

CHAPTER
24

Nationalist Revolutions

Sweep the West, 1789–1900

Connect History *and* Geography

Inspired by Enlightenment ideas, the people of Latin America rebelled against Spanish and Portuguese rule in the early 19th century. Rebels in the Spanish colonies waged a series of hard-fought military campaigns to gain their independence, while Brazil carried out a peaceful revolution to free itself from Portugal. The map at the right shows the countries of Latin America and their dates of independence. Use the map to answer the questions below.

1. What were the first two countries in Latin America and the Caribbean to win their independence?
2. How do the independence dates for Mexico and Central America differ?
3. Which colonies were still under Spanish rule in 1841?

For more information about nationalism, romanticism, realism, and related topics . . .



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In 1810, Padre Miguel Hidalgo issued his *Grito de Dolores* (Cry of Dolores). In it, he called for the poor of Mexico to revolt against Spanish rule. In this 20th-century mural by Mexican artist Juan O'Gorman, Mexicans of *all* classes revolt—which was not the case. O'Gorman also slips in his own politics: he inserts a Communist symbol (the sickle) next to the religious banner.

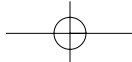
1804

Haiti wins freedom from France.

1810

Padre Hidalgo issues *Grito de Dolores*, calling for Mexican independence.

1789



1830
Greece gains independence.

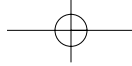
1848
Revolts shake Europe.

1861
Russia frees serfs.

1870
Italy unites.

1871
Wilhelm I crowned kaiser of united Germany.

1900



Interact *with* History

You are an artist in a nation that has just freed itself from foreign rule. The new government is asking you to design a symbol that will show what your country stands for. It's up to you to design the symbol that best suits the spirit of your people. Will your symbol be peaceful or warlike, dignified or joyful? Or will it be a combination of these and other qualities?



AUSTRIA

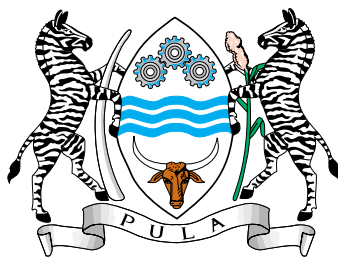
The hammer and sickle symbolize agriculture and industry. The broken chains celebrate Austria's liberation from Germany at the end of World War II.



URUGUAY

The shield features symbols of justice, strength, freedom, and prosperity.

Your country is free. What kind of national symbol will you design?



BOTSWANA

Industry and livestock are connected by water, the key to the country's prosperity. *Pula* in the Setswana language means "rain," "water," "wealth."



UNITED STATES

The olive branch and arrows symbolize a desire for peace but a readiness for war. The Latin phrase *E pluribus unum* means "Out of many, one," expressing unity in diversity.



PERU

The country's wealth is shown by the vicuña (with its silky fur), the quinine tree (which helps to cure malaria), and a horn of plenty.

EXAMINING *the* ISSUES

- What values and goals of your new country do you want to show?
- What symbol will you use?
- Will your symbol represent your country's past or future? Its land? Its goals?
- Will your design have words that also express values?

As a class, discuss these questions. During the discussion, think of the role played by symbols in expressing a country's view of itself and the world.

As you read about the rise of new nations in Latin America and Europe, think of how artists encourage national pride.

1

Latin American Peoples Win Independence

TERMS & NAMES

- *peninsulares*
- creoles
- mulattos
- Simón Bolívar
- José de San Martín
- Miguel Hidalgo
- José Morelos

MAIN IDEA

Spurred by discontent and Enlightenment ideas, peoples in Latin America fought colonial rule.

WHY IT MATTERS NOW

Sixteen of today's Latin American nations gained their independence at this time.

SETTING THE STAGE By the late 1700s, the Americas, already troubled by Enlightenment ideas, were electrified by the news of the French Revolution. The French ideals of liberty, equality, and fraternity inspired many Latin Americans to rise up against their French, Spanish, and Portuguese masters.

Revolution in Haiti

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

Background

About 35,000 Europeans stood at the top of the social ladder in Haiti in the late 1700s. They were mainly French.



Nearly 500,000 enslaved Africans—the vast majority of Saint Domingue's population—lived at the bottom of the social system. Most slaves worked on plantations, and they outnumbered their masters dramatically. White masters thus used brutal methods to terrorize slaves and keep them powerless.

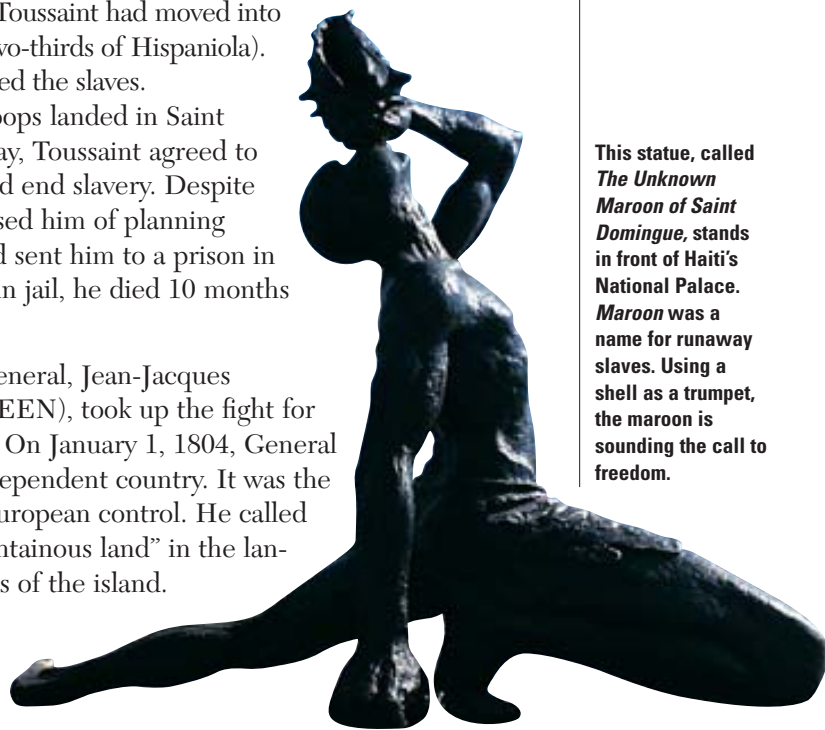
The Fight for Freedom The slaves soon showed that, in fact, they were not powerless. In August 1791, an African priest named Boukman raised a call for revolution. Within a few days, 100,000 slaves rose in revolt. A leader soon emerged, Toussaint L'Ouverture (too-SAN loo-vair-TOOR), an ex-slave. Toussaint was untrained in the military and in diplomacy. Even so, he rose to become a skilled general and diplomat. It is said that he got the name L'Ouverture (“opening” in French) because he was so skilled at finding openings in the enemy lines. By 1801, Toussaint had moved into Spanish Santo Domingo (the eastern two-thirds of Hispaniola). He took control of the territory and freed the slaves.

In January 1802, 16,000 French troops landed in Saint Domingue to depose Toussaint. 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. In that cold mountain jail, he died 10 months later, in April 1803.

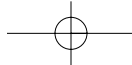
Haiti's Independence Toussaint's general, Jean-Jacques Dessalines (zhahn-ZHAIHK day-sah-LEEN), took up the fight for freedom where Toussaint had left off. On January 1, 1804, General Dessalines declared the colony an independent country. It was the first black colony to free itself from European control. He called the country Haiti, which meant “mountainous land” in the language of the native Arawak inhabitants of the island.

