The Enlightenment ideas that inspired the American and French Revolutions spread quickly to Latin America. In 1791 while the fires of revolution still burned in Paris, African slaves in Haiti revolted against their French colonial rulers. Lesson 1 describes the ensuing 13-year struggle that ended with Haiti’s independence. Revolutionary ideas swept across Spain’s New World empire, inspiring creole leaders to launch their own movements for independence. You will also read about the military campaigns of Simón Bolívar and José de San Martín, the decade-long struggle for independence in Mexico, and the bloodless revolution in Brazil, all of which brought freedom from European rule. By the end of the 1820s, nearly all of Latin America had gained independence. Europe’s New World empires had been reduced to a handful of small colonies.

How do the French, American, and Haitian Revolutions compare to one another?

In 1791 slaves in the French colony of Saint Domingue (present-day Haiti) rose up in revolt against their colonial masters. This uprising would escalate into a full-scale revolution, the third major revolution of the late-18th century. Just two years earlier, the French Revolution erupted in Paris. Before that, in 1775, the American Revolution ignited a war between Britain and its American colonists. Saint Domingue was the first Latin American colony to gain independence. Haitian independence resulted in the abolition of slavery in the former French colony. All three revolutions challenged the prevailing imperial structures and aristocratic hierarchies of the day. Revolutionaries sought to replace absolute monarchy and traditional aristocratic privilege with representative government, rule of law, and natural rights.

The leaders of these three revolutions were inspired by earlier ideas and political principles from the Enlightenment. John Locke’s concepts of natural rights inspired the language of the U.S. Declaration of Independence and the French Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen. Montesquieu’s idea of separation of powers influenced the founding documents of both revolutions. The Glorious Revolution in England in 1688 established the concept of a monarch’s powers being limited by Parliament. The following year this revolution produced the English Bill of Rights, which set forth basic liberties guaranteed to citizens. These English political ideas would inspire American revolutionaries a century later. Many provisions of the English Bill of Rights were incorporated into the U.S. Constitution and Bill of Rights. These same concepts and ideas inspired the enslaved people of Saint Domingue to revolt in the 1790s. The creole revolts in the early 1800s were influenced by many young, wealthy, European-educated creoles, who had read the writings of the Enlightenment.

With common sources of inspiration and influence, the American, French, and Haitian Revolutions had many similarities. There were, however, important differences between the three movements. The American Revolution, for example, was not a true social revolution. White, colonial elites retained political and social power in the new independent government. Slavery remained in place as a recognized institution in the U.S. Constitution. Women, African Americans, and people without property had few political rights. The French Revolution brought a more far-reaching social transformation to the country. Efforts were made to extend rights to women, the poor, and racial outcasts. The radical turn of the revolution, however, escalated violence to the point of chaos. This bloody descent ended with France under dictatorship and nearly two decades of war with the powers of Europe. Haiti’s revolution represented a more complete transformation. The slaves of the colony rose up and overthrew the plantation system, organizing themselves into a military and political movement. They not only gained independence from a European power, but they also overthrew the institution of slavery in the country. In this way the second republican experiment in the New World went further than the first.

How is national identity constructed?

In the wake of Napoleon’s final defeat in 1815, only France, England, and Spain could properly be considered nation-states. As you will read in Lesson 2, this situation would soon change. Conservatives, liberals, and radicals dominated the political debates in Europe at this time, supporting monarchical, parliamentary, and pure democratic or even anarchistic political ideals. By the 1820s nationalism blurred the lines between these rival philosophies in favor of loyalties not to a king or an empire but to a nation of people with a common history and culture. The idea of a nation-state grew to represent the territory surrounding these people with common connections, and the role of the state and the government was to represent and defend this territory and the people in it. Thus people began identifying themselves as part of their own nation-states. The bonds that create national identity, such as language, religion, and territory, are further described in the lesson’s “Analyze Key Concepts” diagram. In Lesson 3 you will read about the various types of nationalist movements: unification, separation, and state-building.

Nationalism proved especially popular among liberals and radicals in the first half of the 19th century. Lesson 2
The Rights and Responsibilities of Citizens

Nationalism emerged as a powerful movement in Europe in the 1800s. People began emphasizing their bonds, including a common ethnicity and culture, a common past, religion, language, and territory. Europeans who shared these connections started forging national identities. The expansion of transportation networks and the growth of newspapers accelerated this process. By the mid-1800s organized campaigns to create independent states gained momentum. Nationalist movements inspired groups within larger empires to campaign for independence. In the 1830s nationalism sparked riots among the Belgians, Italians, and Poles, but these movements failed to gain self-rule. In 1848, as you will learn in Lesson 2, liberal nationalists staged a series of ethnic uprisings across Europe. In France, for example, nationalist sentiments were viewed as a force of disunity by those wishing to restore the old order. However, conservative governments began to see nationalism as a possible unifying force for building nation-states.

As the movements grew, Europeans debated whether nationalism was a force for unity or disunity. Lesson 3 describes these contrasting manifestations of nationalism in the 1800s. By stirring ethnic loyalties among Ukrainians, Poles, Lithuanians, and other groups, nationalism weakened the Romanov dynasty’s hold on the Russian Empire. Austria’s monarchy faced similar challenges from independence movements by Hungarians, Czechs, Slovaks, Serbs, and other ethnic groups within its empire. Nationalism also created growing tensions among the diverse peoples in the Ottoman Empire. On the other hand, nationalism brought Europeans together in two major campaigns in the 19th century. As you will read in Lesson 3, Italians threw off foreign rule and formed the united Kingdom of Italy. Following the lead of Prussia’s conservative government, the German states joined together into the powerful nation of Germany.

ACTIVITY

Create a Nation Chart

Nationalism redrew the map of Europe in the 19th century. Following the Napoleonic Wars, Italy was divided into several different states, some of which were territories of other empires. In the 1850s and 1860s, Italian nationalists launched a campaign that drove foreign powers from the Italian provinces and joined the states together into a unified Italy. To the north, Prussian Prime Minister Otto von Bismarck used shrewd political tactics and strategic wars to stir nationalist sentiment among German peoples in different states. Following Prussia’s victory over France in 1871, the remaining independent German states accepted Prussian leadership in forming a united Germany.

Your task is to create a chart comparing and contrasting the unification of Italy and the unification of Germany.

1. Researching Italy’s Emergence as a Nation-State Use your textbook, the Internet, and library resources to research Italy’s path to becoming a unified nation-state. Take note of the key leaders, major events, important alliances, and military actions that led to unification. Also consider why certain states or groups of people joined the Italian state and others did not.

2. Researching Germany’s Emergence as a Nation-State Use your textbook, the Internet, and library resources to research Germany’s path to becoming a unified nation-state. Take note of the key leaders, major events, important alliances, and military actions that led to unification. Also consider why certain states or groups of people joined the German state and others did not.

3. Creating the Chart Create a chart comparing Italian unification with German unification. Include rows or columns for the different factors listed in the previous steps. Make sure your chart highlights the similarities and differences between Italy’s process and Germany’s process of becoming unified nation-states.
Essential Question
What great shifts in thinking inspired revolutions in politics and the arts worldwide?

In this module you will learn that nationalist revolutions, inspired by Enlightenment ideas, swept through Latin America and Europe.

10.1.2 Trace the development of the Western political ideas of the rule of law and illegitimacy of tyranny, using selections from Plato's *Republic* and Aristotle's *Politics*. 10.2.1 Compare the major ideas of philosophers and their effects on the democratic revolutions in England, the United States, France, and Latin America (e.g., John Locke, Charles-Louis Montesquieu, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, Simon Bolivar, Thomas Jefferson, James Madison). 10.2.3 Understand the unique character of the American Revolution, its spread to other parts of the world, and its continuing significance to other nations. 10.2.5 Discuss how nationalism spread across Europe with Napoleon but was repressed for a generation under the Congress of Vienna and Concert of Europe until the Revolutions of 1848. 10.3.7 Describe the emergence of Romanticism in art and literature (e.g., the poetry of William Blake and William Wordsworth), social criticism (e.g., the novels of Charles Dickens), and the move away from Classicism in Europe. 10.4.4 Describe the independence struggles of the colonized regions of the world, including the roles of leaders, such as Sun Yat-sen in China, and the roles of ideology and religion.

