to Write the COMP

### DO:

- Treat the COMP question with the same degree of focus as the other two essays. All three essays are worth the same number of points.
- Use all of the allotted time.

- Select regions for which you have the most factual information.
- Write a thesis that addresses all aspects of the question.
- Make a checklist of tasks that must be completed.
- Include both similarities and differences between the two areas.
- Use comparative words to join ideas together.
- Write paragraphs in which both areas are discussed together.
- Mention plenty of facts for both areas.

**DON'T:**

- Rewrite complete essays—rarely is the extra time investment worth it.
- Favor one area to the exclusion of the other.
- Mention facts that are not focused on the topic of the question.
- Discuss each area in isolation.

## ➤ COMPARATIVE QUESTION: SAMPLE RESPONSE

During the 19th century, several nations were faced with the need to react to shifts in the industrializing world and were forced to make the necessary political reforms to deal with these changes. Russia and China both attempted to reform their countries, and both combated internal resistance to a totally modern transformation. Russia's government struggled for economic change in the form of government-sponsored industrialization, but resisted most political alterations and, instead, held onto its absolute monarchy. China had some successful attempts at reform and industrialization, but internal rebellions and imperial resistance to change prevented any significant reform from developing. Consequently, by the end of the 1800s, both dynasties were on the edge of revolution.

Economically, Russia was more triumphant at reform than China. The Russian serfs were freed in 1861 in the hopes of establishing an urban working class that would be employed in the developing industrial factories. Under the authority of finance minister Serge Witte, the government worked hard to industrialize Russia by sponsoring such projects as the Trans-Siberian Railroad. Unfortunately, Russia was very far behind the West and much of the government's push towards industrialization led to civil unrest. In China, the conquest of the British in the Opium Wars forced the Qing dynasty to sign a sequence of unequal treaties with European powers, allowing them to establish exclusive trading rights in China and dominate commerce. As a result, the factories and railroads built in China were built and controlled by foreigners, and the Chinese saw little of the profits.

Politically, both Russia and China were opposed to long-lasting change. In Russia, the czar did free the serfs and allowed for the creation of zemstvos, or local assemblies, but any real efforts at curtailing his own power were eluded. After Czar Alexander II was assassinated, the czars who followed were even more oppressive and more unwilling to enact political change. This came to a head during Bloody Sunday in 1905, when a group visited the czar's winter palace to present a petition, but was met with gunfire instead of support. The Revolution of 1905 followed after the czar permitted the creation of a дума, or parliament, but the czar would simply veto this body's decisions if he did not approve of them. China also struggled with political change because of imperial opposition. Additionally, internal rebellions such as the Taiping Rebellion disrupted the country and highlighted the growing chaos and dissatisfaction with the Qing dynasty. The government attempted reforms during the Self-Strengthening movement, but much of these reforms were not really carried out. During the 100 Days of Reform, the emperor of China suggested the establishment of a constitutional monarchy, but he was soon deposed by the Empress



Dowager and his visions of reform were never fulfilled. In 1900, a group called the Boxers rebelled against foreign control in China. The Empress Dowager gave the group her support, hoping they could eliminate foreign influence, but the Qing dynasty was proven politically bankrupt when foreign powers had to squelch the rebellion. By 1911, the last Chinese dynasty was completely overthrown.

The 19th century presented the world with many new economic and political concerns. Those countries that successfully reformed and reacted, both politically and economically, survived and became powerful in the 20th century. Those that could not reform and react, like Russia and China, lost control of their empires politically and economically (and even culturally, to a degree), and were eventually overthrown.