Background

By 1600, almost the entire Arawak population had disappeared because of European conquest, warfare, disease, or slavery.



This statue, called *The Unknown Maroon of Saint Domingue*, stands in front of Haiti's National Palace. *Maroon* was a name for runaway slaves. Using a shell as a trumpet, the maroon is sounding the call to freedom.



Latin America Sweeps to Freedom

Latin American colonial society was sharply divided into classes based on birth. At the top of Spanish American society were the *peninsulares* (peh-noon-soo-LAH-rehs), men who had been born in Spain. Only peninsulares could hold high office in Spanish



This 18th-century painting shows a lower-class mestizo family in Mexico. Like many of the poor, this is a family of vendors. They are setting up their stand for market day.

colonial government. In this way, Spain kept the loyalty of its colonial leaders.

Creoles, Spaniards born in Latin America, ranked after the *peninsulares*. Creoles could not hold high-level political office. But they could rise as officers in Spanish colonial armies. Together these two minority groups controlled 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 Africans. At the bottom of the social ladder stood Indians. Unlike enslaved Africans, Indians were of little economic value to the Spaniards. As a result, they were more severely oppressed than any other group.

Background

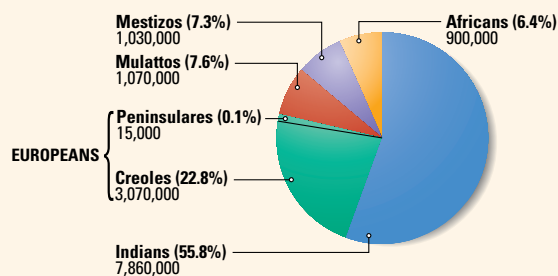
The *peninsulares* got their name because they came from the Iberian Peninsula, where Spain is located.

THINK THROUGH HISTORY

A. Recognizing Effects How might creole officers serving in colonial armies become a threat to Spanish rule?

Creoles Spearhead 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.

The Divisions in Spanish Colonial Society in 1789



SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Charts

- Which two groups made up the vast majority of the population in Spanish America?
- Looking at the chart, what was one possible reason that creoles felt resentful of the privileges of the peninsulares?

Creoles not only held revolutionary ideas. They also felt that Spain had inflicted serious injustices on them. A creole aristocrat wrote this complaint to the king of Spain:

A VOICE FROM THE PAST

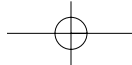
[T]he Viceroys here and their retainers . . . mock, humiliate and oppress us. . . The more distinguished the unhappy Americans are, the more they suffer. . . Their honor and reputations are attacked, insulting them by depriving them of any honorific office of consequence.

MARQUÉS DE SAN JORGE, quoted in *Americas: The Changing Face of Latin America and the Caribbean*

Spanish royal officials suppressed actions and ideas that might fuel creole discontent. For example, Colombian patriot Antonio Nariño published a translation of the French *Declaration of the Rights of Man*. He was quickly sentenced to exile in Africa.

Background

Of the 170 Spanish viceroys (colonial governors) between 1492 and 1810, 166 were *peninsulares*; only four were creoles.



THINK THROUGH HISTORY

B. Summarizing

What factors caused the revolutions in Spanish America?

Events in Europe Trigger Latin American Revolutions Napoleon's conquest of Spain in 1808 finally triggered revolts in the Spanish colonies. After he had removed 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 argued that when the real king was removed, power shifted to the people.

In 1810, rebellion broke out in several parts of Latin America. In 1814, with the defeat of Napoleon, King Ferdinand VII returned to Spain. But the creoles had already begun their drive for independence. And they would continue until victory.

The *Libertadores* End Spanish Rule

The South American wars of independence produced two brilliant generals. Their leadership largely achieved victory for the rebels. One was **Simón Bolívar** (see-MAWN boh-LEE-vahr), a wealthy Venezuelan creole. Called *Libertador* (Liberator), Bolívar was at the same time romantic and practical, a writer and a fighter.

The other great liberator was **José de San Martín** (hoh-SAY day san mahr-TEEN). Unlike the dashing Bolívar, San Martín was a simple, modest man. But he too displayed great courage in battle. Though born in Argentina, he spent much of his youth in Spain as a career military officer. San Martín believed in strict military discipline. However, he also showed concern for the well-being of his troops.

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 he 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 the 1830 map on page 608.)

Coming from this direction, Bolívar took the Spanish army in Bogotá completely by surprise. There he won a decisive victory.

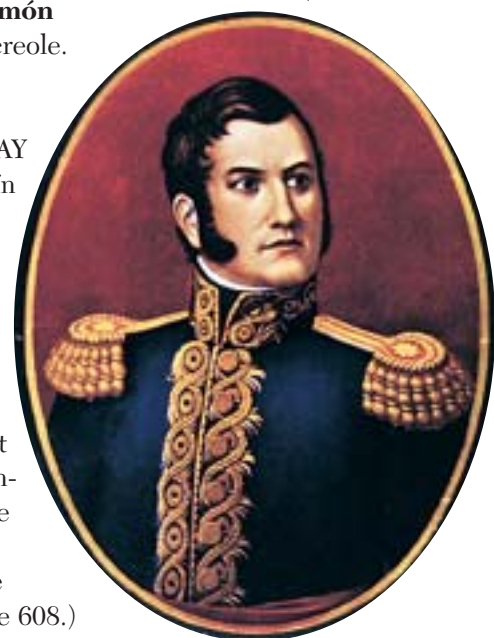
By 1821, Bolívar had won Venezuela's independence. He then marched south into Ecuador. In Ecuador, Bolívar would finally meet with José de San Martín. Together they would decide the future of the Latin American revolutionary movement.

San Martín Triumphs and Withdraws 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 his 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.

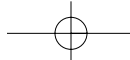
Next, in 1821 San Martín took his army north by sea to Lima, Peru. His plan was to drive out the remaining Spanish forces there. However, he needed a much larger force to accomplish this. This was the problem that faced both San Martín and Bolívar as they met at Guayaquil, Ecuador, in 1822.

No one knows how the two men reached an agreement. But San Martín left his army for Bolívar to command. Soon after, San Martín sailed for Europe. He died, almost forgotten, on French soil in 1850.

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.



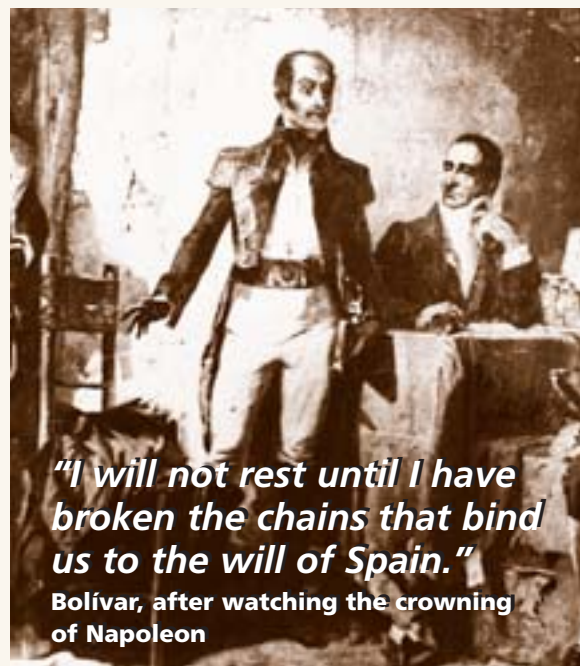
Educated in Spain from the age of six, José de San Martín returned to Latin America as a man in his early 30s. Fighting for 10 years, he became the liberator of Argentina, Chile, and Peru.