CST.2 Students analyze how change happens at different rates at different times; understand that some aspects can change while others remain the same; and understand that change is complicated and affects not only technology and politics but also values and beliefs. HREP.3 Students evaluate major debates among historians concerning alternative interpretations of the past, including an analysis of authors’ use of evidence and the distinctions between sound generalizations and misleading oversimplifications. HREP.4 Students construct and test hypotheses; collect, evaluate, and employ information from multiple primary and secondary sources; and apply it in oral and written presentations. HI.1 Students show the connections, causal and otherwise, between particular historical events and larger social, economic, and political trends and developments.
Timeline of Events 1800–1900

**Latin America and Europe**

- **1804** Haiti wins freedom from France.
- **1810** Father Hidalgo calls for Mexican independence.
- **1815** British government exiles Napoleon to a remote island in the Atlantic.
- **1816** Argentina declares its independence.
- **1824** Spanish colonies in Latin America (called Gran Colombia) win freedom.
- **1837** Louis Daguerre perfects a method for photography.
- **1848** Revolts shake Europe.
- **1861** Alexander II frees serfs in Russia.
- **1863** Lincoln’s Emancipation Proclamation frees enslaved people in Confederate states.
- **1869** Suez Canal is completed.
- **1870** Italy unites.
- **1871** Wilhelm I becomes kaiser of united Germany.
- **1881** Alexander II is assassinated.
- **1884–1885** Berlin Conference divides Africa among European nations.

**World**

- **1804** Napoleon becomes emperor.
- **1804** Haiti wins freedom from France.
- **1815** British government exiles Napoleon to a remote island in the Atlantic.
- **1816** Argentina declares its independence.
- **1824** Spanish colonies in Latin America (called Gran Colombia) win freedom.
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- **1871** Wilhelm I becomes kaiser of united Germany.
- **1881** Alexander II is assassinated.
- **1884–1885** Berlin Conference divides Africa among European nations.
The Big Idea
Spurred by discontent and Enlightenment ideas, people in Latin America fought colonial rule.

Why It Matters Now
Sixteen of today’s Latin American nations gained their independence at this time.

Key Terms and People
peninsular
creole
mulatto
Simón Bolívar
José de San Martín
Miguel Hidalgo
José María Morelos

Setting the Stage
The successful American Revolution, the French Revolution, and the Enlightenment changed ideas about who should control government. Ideas of liberty, equality, and democratic rule found their way across the seas to European colonies. In Latin America, most of the population resented the domination of European colonial powers. The time seemed right for the people who lived there to sweep away old colonial masters and gain control of the land.

Colonial Society Divided
In Latin American colonial society, class dictated people’s place in society and jobs. At the top of Spanish-American society were the *peninsulares* (peh•neen•soo•LAH•rehs), people who had been born in Spain, which is on the Iberian peninsula. They formed a tiny percentage of the population. Only *peninsulares* could hold high office in Spanish colonial government. *Creoles*, Spaniards born in Latin America, were below the *peninsulares* in rank. Creoles could not hold high-level political office, but they could rise as officers in Spanish colonial armies. Together these two groups controlled land, wealth, and power in the Spanish colonies.

Below the *peninsulares* and creoles came the *mestizos*, persons of mixed European and Indian ancestry. Next were the *mulattos*, persons of mixed European and African ancestry, and enslaved Africans. Indians were at the bottom of the social ladder.

Revolutions in the Americas
By the late 1700s, colonists in Latin America, already aware of Enlightenment ideas, were electrified by the news of the American and French Revolutions. The success of the American Revolution encouraged them to try to gain freedom from their European masters.
The Divisions in Spanish Colonial Society, 1789

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Population Group</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Europeans</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peninsulares</td>
<td>(22.9%)</td>
<td>3,223,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creoles</td>
<td>(22.9%)</td>
<td>3,223,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mulattos</td>
<td>(7.6%)</td>
<td>1,072,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africans</td>
<td>(6.4%)</td>
<td>902,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indians</td>
<td>(55.8%)</td>
<td>7,860,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mestizos</td>
<td>(7.3%)</td>
<td>1,034,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>14,091,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Colonial Spanish America, by Leslie Bethell

Interpret Graphs
1. Synthesize Which two groups made up the vast majority of the population in Spanish America?
2. Make Inferences Of the Europeans, which group—peninsulares or creoles—probably made up a larger percentage?

Revolution in Haiti  The French colony called Saint Domingue was the first Latin American territory to free itself from European rule. The colony, now known as Haiti, occupied the western third of the island of Hispaniola in the Caribbean Sea.

Nearly 500,000 enslaved Africans worked on French plantations, and they outnumbered their masters dramatically. White masters used brutal methods to terrorize them and keep them powerless.

While the French Revolution was taking place, oppressed people in the French colony of Haiti rose up against their French masters. In August 1791, 100,000 enslaved Africans rose in revolt. A leader soon emerged, Toussaint Louverture (too•SAN-loo•vair•TOOR). Formerly enslaved, Toussaint was unfamiliar with military and diplomatic matters. Even so, he rose to become a skilled general and diplomat. By 1801, Toussaint had taken control of the entire island and freed all the enslaved Africans.

In January 1802, 30,000 French troops landed in Saint Domingue to remove Toussaint from power. In May, Toussaint agreed to halt the revolution if the French would end slavery. Despite the agreement, the French soon accused him of planning another uprising. They seized him and sent him to a prison in the French Alps, where he died in April 1803.
Haiti’s Independence  Toussaint’s lieutenant, Jean Jacques Dessalines (zhahn-ZHAHK-day•sah•LEEN), took up the fight for freedom. On January 1, 1804, General Dessalines declared the colony an independent country. It was the first black colony to free itself from European control. Dessalines called the country Haiti, which in the language of the Arawak natives meant “mountainous land.”

Creoles Lead Independence

Even though they could not hold high public office, creoles were the least oppressed of those born in Latin America. They were also the best educated. In fact, many wealthy young creoles traveled to Europe for their education. In Europe, they read about and adopted Enlightenment ideas. When they returned to Latin America, they brought ideas of revolution with them.

Napoleon’s conquest of Spain in 1808 triggered revolts in the Spanish colonies. Removing Spain’s King Ferdinand VII, Napoleon made his brother Joseph king of Spain. Many creoles might have supported a Spanish king. However, they felt no loyalty to a king imposed by the French. Creoles, recalling Locke’s idea of the consent of the governed, argued that when the real king was removed, power shifted to the people. In 1810, rebellion broke out in several parts of Latin America. The drive toward independence had begun.

The South American wars of independence rested on the achievements of two brilliant creole generals. One was Simón Bolívar (see•MAWN-boh•LEE•vaahr), a wealthy Venezuelan creole. The other great liberator was José de San Martín (hoh•SAY-day-san-mahr•TEEN), an Argentinian.
Bolívar’s Route to Victory  Simón Bolívar’s native Venezuela declared its independence from Spain in 1811. But the struggle for independence had only begun. Bolívar’s volunteer army of revolutionaries suffered numerous defeats. Twice Bolívar had to go into exile. A turning point came in August 1819. Bolívar led over 2,000 soldiers on a daring march through the Andes into what is now Colombia. (See map, “Latin America, 1830.”) Coming from this direction, he took the Spanish army in Bogotá completely by surprise and won a decisive victory.

By 1821, Bolívar had won Venezuela’s independence. He then marched south into Ecuador. In Ecuador, Bolívar finally met José de San Martín. Together they would decide the future of the Latin American revolutionary movement.