GlobalImpact: Struggling Toward Democracy

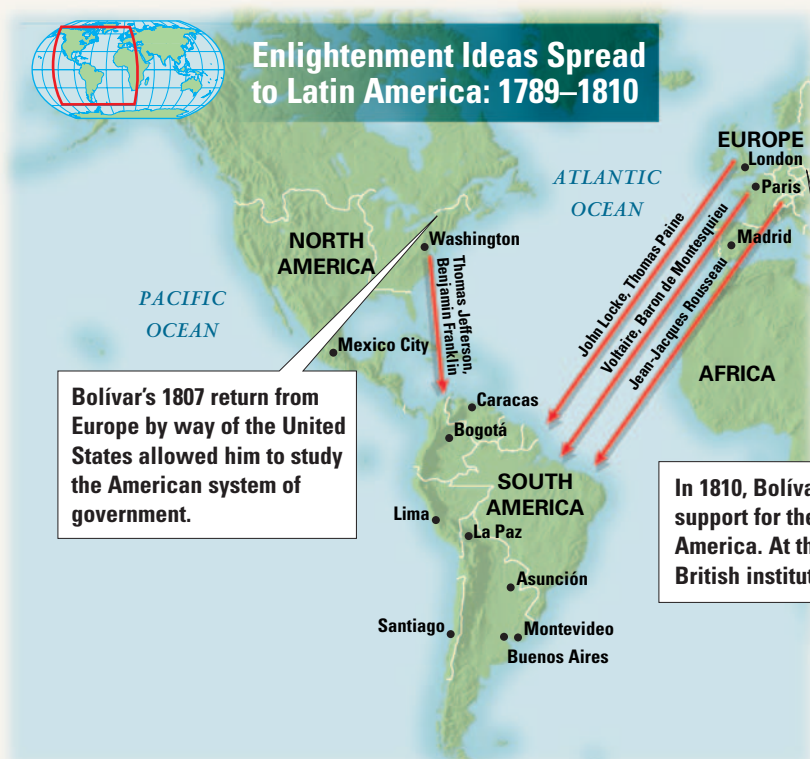
Ideas and Revolution

Revolutions are as much a matter of ideas as they are of weapons. And Simón Bolívar, the hero of Latin American independence, was both a thinker and a fighter. Through his education, readings, travels, and friendships, Bolívar was able to combine 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.



"I will not rest until I have broken the chains that bind us to the will of Spain."
Bolívar, after watching the crowning of Napoleon

Besides being a military leader, Bolívar was also a superb speaker and statesman. He is shown here presenting his plans for a new government.



Enlightenment Ideas Spread to Latin America: 1789–1810

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

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.

By 1800, the writings of Enlightenment authors were widely read throughout the Spanish American colonies.

After winning independence in 1819, Simón Bolívar organized the Republic of Venezuela and wrote the Constitution of Bolivia. Like many successful revolutionaries, Simón Bolívar became disillusioned with Latin America's chaos after independence. Before his death in 1830, he commented bitterly: "Those who worked for South American independence have plowed the sea."



Bolívar admired Napoleon. But later, he was disappointed by Napoleon's betrayal of democracy.

Patterns of Interaction

The Latin American independence movement is just one example of how the Enlightenment spread democratic ideals throughout the world. In countries facing oppressive conditions, a leader frequently emerges to establish a popular government. Even today, as can be seen in South Africa, democratic ideals inspire people to struggle for political independence and to overthrow oppressive governments.

VIDEO *Struggling Toward Democracy: Revolutions in Latin America and South Africa*

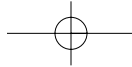
Connect to History

Making Inferences How is Enlightenment thought reflected in Bolívar's ideas on Latin American independence and government?

SEE SKILLBUILDER HANDBOOK, PAGE R16

Connect to Today

Comparing What recent events in today's world could be compared to Simón Bolívar's movement for Latin American independence?



Mexico Ends Spanish Rule

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

A Cry for Freedom In 1810, Padre **Miguel Hidalgo** (mee-GEHL ee-THAHL-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 60,000 men. The Spanish army and creoles were alarmed by this uprising of the lower classes. In reaction, they joined forces against Hidalgo's army. Hidalgo was defeated 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, he was defeated by a creole officer, Agustín de Iturbide (ah-goos-TEEN day ee-toor-BEE-day).

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. So they united in support of Mexico's independence from Spain. Ironically, Agustín de Iturbide—the man who had defeated Padre Morelos—made peace with the last rebel leader. He proclaimed independence in 1821.

Before the Mexican revolution, Central America had been governed from Mexico. In 1821, several Central American states declared their independence from Spain and thus from Mexico as well. Iturbide, however, refused to recognize those declarations.

Iturbide (who had declared himself emperor) was finally overthrown in 1823. Central America then pulled together. The region declared its absolute independence from Mexico. It took the name the United Provinces of Central America.

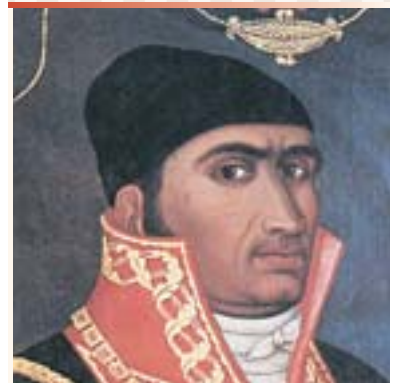
Brazil's Royal Liberator

With no violent upheavals or bloody atrocities, Brazil's quest for independence was unique in this period of Latin American history. In fact, a member of the Portuguese royal family actually played a key role in freeing Brazil from Portugal.

The Portuguese Royal Family in Brazil In 1807, Napoleon's armies swarmed across the Pyrenees mountains to invade 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 also took their court and royal treasury with them. The royal family then sailed to Portugal's largest colony, Brazil. For 14 years, Brazil was the center of the Portuguese empire. During that time, Brazilians had developed a sense of their own uniqueness. Many of them could not imagine their country becoming a colony again. However, after Napoleon's defeat in 1815, the Portuguese government wanted exactly that.

By 1822, creoles demanded Brazil's independence from Portugal. Eight thousand Brazilians signed a petition asking Dom Pedro, King John's son, to rule. He agreed.

HISTORY MAKERS



Padre José Morelos
1765–1815

Born into poverty, José Morelos did not begin to study for the priesthood until he was 25. In his parish work, he mainly served poor Indians and mestizos. In 1811, he joined Padre Hidalgo, along with his parishioners. After Hidalgo's death, the skillful Morelos took command of the peasant army.

By 1813, his army controlled all of southern Mexico except for the largest cities. Morelos then called a Mexican congress to set up a democratic government. The supporters of Spain, however, finally caught up with the congress. As the rebels fled, Morelos stayed behind to fight. The Spanish finally captured and shot Morelos in 1815. Napoleon knew of this priest-revolutionary and said: "Give me three generals like him and I can conquer the world."

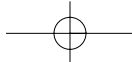
Background

Soon after his *grito*, Father Hidalgo declared an end to slavery and called for other sweeping social and economic reforms.

THINK THROUGH HISTORY

C. Making Inferences

How do you think the royal family's living in Brazil might have helped Portugal's largest colony?



Latin America, 1800



Latin America, 1830



GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Maps

- Region** What two European countries held the largest colonial empires in Latin America in 1800?
- Region** Comparing the two maps, which independent countries had emerged by 1830 from Spanish territory in the Americas?

On September 7, 1822, he officially declared Brazil's independence. Brazil had won its independence through a bloodless revolution.

Independence Brings Disunity

Throughout Latin America, independence actually brought an increase in poverty. The wars had disrupted trade and devastated cities and countryside. After all the destruction, the dream of a united Latin America quickly fell apart. In South America, Bolívar's united Gran Colombia divided into Colombia, Ecuador, and Venezuela in early 1830. And by 1841, the United Provinces of Central America had split into the republics of El Salvador, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, Guatemala, and Honduras.

Meanwhile, the ideas of the French Revolution and the aftermath of the Napoleonic Wars were causing upheaval in Europe, as you will learn in Section 2.

Section 1 Assessment

1. TERMS & NAMES

Identify

- peninsulares
- creoles
- mulattos
- Simón Bolívar
- José de San Martín
- Miguel Hidalgo
- José Morelos

2. TAKING NOTES

Using a chart like the one below, compare independence movements in Latin America.

Where?	Who rebelled?	Why?	What happened?
Haiti			
Spanish South America			
Mexico			
Brazil			

3. FORMING AND SUPPORTING OPINIONS

Think about the background of many creole revolutionaries. What do you think might have been their tendencies as government leaders: toward democracy or authoritarianism? Explain your answer.

THINK ABOUT

- their education
- their professions
- their economic interests

4. ANALYZING THEMES

Power and Authority

Consider the following statement: "Through its policies, Spain gave up its right to rule in South America." Do you agree or disagree? Explain. Did Spain ever have the right to rule?

THINK ABOUT

- Spanish colonial society
- why independence movements arose
- who gained the power that Spain lost

2

Revolutions Disrupt Europe

TERMS & NAMES

- conservatives
- liberals
- radicals
- nationalism
- nation-state
- the Balkans
- Louis-Napoleon
- Alexander II

MAIN 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.

SETTING THE STAGE As revolutions shook the colonies in Latin America, Europe was also undergoing dramatic changes. Under the leadership of Austrian Prince Metternich, the Congress of Vienna 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, Europeans seldom turned to war to solve their differences. Within these countries, however, the effort failed. Revolutions erupted across Europe between 1815 and 1848.

Nationalism Changes Europe

In the first half of the 1800s, three forces struggled for supremacy in European societies. **Conservatives**—usually wealthy property owners and nobility—argued for protecting the traditional monarchies of Europe. In certain cases, as in France, conservatives approved of constitutional monarchies. **Liberals**—mostly middle-class business leaders and merchants—wanted to give more power to elected parliaments, but only to parliaments in which the educated and the landowners could vote.

Radicals favored drastic change to extend democracy to the people as a whole. They believed that governments should practice the ideals of the French Revolution. This was still a radical idea, even 30 years after the Revolution.

The Idea of the Nation-State As conservatives, liberals, and radicals debated issues of government, a new movement called nationalism was emerging. This movement would blur the lines that separated these political theories. **Nationalism** is the belief that one'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. When the nation also had its own independent government, it became a **nation-state**.

Modern nationalism and the nation-state grew out of the French Revolution. Revolutionary leaders stressed the equality of all French people. The idea of equality fostered a sense of national pride in the French. That pride, in turn, helped French citizens' armies win stunning victories for the Revolution.

Nationalism Sparks Revolts in the Balkans 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, and Turkey, and the former Yugoslavia. Greeks, however, had kept alive the memory of their ancient history and culture. Spurred on by the nationalist spirit, Greeks demanded that their

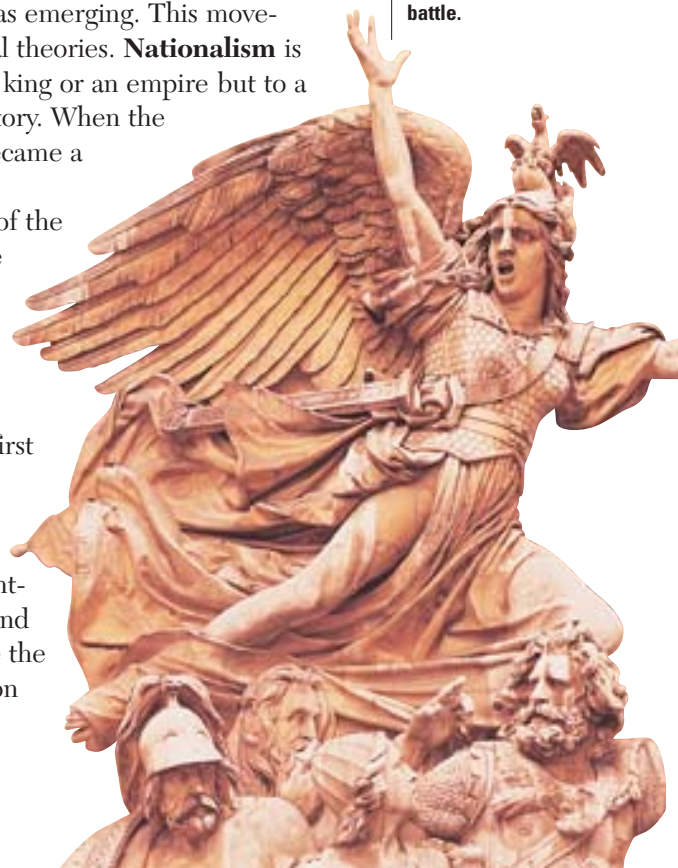
Carved on Napoleon's Arc de Triomphe, a fierce goddess of war leads French revolutionary volunteers into battle.

Background

In 1815, only France, England, and Spain could be called nation-states. Ethnic unrest would soon change that.

Background

Serbs revolted against the Ottomans in 1804 and 1815, winning self-rule within the Ottoman Empire in 1829. Full independence for Serbia came in 1878.





This 1839 lithograph shows Greeks in blue coats battling Ottoman Turks during the war for Greek independence.



country take its place among the nation-states of Europe. Because of this movement, a major Greek revolt broke out against the Ottoman Turks in 1821.

The most powerful governments opposed revolution in all its forms. 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, which they spent years studying in school. In his poetry, British romantic poet Lord Byron compared modern Greek nationalists to the ancient Spartans:

CONNECT to TODAY

Greeks and Turks on Cyprus

The hostility between Greeks and Turks continues to this day—with the island nation of Cyprus as its focal point. In 1974, Turkish troops invaded this island off the coast of Turkey with its majority Greek population. The Turks justified their invasion by saying that they were defending the rights of the minority of Turkish Cypriots. They captured the northern third of the island and declared the region an independent state.

The United Nations later established a “green line” on Cyprus—separating the Turkish north and the Greek south. However, the arrangement satisfies no one today. The Greek Cypriot government accuses the Turks of illegally seizing its territory. The Turks, in turn, maintain that they have the right to defend Turkish Cypriots from harm. The situation currently remains deadlocked.

A VOICE FROM THE PAST

The sword, the banner, and the field,
Glory and Greece, around us see!
The Spartan, borne upon his shield,
Was not more free.

LORD BYRON, from the poem “On this day I complete my thirty-sixth year”

In 1823, Byron made a large personal gift of £4,000 to the Greek fleet. After that, he went to Greece. There, he volunteered as a soldier for the Greek cause. He soon commanded a group of Greek soldiers. Unfortunately, he would not live to see the victory of the cause he fought for. In February of 1824, a cold Greek rain drenched the poet. Soon afterward, he caught a fever. He died from his illness in April.