San Martín Leads Southern Liberation Forces  San Martín’s Argentina had declared its independence in 1816. However, Spanish forces in nearby Chile and Peru still posed a threat. In 1817, San Martín led an army on a grueling march across the Andes to Chile. He was joined there by forces led by Bernardo O’Higgins, son of a former viceroy of Peru. With O’Higgins’s help, San Martín finally freed Chile.

Analyze Historical Sources
Why did Bolívar believe that South Americans were not ready for a republican form of government?

Simón Bolívar
“The Jamaica Letter” is one of Simón Bolivar’s most important political documents. In this excerpt, he discussed his political goals for South America after the revolution—and his fear that South Americans were not ready to achieve those goals.

“The role of the inhabitants of the American hemisphere has for centuries been purely passive. Politically they were non-existent. . . . We have been harassed by a conduct which has not only deprived us of our rights but has kept us in a sort of permanent infancy with regard to public affairs. . . . Americans today, and perhaps to a greater extent than ever before, who live within the Spanish system occupy a position in society no better than that of serfs destined for labor. . . . Although I seek perfection for the government of my country, I cannot persuade myself that the New World can, at the moment, be organized as a great republic.”

—Simón Bolívar, from “The Jamaica Letter”
Struggling Toward Democracy

Revolutions are as much a matter of ideas as they are of weapons. Simón Bolívar, the hero of Latin American independence, was both a thinker and a fighter. By 1800, Enlightenment ideas spread widely across the Latin American colonies. Bolívar combined Enlightenment political ideas, ideas from Greece and Rome, and his own original thinking. The result was a system of democratic ideas that would help spark revolutions throughout Latin America.

Enlightenment Ideas Spread to Latin America, 1789–1810

1. Bolívar’s 1807 return from Europe by way of the United States allowed him to study the American system of government.

2. In 1810, Bolívar went to London to seek support for the revolution in Latin America. At the same time, he studied British institutions of government.

After winning South American independence, Simón Bolívar realized his dream of Gran Colombia, a sort of United States of South America.

Critical Thinking

1. **Make Inferences** How are Enlightenment thoughts and the successes of the American and French Revolutions reflected in Bolívar’s thinking?

2. **Compare** What recent events in today’s world are similar to Simón Bolívar’s movement for Latin American independence?
In 1821, San Martín planned to drive the remaining Spanish forces out of Lima, Peru. But to do so, he needed a much larger force. San Martín and Bolívar discussed this when they met at Guayaquil, Ecuador, in 1822.

No one knows how the two men reached an agreement. But San Martín left his army for Bolívar to command. With unified revolutionary forces, Bolívar’s army went on to defeat the Spanish at the Battle of Ayacucho (Peru) on December 9, 1824. In this last major battle of the war for independence, the Spanish colonies in Latin America won their freedom. The future countries of Venezuela, Colombia, Panama, and Ecuador were united into a country called Gran Colombia.

**Mexico Ends Spanish Rule**

In most Latin American countries, creoles led the revolutionary movements. But in Mexico, ethnic and racial groups mixed more freely. There, Indians and mestizos played the leading role.

**A Cry for Freedom**

In 1810, Father Miguel Hidalgo (mee•GEHL•ee•DAHL•goh), a priest in the small village of Dolores, took the first step toward independence. Hidalgo was a poor but well-educated man. He firmly believed in Enlightenment ideals. On September 16, 1810, he rang the bells of his village church. When the peasants gathered in the church, he issued a call for rebellion against the Spanish. Today, that call is known as the *grito de Dolores* (the cry of Dolores).

The very next day, Hidalgo’s Indian and mestizo followers began a march toward Mexico City. This unruly army soon numbered 80,000 men. The uprising of the lower classes alarmed the Spanish army and creoles, who feared the loss of their property, control of the land, and their lives. The army defeated Hidalgo in 1811. The rebels then rallied around another strong leader, Padre José María Morelos (moh•RAY•lohs). Morelos led the revolution for four years. However, in 1815, a creole officer, Agustín de Iturbide (ah•goos•TEEN•day•ee•toor•BEE•day), defeated him.

**Mexico’s Independence**

Events in Mexico took yet another turn in 1820 when a revolution in Spain put a liberal group in power there. Mexico’s creoles feared the loss of their privileges in the Spanish-controlled colony. So they united in support of Mexico’s independence from Spain. Ironically, Agustín de Iturbide—the man who had defeated the rebel Padre Morelos—proclaimed independence in 1821.

Before the Mexican revolution, Central America was part of the viceroyalty of New Spain. It had been governed by the Spanish from the seat of colonial government in Mexico. In 1821, several Central American states declared their independence from Spain—and from Mexico as well. However, Iturbide (who had declared himself emperor), refused to recognize the declarations of independence. Iturbide was finally overthrown in 1823. Central America then declared its absolute independence from Mexico. It took the name United Provinces of Central America. The future countries of Nicaragua, Guatemala, Honduras, El Salvador, and Costa Rica would develop in this region.
Symbolizing a Nation’s Values
Artists can encourage national pride through the use of symbols.

**Botswana**
Industry and livestock are connected by water, the key to the nation’s prosperity. *Pula* in the Setswana language means “rain.” But to a Setswana speaker, it is also a common greeting meaning “luck, life, and prosperity.”

**Austria**
The eagle was the symbol of the old Austrian Empire. The shield goes back to medieval times. The hammer and sickle symbolize agriculture and industry. The broken chains celebrate Austria’s liberation from Germany at the end of World War II.

**United States**
The 13 original colonies are symbolized in the stars, stripes, leaves, and arrows. The Latin phrase *E pluribus unum* means “Out of many, one,” expressing unity of the states. The American bald eagle holds an olive branch and arrows, which symbolize a desire for peace but a readiness for war.

**Analyze Historical Sources**
1. What role do symbols play in expressing a nation’s view of itself and the world?
2. How do artists encourage national pride?
Brazil’s Royal Liberator

Brazil’s quest for independence was unique in this period of Latin American history because it occurred without violent upheavals or widespread bloodshed. In fact, a member of the Portuguese royal family actually played a key role in freeing Brazil from Portugal.

In 1807, Napoleon’s armies invaded both Spain and Portugal. Napoleon’s aim was to close the ports of these countries to British shipping. As French troops approached Lisbon, the Portuguese capital, Prince John (later King John VI) and the royal family boarded ships to escape capture. They took their court and royal treasury to Portugal’s largest colony, Brazil. Rio de Janeiro became the capital of the Portuguese empire. For 14 years, the Portuguese ran their empire from Brazil. Napoleon was defeated in 1815, and six years later King John and the Portuguese government returned to Portugal. Dom Pedro, King John’s son, stayed behind in Brazil.
King John planned to make Brazil a colony again. However, many Brazilians could not accept a return to colonial status. In 1822, creoles demanded Brazil’s independence from Portugal. Eight thousand Brazilians signed a petition asking Dom Pedro to rule. He agreed. On September 7, 1822, he officially declared Brazil’s independence. Brazil had won its independence in a bloodless revolution.

Meanwhile, the ideas of the French Revolution and the aftermath of the Napoleonic Wars were causing upheaval in Europe, as you will learn next.

### Lesson 1 Assessment

1. **Organize Information** Make a table. Which independence movement was led by Toussaint Louverture?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Who</th>
<th>Where</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>When</td>
<td>Why</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. **Key Terms and People** For each key term or person in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. **Compare and Contrast** Compare and contrast the leadership of the South American revolutions to the leadership of Mexico’s revolution.

4. **Form Opinions** Would creole revolutionaries tend to be democratic or authoritarian leaders? Explain.

5. **Analyze Causes** How were events in Europe related to the revolutions in Latin America?
Europe Faces Revolutions

The Big Idea
Liberal and nationalist uprisings challenged the old conservative order of Europe.

Why It Matters Now
The system of nation-states established in Europe during this period continues today.