Eventually, with growing popular sympathy for Greece, 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. By 1830, Britain, France, and Russia signed a treaty recognizing the full independence of Greece.

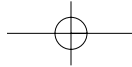


Lord Byron wears the uniform of a Greek freedom fighter.

The Tide of Reform in Western Europe

By the 1830s, the return to the old order—carefully arranged at the Congress of Vienna—was breaking down. Liberals and nationalists throughout Europe were openly revolting against conservative governments. In most cases, the liberal middle class—teachers, lawyers, and businesspeople—led the struggle for constitutional government and the formation of nation-states.

Waves of Failed Revolutions Revolutionary zeal swept across Europe. Nationalist riots broke out against Dutch rule in the Belgian city of Brussels. In November 1830, Belgians finally 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, others by the pope. Eventually, Prime Minister Metternich sent Austrian troops to restore order in Italy. The Poles living under the rule of Russia staged a revolt in Warsaw late in 1830. Russian armies took an entire year to crush the Polish uprising. By the mid-1830s, it seemed as if the old order had reestablished itself. But with the political instability of the period, that impression did not last long.

In 1848, ethnic uprisings erupted throughout Europe. In Budapest, nationalist leader Louis Kossuth called for a parliament and self-government for Hungary. In Prague, Czech liberals demanded Bohemian independence. An unruly mob in Vienna itself clashed with police. That forced Metternich to resign and set off liberal uprisings throughout the German states.

But European politics continued to seesaw. Many of these liberal gains were lost to conservatives within a year. In one country after another, the revolutionaries failed to unite themselves or their nation. And conservatives regained their nerve and their power. By 1849, Europe had practically returned to the conservatism that had controlled governments before 1848.

Reform and Revolution in 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. One French noble looked down on Louis. The aristocrat thought the king had "the manners of a citizen and the plainness of dress and demeanor very suitable to an American president, but unbecoming a descendant of Louis XIV [the Sun King]."

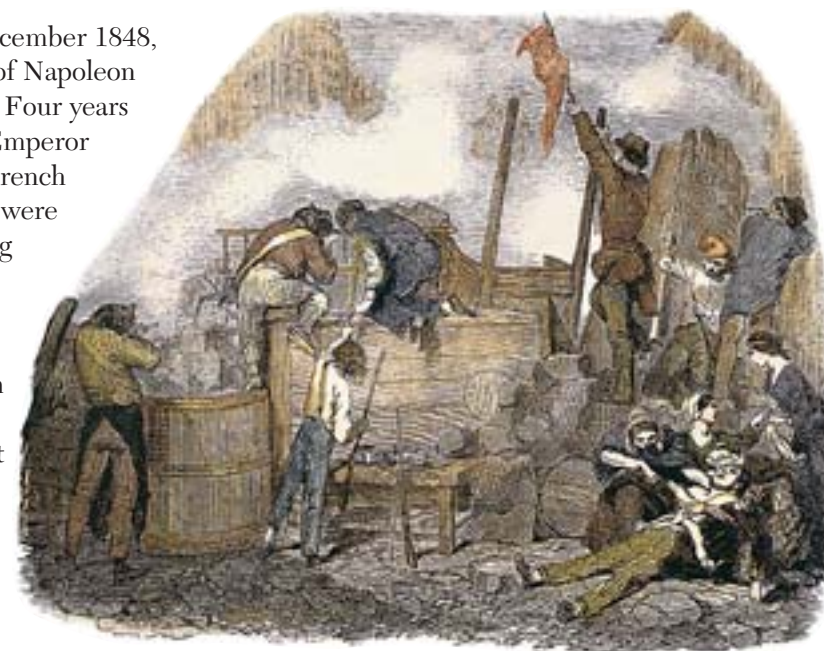
However, in 1848, after a lengthy reign of almost 18 years, Louis-Philippe fell from popular favor. Once again, a Paris mob overturned a monarchy and established a republic. Alphonse de Lamartine (lah-mahr-TEEN), one of France's leading poets, led the temporary government. After the victory of the Revolution of 1848, Lamartine proclaimed: "We are making together the most sublime of poems."

Far from being inspiring, the new republican government began to fall apart almost immediately. The radicals soon split into factions. One side, led by Lamartine, wanted only political reform. The other, led by Louis Blanc, also wanted social and economic reform. The differences 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.

France Accepts a Strong Ruler In December 1848, Louis-Napoleon Bonaparte, the nephew of Napoleon Bonaparte, won the presidential election. Four years later, **Louis-Napoleon** took the title of Emperor Napoleon III, which a large majority of French voters surprisingly accepted. The French were weary of instability and 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.

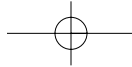
This color engraving of the time shows Parisian revolutionaries fighting and dying behind the barricades in the Revolution of 1848.



THINK THROUGH HISTORY

A. Summarizing

How would you outline the political swings occurring in France between 1830 and 1852?



SPOTLIGHT ON

Emancipation

On March 3, 1861, Czar Alexander II issued the Edict of Emancipation, freeing 20 million serfs with the stroke of a pen. Alexander, in fact, signed his edict one day before Abraham Lincoln became president of the United States. Less than two years later, President Lincoln issued the Emancipation Proclamation, freeing slaves in the United States. Lincoln's proclamation, like Alexander's edict, was issued on his authority alone.

Nonetheless, emancipation did not entirely fulfill the hopes of Russian serfs or former slaves in the United States. The peasant communities, like the one pictured above, still bound many Russian serfs to the land, while others earned poor livings as laborers in the cities. And Lincoln did not free all slaves—only those living under the Confederacy.

Reform in Russia Unlike France, Russia in the 1800s had yet to make its leap into the modern industrialized world. Under Russia's feudal system, serfs were bound to the nobles whose land they worked. And 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.

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 and transportation system 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. This was a humiliating defeat for the czar.

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

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 on 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.

Background

In December 1825, when Nicholas became czar, a group of army officers (the "Decembrists") demanded liberal reforms. Nicholas crushed the Decembrists and then ruled with an iron fist.

THINK THROUGH HISTORY

B. Analyzing Issues

Why were czars torn between social and economic reforms in their country?

Section 2 Assessment

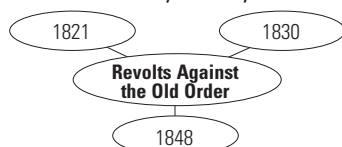
1. TERMS & NAMES

Identify

- conservatives
- liberals
- radicals
- nationalism
- nation-state
- the Balkans
- Louis-Napoleon
- Alexander II

2. TAKING NOTES

Using a chart like the one below, list the major uprisings that challenged the old order of Europe in the first half of the 1800s. Group them under the year they occurred.



What ideal sparked most of these revolts? Explain.

3. DRAWING CONCLUSIONS

Why do you think some liberals might disapprove of the way Louis-Napoleon ruled France after the uprisings of 1848?

THINK ABOUT

- who the liberals were and what they believed in
- conditions in France in 1848
- Louis-Napoleon's actions and policies

4. THEME ACTIVITY

Cultural Interaction Imagine that you are a conservative, liberal, or radical in 1848. You have just heard that revolts have broken out in Europe. Write a letter to a friend, stating your political position and expressing your feelings about the uprisings. Then, express your thoughts about the future of Europe.



3 Nationalism

PATTERNS
OF CHANGE

CASE STUDIES: Italy and Germany

TERMS & NAMES

- Camillo di Cavour
- Giuseppe Garibaldi
- Red Shirts
- Otto von Bismarck
- *realpolitik*
- kaiser

MAIN IDEA

The force of nationalism contributed to the formation of two new nations and a new political order in Europe.

WHY IT MATTERS NOW

Nationalism is the basis of world politics today and has often caused conflicts and wars.

SETTING THE STAGE Nationalism was the most powerful ideal of the 1800s. Its influence stretched throughout Europe. Nationalism shaped countries. It also upset the balance of power set up at the Congress of Vienna in 1815, and affected the lives of millions.

The Ideal of Nationalism

Nationalism during the 1800s fueled efforts to build nation-states. Nationalists were not loyal to kings, but to their *people*—to those who shared common bonds. These bonds might include a common history, culture, world-view, or language. Nationalists believed that people of a single “nationality,” or ancestry, should unite under a single government. People would then identify with their government to create a united nation-state.

Romantic nationalists preached that a nation, like a person, has the right to independence. Independence would allow a nation’s identity to develop.

As nationalists saw it, a number of links bound a people together as a nation. Some—though not all—had to exist before a nation-state would evolve and survive. The chart below summarizes those nationalist links.

Background

Nationalists often spoke of a “national character.” Thus, they saw the French as “civilized”; the Germans as “scientific”; the English as “practical.”

PATTERNS OF CHANGE: Nationalism

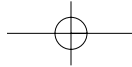
Bonds That Create a Nation-State

Nationality	• A belief in a common ethnic ancestry—a belief that may or may not be true
Language	• Different dialects (forms) of one language; one dialect chosen as the “national language”
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”

Nation-State	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Defends the nation’s territory and its way of life • Represents the nation to the rest of the world • Embodies the people and its ideals
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SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Charts

1. Besides food, dress, behavior, and ideals, what are two other elements that could fall under the category of “culture”?
2. Which factors listed in the upper part of the chart are absolutely necessary to form a nation-state?



Nationalism Shakes Aging Empires

Three aging empires—the Austro-Hungarian Empire of the Hapsburgs, the Russian Empire of the Romanovs, and the Ottoman Empire of the Turks—were a jumble of ethnic groups. After all, territory and peoples had for centuries been pawns in a political chess game for these empires. Land and ethnic groups moved back and forth, 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.

A Force for Disunity or Unity? Nationalist movements were capable of tearing apart long-established empires. They could also create new, unified nation-states. Those who wanted to restore the old order from before the French Revolution saw nationalism as a force for disunity. The kingdoms and empires of the old order often ruled over a variety of ethnic groups. Conservatives of the old order reasoned that if each ethnic group wanted its own state, empires would split and crumble.

Gradually, however, rulers began to see that nationalism could also unify masses of people. The rulers of Europe had seen how the nationalist spirit inspired French citizen armies to conquer the armies of other European powers. Authoritarian rulers soon began to use nationalist feelings for their own purposes. They built nation-states in areas where they remained firmly in control. Nationalism worked as a force for disunity, shaking centuries-old empires. But it also worked as a force for unity. It gave rise to the nation-state that is basic to our world today.

The Breakup of the Austro-Hungarian Empire The Austro-Hungarian Empire brought together 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 new North German Federation. 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.

Nevertheless, nationalist disputes continued to plague the empire for more than 40 years. Finally, after World War I, Austria-Hungary crumbled into separate nation-states.

The Russian Empire Crumbles Nationalism also helped break up the 400-year-old empire of the czars in Russia. In addition to the Russians themselves, the czar ruled over 22 million Ukrainians, 8 million Poles, and smaller numbers of Lithuanians, Latvians, Estonians, Finns, Jews, Romanians, Georgians, Armenians, and Turks. Each group had its own culture.

The ruling Romanov dynasty of Russia was determined to maintain iron control over this diversity. However, their severe policy of Russification—imposing Russian culture on all the ethnic groups in the empire—strengthened nationalist feelings. The rise in nationalism then 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 Ottomans controlled Greeks, Slavs, Arabs, Bulgarians, and Armenians, in addition to the ruling Turks. In 1856, under pressure from the British and the French, the Ottomans issued reforms to grant equal citizenship to all the people under their rule. That measure, however, angered conservative Turks, who wanted no change in the situation, and caused tensions in the empire. For example, in response to nationalism in Armenia, the Ottomans carried out massacres and deportations of Armenians in 1894 to 1896 and in 1915. Like Austria-Hungary, the Ottoman Empire broke apart soon after World War I.

In 1903, Ottoman troops moved against rebellious subjects in Salonika, Greece. A drawing of the period illustrates the event.



Background

In 1867, the Czechs demanded self-rule in the empire, like the Austrians and Hungarians. Ethnic groups in Hungary demanded their own states.

THINK THROUGH HISTORY

A. Making Inferences Why would a policy like Russification tend to produce results that are the opposite of those intended?



CASE STUDY: Italy

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. After the Congress of Vienna in 1815, Austria ruled the Italian provinces of Venetia and Lombardy in the north, and several small states. In the south, the Spanish Bourbon family ruled the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies.

Nevertheless, between 1815 and 1848, increasing numbers of Italians were no longer content to live under foreign rulers. Amid growing discontent, two leaders appeared—one was idealistic, the other practical. They had different personalities and pursued different goals. But each contributed to the unification of Italy.

The Movement for Unity Begins

In 1832, an idealistic 26-year-old Italian named Giuseppe Mazzini (maht-TSEE·nee) organized a nationalist group called Young Italy. No one older than 40 was allowed to join.

During the violent year of 1848, revolts broke out in eight states on the Italian peninsula. Mazzini briefly headed a republican government at Rome. He believed that nation-states were the best hope for social justice, democracy, and peace in Europe. However, the 1848 rebellions failed in Italy as they did elsewhere in Europe. The former rulers of the Italian states drove Mazzini and other nationalist leaders into exile.

Sardinia Leads Italian Unification After 1848, Italian nationalists looked to the Kingdom of Piedmont-Sardinia for leadership. Piedmont-Sardinia was the largest and most powerful of the Italian states. The kingdom had also adopted a liberal constitution in 1848. So, to the Italian middle classes, unification under Piedmont-Sardinia seemed a sensible alternative to Mazzini's democratic idealism.

In 1852, Sardinia's King Victor Emmanuel II named Count **Camillo di Cavour** (kuh-VOOR) as his prime minister. Cavour was a wealthy, middle-aged aristocrat, who worked tirelessly to expand Piedmont-Sardinia's power. With careful diplomacy and well-chosen alliances, he achieved that expansion. Almost as a coincidence, he also achieved the unification of Italy. Mazzini distrusted Cavour. He believed correctly that Cavour wanted to strengthen Sardinia's power, not to unite Italy.

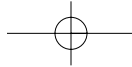
At first, Cavour's major goal was to get control of northern Italy for Sardinia. He carefully went about achieving this territorial goal through diplomacy and cunning. Cavour realized that the greatest roadblock to annexing northern Italy was Austria. To help him expel the Austrians from the north, Cavour found an ally in France. In 1858, the French emperor Napoleon III agreed to help drive Austria out of the northern provinces of Lombardy and Venetia. Cavour soon after provoked a war with Austria. A combined French-Sardinian army won two quick victories against Austria. Sardinia succeeded in taking over all of northern Italy, except Venetia, from the Austrians.