Key Terms and People
conservative
liberal
radical
anarchism
nationalism
nation-state
Balkans
Louis-Napoleon
Alexander II

Setting the Stage
As revolutions shook the colonies in Latin America, Europe was also undergoing dramatic changes. Under the leadership of Prince Metternich of Austria, the Congress of Vienna had tried to restore the old monarchies and territorial divisions that had existed before the French Revolution. On an international level, this attempt to turn back history succeeded. For the next century, European countries seldom turned to war to solve their differences. Within countries, however, the effort failed. Revolutions erupted across Europe between 1815 and 1848.

Clash of Philosophies
In the first half of the 1800s, three schools of political thought struggled for supremacy in European societies. Each believed that its style of government would best serve the people. Each attracted a different set of followers. The following list identifies the philosophies, goals, and followers.

- **Conservative**: usually wealthy property owners and nobility. They argued for protecting the traditional monarchies of Europe.
- **Liberal**: mostly middle-class business leaders and merchants. They wanted to give more power to elected parliaments, but only the educated and the landowners would vote.
- **Radical**: favored drastic change to extend democracy to all people. They believed that governments should practice the ideals of the French Revolution—liberty, equality, and brotherhood. Some radicals believed in **anarchism**—a belief that government is harmful and not needed.

Reading Check
Make Inferences
How can people have such different philosophies?
Nationalism Develops

As conservatives, liberals, and radicals debated issues of government, a new movement called **nationalism** emerged. Nationalism is the belief that people's greatest loyalty should not be to a king or an empire but to a nation of people who share a common culture and history. The nationalist movement would blur the lines that separated the three political theories.

When a nation had its own independent government, it became a nation-state. A nation-state defends the nation's territory and way of life, and it represents the nation to the rest of the world. In Europe in 1815, only France, England, and Spain could be called nation-states. But soon that would change as nationalist movements achieved success.

Most of the people who believed in nationalism were either liberals or radicals. In most cases, the liberal middle class—teachers, lawyers, and businesspeople—led the struggle for constitutional government and the formation of nation-states. In Germany, for example, liberals wanted to gather the many different German states into a single nation-state. Other liberals in large empires, such as the Hungarians in the Austrian Empire, wanted to split away and establish self-rule.

Nationalists Challenge Conservative Power

Beginning in 1820, revolutions swept across Europe. Revolutions occurred in Spain, Portugal, Russia, and Italy that led to constitutional monarchies. In Greece, revolts led to Greek independence.

The first people to win self-rule during this period were the Greeks. For centuries, Greece had been part of the Ottoman Empire. The Ottomans controlled most of the **Balkans**. That region includes all or part of present-day Greece, Albania, Bulgaria, Romania, Turkey, and the former Yugoslavia. Greeks, however, had kept alive the memory of their ancient history and culture. Spurred on by the nationalist spirit, they demanded independence and rebelled against the Ottoman Turks in 1821.

**Greeks Gain Independence** The most powerful European governments opposed revolution. However, the cause of Greek independence was popular with people around the world. Russians, for example, felt a connection to Greek Orthodox Christians, who were ruled by the Muslim Ottomans. Educated Europeans and Americans loved and respected ancient Greek culture.
Nationalism

Nationalism—the belief that people should be loyal to their nation—was not widespread until the 1800s. The rise of modern nationalism is tied to the spread of democratic ideas and the growth of an educated middle class. People wanted to decide how they were governed.

Bonds That Create a Nation-State

- **Culture**: a shared way of life (food, dress, behavior, ideals)
- **History**: a common past; common experiences
- **Religion**: a religion shared by all or most of the people
- **Territory**: a certain territory that belongs to the ethnic group; its “land”
- **Language**: different dialects of one language; one dialect becomes “national language”
- **Nationality**: belief in common ethnic ancestry that may or may not be true
- **Bonds That Create a Nation-State**

Positive and Negative Results of Nationalism

Nationalism has not always been a positive influence. For example, strong nationalistic feelings sometimes lead a group to turn against outsiders. The chart lists positive and negative results of nationalism. Note how some results, such as competition, can be both positive and negative.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive Results</th>
<th>Negative Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>People within a nation overcoming differences for the common good</td>
<td>Forced assimilation of minority cultures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The overthrow of colonial rule</td>
<td>Ethnic cleansing, such as in Bosnia and Herzegovina in the 1990s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democratic governments in nations worldwide</td>
<td>The rise of extreme nationalistic movements, such as Nazism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competition among nations spurring scientific and technological advances</td>
<td>Competition between nations leading to warfare</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Critical Thinking

1. **Form Opinions** Do you think nationalism has had more of a positive or negative impact on the world? Explain.

2. **Compare and Contrast** Which of the bonds used to create nation-states are found in the United States?
Eventually, as popular support for Greece grew, the powerful nations of Europe took the side of the Greeks. In 1827, a combined British, French, and Russian fleet destroyed the Ottoman fleet at the Battle of Navarino. In 1830, Britain, France, and Russia signed a treaty guaranteeing an independent kingdom of Greece.

1830s Uprisings Crushed  By the 1830s, the old order, carefully arranged at the Congress of Vienna, was breaking down. Revolutionary zeal swept across Europe. Liberals and nationalists throughout Europe were openly revolting against conservative governments. Nationalist riots broke out against Dutch rule in the Belgian city of Brussels. In October 1830, the Belgians declared their independence from Dutch control. In Italy, nationalists worked to unite the many separate states on the Italian peninsula. Some were independent. Others were ruled by Austria, or by the pope. Eventually, Prince Metternich sent Austrian troops to restore order in Italy. The Poles living under the rule of Russia staged a revolt in Warsaw in late 1830. Russian armies took nearly an entire year to crush the Polish uprising. By the mid-1830s, the old order seemed to have reestablished itself. But the appearance of stability did not last long.

1848 Revolutions Fail to Unite  In 1848, ethnic uprisings erupted throughout Europe. After an unruly mob in Vienna clashed with police, Metternich resigned and liberal uprisings broke out throughout the Austrian empire. In Budapest, nationalist leader Louis Kossuth called for a parliament and self-government for Hungary. Meanwhile in Prague, Czech liberals demanded Bohemian independence.
European politics continued to seesaw. Many liberal gains were lost to conservatives within a year. In one country after another, the revolutionaries failed to unite themselves or their nations. Conservatives regained their nerve and their power. By 1849, Europe had practically returned to the conservatism that had controlled governments before 1848. These revolutions failed to achieve their nationalist and democratic objectives.

Radicals Change France

Radicals participated in many of the 1848 revolts. Only in France, however, was the radical demand for democratic government the main goal of revolution. In 1830, France’s King Charles X tried to stage a return to absolute monarchy. The attempt sparked riots that forced Charles to flee to Great Britain. He was replaced by Louis-Philippe, who had long supported liberal reforms in France.

The Third Republic

However, in 1848, after a reign of almost 18 years, Louis-Philippe fell from popular favor. Once again, a Paris mob overthrew a monarchy and established a republic. The new republican government began to fall apart almost immediately. The radicals split into factions. One side wanted only political reform. The other side also wanted social and economic reform that would close up the differences in wealth between the “haves” and “have nots.” The two sides set off bloody battles in Parisian streets. The violence turned French citizens away from the radicals. As a result, a moderate constitution was drawn up later in 1848. It called for a parliament and a strong president to be elected by the people.
Nationalistic Music
As the force of nationalism began to rise in Europe, ethnic groups recognized their music as a unique element of their culture. Composers used folk melodies in their works. For example, Czech composer Antonin Dvořák (DVAWR•zhahk), pictured, and the Norwegian composer Edvard Grieg incorporated popular melodies and legends into their works. These works became a source of pride and further encouraged the sense of nationalism. Richard Wagner created a cycle of four musical dramas called Der Ring des Nibelungen. His operas are considered the pinnacle of German nationalism.