The Unification of Italy, 1858–1870



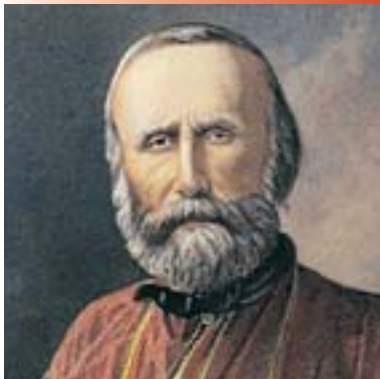
GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Maps

- Region** During what time period was the greatest amount of territory unified in Italy?
- Region** What territory did the Italians actually lose during their process of unification?



Cavour Looks South As Cavour was uniting the north of Italy, he began to consider the possibility of controlling the south. He secretly started helping nationalist rebels in

HISTORY MAKERS



Giuseppe Garibaldi
1807–1882

Giuseppe Garibaldi might have been a character out of a romantic novel. Fisherman, trader, naval commander, guerrilla fighter, poet, rancher, teacher, idealistic revolutionary in Europe and South America—Garibaldi captured the imagination of Europe. The red shirts of his soldiers helped spread his fame, but they started out simply as the cheapest way to clothe his soldiers.

The independence of Italy was Garibaldi's great dream. The French writer Alexandre Dumas wrote of him: "Once mention the word independence, or that of Italy, and he becomes a volcano in eruption."

Garibaldi's bravery attracted the attention of U.S. President Abraham Lincoln. In 1861, Lincoln offered him a command in the Civil War. Garibaldi declined for two reasons: he felt Lincoln did not condemn slavery strongly enough, and he told Lincoln that he wanted to command the entire Union Army!

southern Italy. In May 1860, a small army of Italian nationalists led by a bold and romantic 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 crossed to the Italian mainland and marched north. Volunteers flocked to his banner. In an election, voters gave Garibaldi permission to unite the southern areas he 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.

Challenges After Unification 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. The Roman Catholic popes had governed the territory as both its spiritual and earthly rulers. 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.

Despite unification, Italy suffered from many unsolved problems. Centuries of separation had bred fierce rivalries among the different Italian provinces. The greatest tension arose between the industrialized north and the agricultural south. The people of these two regions had very different ways of life, and they scarcely understood each other's versions of the Italian language. In the Italian parliament, disorganized parties with vague policies constantly squabbled. As a result, prime ministers and cabinets changed frequently.

In addition to its political instability, Italy also faced severe economic problems. Bloody peasant revolts broke out in the south. At the same time, strikes and riots troubled the northern cities. Meanwhile, the Italian government could not deal with the country's economic problems. As a result, Italy entered the 20th century as a poor country.

CASE STUDY: Germany

The Rise of Prussia

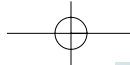
Like Italy, Germany also achieved national unity in the mid-1800s. Since 1815, 39 German states had formed a loose grouping called the German Confederation. The two largest states, the Austro-Hungarian Empire and Prussia, dominated the confederation.

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, while ethnic groups in Austria-Hungary tore it apart. Moreover, Prussia's army was by far the most powerful in central Europe. Finally, Prussia industrialized more quickly than other German states.

Prussia Leads German Unification Like many other European powers, Prussia experienced the disorder of the revolutions of 1848. In that year, Berlin rioters forced the frightened and unstable Prussian king, Frederick William IV, to call a constitutional convention. The convention then drew up a liberal constitution for the kingdom.

In 1861, Wilhelm I succeeded Frederick William to the throne. The strong-minded Wilhelm first moved to reform the army and double the already powerful Prussian

THINK THROUGH HISTORY
B. Analyzing Causes Besides their old rivalries, what is another reason why the Italian provinces might have a hard time cooperating?



military. However, his liberal parliament refused him the money for his reforms.

Wilhelm saw the parliament's refusal as a major challenge to his authority. He was supported in his view by the Junkers (YUNG-kuhrz), members of Prussia's wealthy landowning class. The Junkers were strongly conservative and opposed liberal ideas. For that reason, Wilhelm drew all his ministers and army officers from the Junker class. In 1862, to help solve his problem with parliament, 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 word described tough power politics with no room for idealism. With realpolitik as his style, Bismarck would become one of the commanding figures of German history.

Unable to persuade parliament to grant Wilhelm's desires, Bismarck took a dramatic step. With the king's approval, he declared that he would rule without the consent of parliament and without a legal budget. Those actions were in direct violation of the constitution. In his first speech as prime minister, he defiantly told members of the Prussian parliament, "The great questions of the day will not be settled by speeches or by majority decisions—that was the great mistake of 1848 and 1849—but by blood and iron."

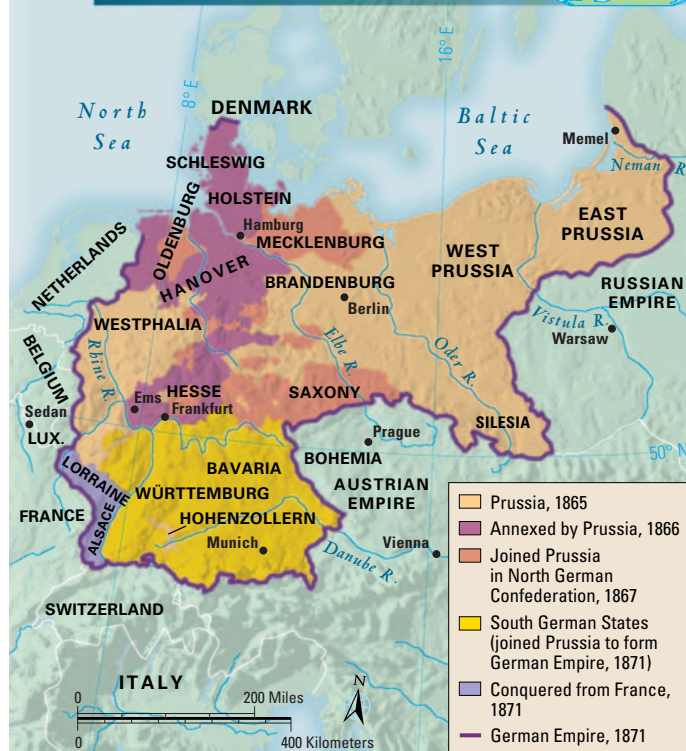
Germany Expands Though he was devoted to country and king, Bismarck was also ambitious. One contemporary described him as a man "who is striving after supreme power, including military power." By working to expand Prussia, he could satisfy both his patriotism and his desire for power. In 1864, Bismarck took the first step toward molding an empire. He formed an alliance between Prussia and Austria. They then 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. Bismarck suspected that this arrangement would soon lead to friction between the two powers. And such tensions would suit his plans perfectly.

Bismarck Eliminates Austria To disable his powerful rival, 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 became known as the Seven Weeks' War. As the name suggests, the war was over quickly. The Prussians used their superior training and equipment to win a smashing victory. They humiliated Austria. The Austrians lost the region of Venetia, which was given to Italy. They also had to accept Prussian annexation of yet 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 a North German Confederation, which Prussia dominated completely.

The Unification of Germany, 1865 – 1871



GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Maps

- Location** What was unusual about the territory of Prussia as it existed in 1865?
- Regions** After 1865, what year saw the biggest expansion of Prussian territory?

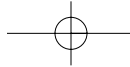
THINK THROUGH HISTORY

C. Drawing Conclusions

Bismarck succeeded in ignoring both the parliament and constitution of Prussia. How do you think his success would affect Prussian government?