France Accepts a Strong Ruler  In December 1848, Louis-Napoleon, the nephew of Napoleon Bonaparte, won the presidential election. Four years later, Louis-Napoleon Bonaparte took the title of Emperor Napoleon III. A majority of French voters accepted this action without complaint. The French were weary of instability. They welcomed a strong ruler who would bring peace to France.

As France's emperor, Louis-Napoleon built railroads, encouraged industrialization, and promoted an ambitious program of public works. Gradually, because of Louis-Napoleon’s policies, unemployment decreased in France, and the country experienced real prosperity.

Reform in Russia
Unlike France, Russia in the 1800s had yet to leap into the modern industrialized world. Under Russia’s feudal system, serfs were bound to the nobles whose land they worked. Nobles enjoyed almost unlimited power over them. By the 1820s, many Russians believed that serfdom must end. In their eyes, the system was morally wrong. It also prevented the empire from advancing economically. The czars, however, were reluctant to free the serfs. Freeing them would anger the landowners, whose support the czars needed to stay in power.

Defeat Brings Change  Eventually, Russia’s lack of development became obvious to Russians and to the whole world. In 1853, Czar Nicholas I threatened to take over part of the Ottoman Empire in the Crimean War. However, Russia’s industries failed to provide adequate supplies for the country’s troops. As a result, in 1856, Russia lost the war against the combined forces of France, Great Britain, Sardinia, and the Ottoman Empire.

After the war, Nicholas’s son, Alexander II, decided to move Russia toward modernization and social change. Alexander and his advisers believed that his reforms would allow Russia to compete with western Europe for world power.
History in Depth

Emancipation

In 1861, on the day before Abraham Lincoln became president of the United States, Czar Alexander II issued the Edict of Emancipation, freeing 20 million serfs. Less than two years later, President Lincoln issued the Emancipation Proclamation, freeing enslaved peoples living under the Confederacy.

The emancipation edicts did not entirely fulfill the hopes of Russian serfs or former slaves in the United States. Russian peasant communities, like the one pictured, were still tied to the land. And Lincoln did not free enslaved people in the border states.

Reform and Reaction

The first and boldest of Alexander’s reforms was a decree freeing the serfs in 1861. The abolition of serfdom, however, went only halfway. Peasant communities—rather than individual peasants—received about half the farmland in the country. Nobles kept the other half. The government paid the nobles for their land. Each peasant community, on the other hand, had 49 years to pay the government for the land it had received. So, while the serfs were legally free, the debt still tied them to the land.

Political and social reforms ground to a halt when terrorists assassinated Alexander II in 1881. His successor, Alexander III, tightened czarist control over the country. Alexander III and his ministers, however, encouraged industrial development to expand Russia’s power. A major force behind Russia’s drive toward industrial expansion was nationalism. Nationalism also stirred other ethnic groups. During the 1800s, such groups were uniting into nations and building industries to survive among other nation-states.

Lesson 2 Assessment

1. Organize Information Make a web. Why did most of the revolts fail?

2. Key Terms and People For each key term or person in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. Make Inferences Why might liberals and radicals join together in a nationalist cause?

4. Draw Conclusions Why did some liberals disapprove of the way Louis-Napoleon ruled France after the uprisings of 1848?

5. Evaluate What consequences did Alexander’s reforms have on Russia?
Revolution Around the World

Each of the revolutions you studied had political, economic, and social causes, as shown in the tables. Use the table below to understand the causes of revolutions more fully.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Causes of Revolutions</th>
<th>England</th>
<th>North America</th>
<th>France</th>
<th>Latin America</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Political</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>King claimed divine right.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Colonists accused British leaders of tyranny.</td>
<td>Third Estate wanted greater representation.</td>
<td>French Revolution inspired political ideas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>King dissolved Parliament.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Colonists demanded the same rights as English citizens.</td>
<td>Louis XVI was a weak ruler.</td>
<td>Royal officials committed injustices.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Economic</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>King wanted money for wars.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Britain expected colonies to pay for defense.</td>
<td>Wars and royal extravagance created debt.</td>
<td>Peninsulares and creoles controlled wealth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>King levied taxes and fines without Parliament’s approval.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Colonies opposed taxation without representation.</td>
<td>Inflation and famine</td>
<td>Lower classes toiled as peasants with little income or as slaves.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Peasants paid high taxes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Social</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Early Stuart kings refused to make Puritan reforms.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Colonists began to identify as Americans.</td>
<td>Third Estate resented the First and Second estates’ privileges.</td>
<td>Only peninsulares and creoles had power.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Interpret Tables**

1. **Analyze Causes**  What was the most frequent political cause of revolution? economic cause? social cause?
2. **Contrast** How did the causes of the revolutions in Latin America differ from those of the other three revolutions?
Use the table below to understand the effects of revolution more fully.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effects of Revolutions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Political</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>England</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constitutional monarchy established.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Bill of Rights guaranteed rights.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overthrow of monarch inspired American revolutionaries.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Economic</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Social</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>England remained Protestant.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Interpret Tables**

1. **Contrast** Which revolutions had positive economic effects, and which had negative? Explain.
2. **Analyze Effects** What common political effect did the revolutions in North America and Latin America achieve?

**Historical Source**

**Thomas Paine**

In this excerpt from the pamphlet *Common Sense*, Thomas Paine described the ideal government he wanted to see set up after the American Revolution.

"But where, say some, is the king of America? I’ll tell you, friend, . . . in America THE LAW IS KING. For as in absolute governments the king is law, so in free countries the law ought to BE king, and there ought to be no other."

**Analyze Historical Sources**

What did Paine believe should be the highest power in a new American government?
Nationalism

Setting the Stage

Nationalism was the most powerful idea of the 1800s. Its influence stretched throughout Europe and the Americas. It shaped countries by creating new ones or breaking up old ones. In Europe, it also upset the balance of power set up at the Congress of Vienna in 1815, affecting the lives of millions. Empires in Europe were made up of many different groups of people. Nationalism fed the desire of most of those groups to be free of the rule of empires and govern themselves in their traditional lands.

Nationalism: A Force for Unity or Disunity

During the 1800s, nationalism fueled efforts to build nation-states. Nationalists were not loyal to kings, but to their people—to those who shared common bonds. Nationalists believed that people of a single “nationality,” or ancestry, should unite under a single government. However, people who wanted to restore the old order from before the French Revolution saw nationalism as a force for disunity.

Types of Nationalist Movements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unification</td>
<td>Mergers of politically divided but culturally similar lands</td>
<td>19th-century Germany</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>19th-century Germany</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separation</td>
<td>Culturally distinct group resists being added to a state or tries to break away</td>
<td>Greeks in the Ottoman Empire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State-building</td>
<td>Culturally distinct groups form into a new state by accepting a single culture</td>
<td>United States</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Turkey</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Interpret Charts

1. **Categorize** What types of nationalist movements can evolve in lands with culturally distinct groups?
2. **Draw Conclusions** What must be present for state-building to take place?
Gradually, authoritarian rulers saw that nationalism could also unify people. They began to use nationalist feelings for their purposes. They built nation-states in areas where they remained in control.

In the table titled, “Types of Nationalist Movements,” you can see three types of nationalist movements. In today’s world, groups still use the spirit of nationalism to unify, separate, or build up nation-states.

**Nationalism Shakes Aging Empires**

Three aging empires—the Austrian Empire of the Hapsburgs, the Russian Empire of the Romanovs, and the Ottoman Empire of the Turks—contained a mixture of ethnic groups. Control moved back and forth between these empires, depending on victories or defeats in war and on royal marriages. When nationalism emerged in the 19th century, ethnic unrest threatened and eventually toppled these empires.

**The Breakup of the Austrian Empire** The Austrian Empire brought together Slovenes, Hungarians, Germans, Czechs, Slovaks, Croats, Poles, Serbs, and Italians. In 1866, Prussia defeated Austria in the Austro-Prussian War. With its victory, Prussia gained control of the newly organized North German Confederation, a union of Prussia and 21 smaller German political units. Then, pressured by the Hungarians, Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria split his empire in half, declaring Austria and Hungary independent states, with himself as ruler of both. The empire was now called Austria-Hungary or the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Nationalist disputes continued to weaken the empire for more than 40 years. Finally, after World War I, Austria-Hungary broke into several nation-states.

**The Russian Empire Crumbles** Nationalism also helped break up the 370-year-old empire of the czars in Russia. In addition to Russians, the czar ruled over 22 million Ukrainians, 8 million Poles, and smaller numbers of Lithuanians, Latvians, Estonians, Finns, Jews, Romanians, Georgians, Armenians, Turks, and others. Each group had its own culture.

The ruling Romanov dynasty of Russia was determined to maintain iron control over this diversity. They instituted a policy of *Russification*, forcing Russian culture on all the ethnic groups in the empire. This policy actually strengthened ethnic nationalist feelings and helped to disunify Russia. The weakened czarist empire finally could not withstand the double shock of World War I and the communist revolution. The last Romanov czar gave up his power in 1917.

**The Ottoman Empire Weakens** The ruling Turks of the Ottoman Empire controlled Greeks, Slavs, Arabs, Bulgarians, and Armenians. In 1856, under pressure from the British and French, the Ottomans granted citizenship to the people under their rule. That measure angered conservative Turks, who wanted no change in the situation, and caused tensions in the empire. In response to nationalism in Armenia, the Ottomans massacred and deported Armenians from 1894 to 1896 and again in 1915. Like Austria-Hungary, the Ottoman Empire broke apart soon after World War I.
**Cavour Unites Italy**

While nationalism destroyed empires, it also built nations. Italy was one of the countries to form from the territory of crumbling empires. Italians felt a strong cultural identity with others in Italy. Between 1815 and 1848, fewer and fewer Italians were content to live under foreign rulers.

**Cavour Leads Italian Unification** Italian nationalists looked for leadership from the kingdom of Piedmont-Sardinia, the largest and most powerful of the Italian states. The kingdom had adopted a liberal constitution in 1848. So, to the liberal Italian middle classes, unification under Piedmont-Sardinia seemed a good plan.

In 1852, Sardinia’s king, Victor Emmanuel II, named Count Camillo di Cavour (kuh•VOOR) as his prime minister. Cavour was a cunning statesman who worked tirelessly to expand Piedmont-Sardinia’s power. Using skillful diplomacy and well chosen alliances he set about gaining control of northern Italy for Sardinia.

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**The Unification of Italy, 1858–1870**

**Interpret Maps**

1. **Movement** During what time period was the greatest share of territory unified in Italy?
2. **Region** What is unusual about the physical characteristics of Italy?
Cavour realized that the greatest roadblock to annexing northern Italy was Austria. In 1858, the French emperor Napoleon III agreed to help drive Austria out of the northern Italian provinces. Cavour then provoked a war with the Austrians. A combined French-Sardinian army won two quick victories. Sardinia succeeded in taking all of northern Italy, except Venetia.

Garibaldi Brings Unity As Cavour was uniting northern Italy, he secretly started helping nationalist rebels in southern Italy. In May 1860, a small army of Italian nationalists led by a bold and visionary soldier, Giuseppe Garibaldi (GAR•uh•BAWL•dee), captured Sicily. In battle, Garibaldi always wore a bright red shirt, as did his followers. As a result, they became known as the Red Shirts.

From Sicily, Garibaldi and his forces crossed to the Italian mainland and marched north. Eventually, Garibaldi agreed to unite the southern areas he had conquered with the kingdom of Piedmont-Sardinia. Cavour arranged for King Victor Emmanuel II to meet Garibaldi in Naples. “The Red One” willingly agreed to step aside and let the Sardinian king rule.

In 1866, the Austrian province of Venetia, which included the city of Venice, became part of Italy. In 1870, Italian forces took over the last part of a territory known as the Papal States. With this victory, the city of Rome came under Italian control. Soon after, Rome became the capital of the united kingdom of Italy. The pope, however, would continue to govern a section of Rome known as Vatican City.
Bismarck Unites Germany
Like Italy, Germany also achieved national unity in the mid-1800s. Beginning in 1815, 39 German states formed a loose grouping called the German Confederation. The Austrian Empire dominated the confederation. However, Prussia was ready to unify all the German states.

Prussia Leads German Unification Prussia enjoyed several advantages that would eventually help it forge a strong German state. First of all, unlike the Austro-Hungarian Empire, Prussia had a mainly German population. As a result, nationalism actually unified Prussia. In contrast, ethnic groups in Austria-Hungary tore the empire apart. Moreover, Prussia’s army was by far the most powerful in central Europe. In 1848, Berlin rioters forced a constitutional convention to write up a liberal constitution for the kingdom, paving the way for unification.

Bismarck Takes Control In 1861, Wilhelm I succeeded Frederick William to the throne. The liberal parliament refused him money for reforms that would double the strength of the army. Wilhelm saw the parliament’s refusal as a major challenge to his authority. He was supported in his view by the Junkers (YUNG•kuhrz), strongly conservative members of Prussia’s wealthy landowning class. In 1862, Wilhelm chose a conservative Junker named Otto von Bismarck as his prime minister. Bismarck was a master of what came to be known as realpolitik. This German term means “the politics of reality.” The term is used to describe tough power politics with no room for idealism. With realpolitik as his style, Bismarck would become one of the commanding figures of German history.

With the king’s approval, Bismarck declared that he would rule without the consent of parliament and without a legal budget. Those actions were

Otto von Bismarck
(1815–1898)
To some Germans, Bismarck was the greatest and noblest of Germany’s statesmen. They say he almost single-handedly unified the nation and raised it to greatness. To others, he was nothing but a devious politician who abused his powers and led Germany into dictatorship.

His speeches, letters, and memoirs show him to be both crafty and deeply religious. At one moment, he could declare, “It is the destiny of the weak to be devoured by the strong.” At another moment he might claim, “We Germans shall never wage aggressive war, ambitious war, a war of conquest.”

BIOGRAPHY

At another moment he might claim, “We Germans shall never wage aggressive war, ambitious war, a war of conquest.”
in violation of the constitution. In his first speech as prime minister, he
told members of the Prussian parliament, “It is not by means of speeches
and majority resolutions that the great issues of the day will be decided—
that was the great mistake of 1848 and 1849—but by blood and iron.”

**Prussia Expands**  In 1864, Bismarck took the first step toward molding
an empire. Prussia and Austria formed an alliance and went to war against
Denmark to win two border provinces, Schleswig and Holstein.

A quick victory increased national pride among Prussians. It also won
new respect from other Germans and lent support for Prussia as head of
a unified Germany. After the victory, Prussia governed Schleswig, while
Austria controlled Holstein.

**Seven Weeks’ War**  Bismarck purposely stirred up border conflicts with
Austria over Schleswig and Holstein. The tensions provoked Austria into
declaring war on Prussia in 1866. This conflict was known as the Seven
Weeks’ War. The Prussians used their superior training and equipment to
win a devastating victory. They humiliated Austria. The Austrians lost the
region of Venetia, which was given to Italy. They had to accept Prussian
annexation of more German territory.

With its victory in the Seven Weeks’ War, Prussia took control of
northern Germany. For the first time, the eastern and western parts
of the Prussian kingdom were joined. In 1867, the remaining states
of the north joined the North German Confederation, which Prussia
dominated completely.

**The Franco-Prussian War**  By 1867, a few southern German states
remained independent of Prussian control. The majority of southern
Germans were Catholics. Many in the region resisted domination by a
Protestant Prussia. However, Bismarck felt he could win the support of
southerners if they faced a threat from outside. He reasoned that a war
with France would rally the south.

Bismarck was an expert at manufacturing “incidents” to gain his ends.
For example, he created the impression that the French ambassador had
insulted the Prussian king. The French reacted to Bismarck’s deception by
declaring war on Prussia on July 19, 1870.

The Prussian army immediately poured into northern France. In
September 1870, the Prussian army surrounded the main French force
at Sedan. Among the 83,000 French prisoners taken was Napoleon III
himself. Parisians withstood a German siege until hunger forced them
to surrender.

The Franco-Prussian War was the final stage in German unification.
Now the nationalistic fever also seized people in southern Germany. They
finally accepted Prussian leadership. On January 18, 1871, at the captured
French palace of Versailles, King Wilhelm I of Prussia was crowned *kaiser*
(ˈkäzər), or emperor. Germans called their empire the Second Reich. (The
Holy Roman Empire was the first.) Bismarck had achieved Prussian domi-
nance over Germany and Europe “by blood and iron.”

**Reading Check**

Analyze Motives
Bismarck ignored
both the parliament
and the constitution.
How do you think this
action would affect
Prussian government?
The Unification of Germany, 1865–1871

Interpret Maps
1. Location  What was unusual about the territory of Prussia as it existed in 1865?
2. Movement  After 1865, what year saw the biggest expansion of Prussian territory?
A Shift in Power

The 1815 Congress of Vienna had established five Great Powers in Europe—Britain, France, Austria, Prussia, and Russia. In 1815, the Great Powers were nearly equal in strength. The wars of the mid-1800s greatly strengthened one of the Great Powers, as Prussia joined with other German states to form Germany.

By 1871, Britain and Germany were clearly the most powerful, both militarily and economically. Austria and Russia lagged far behind. France struggled along somewhere in the middle.

The European balance of power had broken down. This shift also found expression in the art of the period. In fact, during that century, artists, composers, and writers pointed to paths that they believed European society should follow.

Lesson 3 Assessment

1. **Organize Information** Use a timeline to identify an event that made the unification of Italy or Germany possible.

   1800 — 1900

2. **Key Terms and People** For each key term or person in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. **Synthesize** How can nationalism be both a unifying and a disunifying force?

4. **Form Generalizations** Why did the Austrian, Russian, and Ottoman Empires face such great challenges to their control of land?

5. **Evaluate** Many liberals wanted government by elected parliaments. How was Bismarck’s approach to achieving his goals different?
Revolutions in the Arts

The Big Idea
Artistic and intellectual movements both reflected and fueled changes in Europe during the 1800s.

Why It Matters Now
Romanticism and realism are still found in novels, dramas, and films produced today.

Key Terms and People
romanticism
realism
deism
impressionism

Setting the Stage
During the first half of the 1800s, artists focused on ideas of freedom, the rights of individuals, and an idealistic view of history. After the great revolutions of 1848, political focus shifted to leaders who practiced realpolitik. Similarly, intellectuals and artists expressed a “realistic” view of the world. In this view, the rich pursued their selfish interests while ordinary people struggled and suffered. Newly invented photography became both a way to detail this struggle and a tool for scientific investigation.

The Romantic Movement
At the end of the 18th century, the Enlightenment idea of reason gradually gave way to another major movement in art and ideas: romanticism. This movement reflected deep interest both in nature and in the thoughts and feelings of the individual. In many ways, romantic thinkers and writers reacted against the classicism of the Enlightenment. They turned from reason to emotion, from society to nature. Romantics rejected the rigidly ordered world of the middle class. Nationalism also fired the romantic imagination. For example, George Gordon, Lord Byron, one of the leading romantic poets of the time, fought for Greece’s freedom.

The Ideas of Romanticism Emotion, sometimes wild emotion, was a key element of romanticism. However, romanticism went beyond feelings. Romantics expressed a wide range of ideas and attitudes. In general, romantic thinkers and artists:
• emphasized inner feelings, emotions, and imagination
• focused on the mysterious, the supernatural, and the exotic, grotesque, or horrifying
• loved the beauties of untamed nature
• idealized the past as a simpler and nobler time
• glorified heroes and heroic actions
• cherished folk traditions, music, and stories
• valued the common people and the individual
• promoted radical change and democracy

Romanticism in Literature  Poetry, music, and painting were the most influential arts because they were able to capture the emotion of romanticism. To romantics, poetry was the highest form of expression. The British romantic poets William Wordsworth and Samuel Taylor Coleridge both honored nature as the source of truth and beauty. Today William Blake is considered to be the first and most original of the Romantic poets, but in his time he was largely ignored. Later English romantic poets, such as Lord Byron, Percy Bysshe Shelley, and John Keats, wrote poems celebrating rebellious heroes, passionate love, and the mystery and beauty of nature. Like many romantics, many of these British poets lived stormy lives and died young. Byron, for example, died at the age of 36, while Shelley died at 29.

Germany produced one of the earliest and greatest romantic writers. In 1774, Johann Wolfgang von Goethe (YO•hahn-VUHLF•gahng-fuhn-GER•tuh) published The Sorrows of Young Werther. Goethe’s novel told of a sensitive young man whose hopeless love for a virtuous married woman drives him to suicide. Also in Germany, the brothers Jakob and Wilhelm Grimm collected German fairy tales and created a dictionary and grammar of the German language. Both the tales and the dictionary celebrated the German spirit.

Victor Hugo led the French romantics. His works also reflect the romantic fascination with history and the individual. His novels Les Misérables and The Hunchback of Notre Dame show the struggles of individuals against a hostile society.
**Ludwig van Beethoven (1770–1827)**

A genius of European music, Beethoven suffered the most tragic disability a composer can endure. At the age of 30, he began to go deaf. His deafness grew worse for 19 years. By 1819, it was total.

At first, Beethoven’s handicap barely affected his career. By 1802, however, he knew that his hearing would only worsen. He suffered from bouts of depression. The depression would bring him to the brink of suicide. Nonetheless, he would rebound:

“It seemed unthinkable for me to leave the world forever before I had produced all that I felt called upon to produce.”

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**The Gothic Novel**  Gothic horror stories became hugely popular. These novels often took place in medieval Gothic castles. They were filled with fearful, violent, sometimes supernatural events. Mary Shelley, wife of the poet Percy Bysshe Shelley, wrote one of the earliest and most successful Gothic horror novels, *Frankenstein*. The novel told the story of a monster created from the body parts of dead human beings.

**Composers Emphasize Emotion**  Emotion dominated the music produced by romantic composers. These composers moved away from the tightly controlled, formal compositions of the Enlightenment period. Instead, they celebrated heroism and national pride with a new power of expression.

As music became part of middle-class life, musicians and composers became popular heroes. Composer and pianist Franz Liszt (lihst), for example, achieved earnings and popularity comparable to those of today’s rock stars.

One of the composers leading the way into the Romantic period was also its greatest: Ludwig van Beethoven (LOOD•vih-g-vah•n-bay•toh•vuhn). His work evolved from the classical music of the Enlightenment into romantic compositions. His Ninth Symphony soars, celebrating freedom, dignity, and the triumph of the human spirit.

Later romantic composers also appealed to the hearts and souls of their listeners. Robert Schumann’s compositions sparkle with merriment. Like many romantic composers, Felix Mendelssohn drew on literature, such as Shakespeare’s *A Midsummer Night’s Dream*, as the inspiration for his music. Polish composer and concert pianist Frederic Chopin (SHOH•pan) used Polish dance rhythms in his music. Guiseppe Verdi and Richard Wagner brought European opera to a dramatic and theatrical high point.
The Shift to Realism in the Arts

By the middle of the 19th century, rapid industrialization deeply affected everyday life in Europe. The growing class of industrial workers lived grim lives in dirty, crowded cities. Industrialization began to make the dreams of the romantics seem pointless. In literature and the visual arts, realism tried to show life as it was, not as it should be. Realist painting reflected the increasing political importance of the working class in the 1850s. Along with paintings, novels proved especially suitable for describing workers’ suffering.

Photographers Capture Reality As realist painters and writers detailed the lives of actual people, photographers could record an instant in time with scientific precision. The first practical photographs were called daguerreotypes (duh-Gehr-uh-types). They were named after their French inventor, Louis Daguerre. The images in his daguerreotypes were startlingly real and won him worldwide fame.

British inventor William Talbot invented a light-sensitive paper that he used to produce photographic negatives. The advantage of his process was that many prints could be made from one negative. The Talbot process also allowed photos to be reproduced in books and newspapers. Mass distribution gained a wide audience for the realism of photography. With its scientific, mechanical, and mass-produced features, photography was the art of the new industrial age.

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Motion Studies

Eadweard Muybridge had a varied career as a photographer. He devoted part of his career to motion studies. These photographic studies froze the motion of an object at an instant in time. They allowed scientists to study motion and to better understand time. The equipment he built helped lead to the development of motion pictures.

This series of photographs taken in 1878, titled “The Horse in Motion,” was designed to discover if all of the legs of a running horse leave the ground at the same time.

Analyze Historical Sources

1. What do the series of photographs reveal about the question of whether all the legs of a horse leave the ground at the same time?
2. What reaction do you think these pictures would have generated among the general public?
**Writers Study Society**  Realism in literature flourished in France with writers such as Honoré de Balzac and Émile Zola. Balzac wrote a massive series of almost 100 novels entitled *The Human Comedy*. They describe in detail the brutal struggle for wealth and power among all levels of French society. Zola’s novels exposed the miseries of French workers in small shops, factories, and coal mines. His revelations shocked readers and spurred reforms of labor laws and working conditions in France. The famous English realist novelist Charles Dickens created unforgettable characters and scenes of London’s working poor. Many of the scenes were humorous, but others showed the despair of London’s poor. In his book *Little Dorrit*, Dickens described the life of a working-class person as sheer monotony set in a gloomy neighborhood.

**A Changing View of Religion**  Realism often involved a rejection of both non-Christian religions and dogmatic Christianity. Many realists believed in “natural religion.” Natural religion, also called *deism*, was a belief that everyone was born with religious, ethical, and moral impulses. It often rejected the teachings of any one church.

**Impressionists React Against Realism**  Beginning in the 1860s, a group of painters in Paris reacted against the realist style. Instead of showing life “as it really was,” they tried to show their impression of a subject or a moment in time. For this reason, their style of art came to be known as *impressionism*. Fascinated by light, impressionist artists used pure, shimmering colors to capture a moment seen at a glance.

*Poppies* by impressionist painter Claude Monet

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**Reading Check**

Form Opinions

Which do you think would be more effective in spurring reforms—photographs or a realist novel? Explain.
Life in the Moment  Unlike the realists, impressionists showed a more positive view of the new urban society in western Europe. Instead of abused workers, they showed shop clerks and dockworkers enjoying themselves in dance halls and cafés. They painted performers in theaters and circuses. And they glorified the delights of the life of the rising middle class. Claude Monet (moh•NAY), Edgar Degas (duh•GAH), and Pierre-Auguste Renoir (ruhn•WHAR) were leaders in the movement that became very popular.

Composers also created impressions of mood and atmosphere. By using different combinations of instruments, tone patterns, and music structures, they were able to create mental pictures of such things as flashing lights, the feel of a warm summer day, or the sight of the sea. French composers Maurice Ravel and Claude Debussy are the most notable members of the impressionist music movement.

Changes in political, social, artistic, religious, and intellectual movements during the 19th century signaled important changes in daily life. One of the most significant causes of change was industrialization, which you will learn about next.
Revolutions in Painting

European painting underwent revolutionary changes during the 1800s. In the early years, romanticism—which stressed emotion above all else—was the dominant style. As revolutions swept Europe in the 1840s, some artists rejected romanticism in favor of realism. They portrayed common people and everyday life in a realistic manner. Toward the end of the century, art underwent another revolution, influenced by scientific discoveries about vision. Impressionist painters experimented with light and color to capture their impressions of a passing moment.

▲ ROMANTICISM/DELACROIX

In their eagerness to explore emotion, romantic artists had certain favorite subjects: nature, love, religion, and nationalism. This painting, The Lion Hunt by Eugène Delacroix, shows that violence and exotic cultures were also popular themes. The swirling capes, snarling lions, and bold reds and yellows help convey the ferocity of the hunt.
REALISM/COURBET

_The Stone Breakers_ by Gustave Courbet shows that realist artists tried to portray everyday life just as it was, without making it pretty or trying to tell a moralistic story. Notice how the workers’ clothes are torn and shabby. The boy rests the heavy basket of stones on his knee to ease his burden, while the man bends to his task. The colors are dull and gritty, just as the job itself is.

IMPRESSIONISM/MONET

The impressionists wanted to record the perceptions of the human eye rather than physical reality. To do this, they tried to portray the effect of light on landscapes and buildings. They combined short strokes of many colors to create a shimmering effect. They also used brighter, lighter colors than the artists before them had used. As the painting _Ducal Palace, Venice_ by Claude Monet shows, the impressionists often painted water because of its reflective nature.

**Critical Thinking**

1. **Develop Historical Perspective** If you were a political revolutionary of the 1800s, which of these artistic styles would you use for your propaganda posters? Why?

2. **Draw Conclusions** Impressionism remains extremely popular more than a century after it was first developed. What do you think accounts for its popularity today?
Key Terms and People

For each term or name below, write a sentence explaining its significance.

1. conservative
2. liberal
3. nationalism
4. nation-state
5. realpolitik
6. romanticism
7. realism
8. Impressionism

Main Ideas

Use your notes and the information in the module to answer the following questions.

Latin American Peoples Win Independence

1. What caused the creoles in South America to rebel against Spain?
2. What role did Agustín de Iturbide play in the independence of Mexico?
3. Who was Dom Pedro, and what role did he play in Brazil’s move to independence?

Europe Faces Revolutions

4. How is a liberal different from a conservative?
5. How successful were the revolts of 1848? Explain.
6. Why did the French accept Louis-Napoleon as an emperor?

Nationalism

7. How did nationalism in the 1800s work as a force for both bringing groups of people together and breaking them apart?
8. What approaches did Camillo di Cavour use to acquire more territory for Piedmont-Sardinia?
9. What strategy did Otto von Bismarck use to make Prussia the leader of a united Germany?

Revolutions in the Arts

10. What are five elements of romanticism? Explain.
11. What are two ideas or attitudes of the romantic movement that reflect the ideals of nationalism?
12. What new conditions caused a change in the arts from romanticism to realism?
Critical Thinking

1. Categorize  Use a table to describe the nationalist movements in Mexico, Greece, Italy, and Germany, and the results of each movement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Nationalism and Its Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Evaluate  Why do you think Giuseppe Garibaldi stepped aside to let Victor Emmanuel II rule areas that Garibaldi had conquered in southern Italy?

3. Analyze Motives  How do you think nationalism might help revolutionaries overcome the disadvantages of old weapons and poor supplies to win a war for national independence? Explain.

4. Make Inferences  Do you believe the Latin American revolutions would have occurred without a push from European events? Explain.

5. Synthesize  How did artistic and intellectual movements reflect and fuel changes in Europe in the 1800s?

6. Compare  Think about the political, social, religious, and economic issues that were important during the nationalistic revolutions of this period. How are the issues different from the issues that were important in earlier periods that you have learned about?

Focus on Writing

Write a speech that might have been delivered somewhere in Europe at a rally for Greek independence. Urge the country’s leaders to help the Greeks in their struggle for independence from the Ottoman Empire. Consider the following:

- the connections of Greece to Europeans
- reasons to support Greek revolutionaries
- the cause of democracy

Multimedia Activity

Use the Internet, newspapers, magazines, and your own experience to list movies that portray social and political conditions. Evaluate the credibility and limitations of each source. Then create a web page that classifies each portrayal as either romantic or realistic. Remember to focus on the meanings of the terms romantic and realistic as they apply to the two movements in art and literature. You may want to include the following on your web page:

- descriptions of movie plots or character portrayals
- still shots from movies that support your conclusions
- romantic or realistic quotations from movies