Background

Many Germans looked on Austria as their natural leader. Vienna had been capital of the Holy Roman Empire and was a center of German music, art, and literature.



HISTORYMAKERS



Otto von Bismarck
1815–1898

Germans have still not decided how to judge Otto von Bismarck. To some Germans, he 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 a devious politician who abused his powers and led Germany into dictatorship.

Bismarck's complex personality has also fascinated historians. By 1895, 650 books had already been written about his life. His speeches, letters, and his memoirs do not help to simplify him. They show him to be both cunning 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 could claim "We Germans shall never wage aggressive war, ambitious war, a war of conquest."

The Franco-Prussian War By 1867, a few southern German states remained independent of Prussia. The majority of southern Germans were Catholics. So, 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. And he was successful with France. He published an altered version of a diplomatic telegram he had received. The telegram gave a false description of a meeting between Wilhelm I and the French ambassador. In the description, Wilhelm seemed to insult the French. Reacting to the insult, France declared war on Prussia on July 19, 1870.

At once, the Prussian army poured into northern France. In September 1870, the Prussian army surrounded the main French force at Sedan. Among the 80,000 French prisoners taken was Napoleon III himself—a beaten and broken man. Only Paris held out against the Germans. For four months, Parisians withstood a German siege. Finally, 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** (KY-zuhr), or emperor. Germans called their empire the Second Reich. (The Holy Roman Empire was the first.) Bismarck had achieved Prussian dominance over Germany and Europe "by blood and iron," as he had set out to do.

Background

Food became so scarce during the siege of Paris that people ate sawdust, leather, and rats. Parisians even slaughtered animals in the zoo for food.

The Balance of Power Shifts

The 1815 Congress of Vienna established five Great Powers in Europe—Britain, France, Austria, Prussia, and Russia. The wars of the mid-1800s greatly strengthened one of the Great Powers, as Prussia became Germany. In 1815, the Great Powers were nearly equal in strength. By 1871, however, Britain and Germany were clearly the most powerful—both militarily and economically. Austria, Russia, and Italy lagged far behind. France struggled along some-

where 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 European society should follow.

Section 3 Assessment

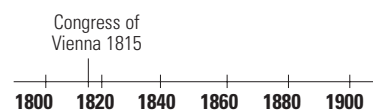
1. TERMS & NAMES

Identify

- Camillo di Cavour
- Giuseppe Garibaldi
- Red Shirts
- Otto von Bismarck
- *realpolitik*
- kaiser

2. TAKING NOTES

On your own paper, make a time line like the one below. On it, show the development of independent nation-states in Europe.



3. ANALYZING ISSUES

Look at the quotation from Bismarck's "blood and iron" speech (page 617). How would you say his approach to settling political issues differed from the approach of liberals?

THINK ABOUT

- the goals of liberals
- the meaning of the phrase "blood and iron"
- Bismarck's goals and how he attained them

4. ANALYZING THEMES

Revolution How might Cavour and Garibaldi have criticized each other as contributors to Italian unity?

THINK ABOUT

- the personalities of the two men
- methods used by Cavour and Garibaldi to win Italian unity

4

Revolutions in the Arts

TERMS & NAMES

- romanticism
- realism
- impressionism

MAIN IDEA

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

WHY IT MATTERS NOW

Romanticism and realism continue to dominate the novels, dramas, and films produced today.

SETTING THE STAGE European countries passed through severe political troubles during the 1800s. At the same time, two separate artistic and intellectual movements divided the century in half. Thinkers and artists focused on ideas of freedom, the rights of individuals, and an idealistic view of history during the first half of the century. After the great revolutions of 1848, political focus shifted to men who practiced *realpolitik*. Similarly, intellectuals and artists expressed a “realistic” view of the world. In their view of the world, the rich pursued their selfish interests while ordinary people struggled and suffered.

The Romantic Movement

At the beginning of the 19th century, the Enlightenment idea of reason gradually gave way to another major movement: romanticism. **Romanticism** was a movement in art and ideas. It showed deep interest both in nature and in the thoughts and feelings of the individual. In many ways, romantic thinkers and writers reacted against the ideals of the Enlightenment. Romantics rejected the rigidly ordered world of the middle-class. They turned from reason to emotion, from society to nature. Nationalism also fired the romantic imagination. For example, a fighter for freedom in Greece, Lord Byron also ranked as one of the leading romantic poets of the time.

The Ideas of Romanticism Emotion, sometimes wild emotion, was a key element of romanticism. Nevertheless, romanticism went beyond feelings. Romantics expressed a wide range of ideas and attitudes. In general, romantic thinkers and artists

- emphasized inner feelings, emotions, imagination
- focused on the mysterious and the supernatural; also, on the odd, exotic, and 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

Not all romantics gave the same emphasis to these features. The brothers Jakob and Wilhelm Grimm, for example, concentrated on history and the sense of national pride it fostered. During the first half of the 19th century, they collected German fairy tales. They also created a dictionary and grammar of the German language. Both the tales and the dictionary of the Grimm brothers celebrated the spirit of

Though created in the early 20th century, this watercolor of British artist Arthur Rackham is full of romantic fantasy. It illustrates the tale “The Old Woman in the Wood” by Jakob and Wilhelm Grimm.



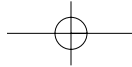
THINK THROUGH HISTORY

A. Analyzing Causes

Which ideas of romanticism would encourage nationalism?

Background

The Grimm brothers also collected tales from other countries: England, Scotland, Ireland, Spain, the Netherlands, Scandinavia, and Serbia.



being German. And they celebrated the German spirit long before Germans had united into a single country.

Other writers and artists focused on strong individuals. They glorified real or mythical rebels and leaders, such as Napoleon or the legendary King Arthur. Still others celebrated the beauty and mystery of unspoiled nature. For example, one of France's leading romantic novelists, Amandine Aurore Dupin (better known as George Sand), lovingly described the French countryside and country life. British writer Emily Brontë set her powerful romantic novel, *Wuthering Heights*, in the windswept moors of northern England. The British poet William Blake believed he could “see a World in a Grain of Sand/And a Heaven in a Wild Flower.” In painting, English romantic artist Joseph Turner captured the raging of the sea. Another English artist, John Constable, celebrated the peaceful English countryside. Whatever their particular emphasis, romantic writers and artists affected all the arts.

Romanticism in Literature Germany produced one of the earliest and greatest romantic writers. In 1774, Johann Wolfgang von Goethe (YO-hahn VUHLLF-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.

Victor Hugo led the French romantics. Hugo's huge output of poems, plays, and novels expressed romanticism's revolutionary spirit. His works also reflect the romantic fascination with history and support for the individual. His novels *Les Misérables* and *The Hunchback of Notre Dame* both show the struggles of individuals against a hostile society.

The British romantic poets William Wordsworth and Samuel Taylor Coleridge both honored nature as the source of truth and beauty. To Wordsworth, nature was richly alive. Coleridge, on the other hand, put the accent on horror and the supernatural in his poem “The Rime of the Ancient Mariner.” Later English romantic poets, such as

Byron, Shelley, and 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.

The Gothic Novel The Gothic horror story was a form that became hugely popular. These novels often took place in medieval Gothic castles. They were also filled with fearful, violent, sometimes supernatural events. Mary Shelley, wife of the poet Percy 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. The following passage shows Mary Shelley's romantic imagination at work. She describes how the idea for the monster took shape. After an evening telling ghost stories with her husband and Lord Byron, the following vision appeared to her:

A VOICE FROM THE PAST

Night waned upon this talk, and even the witching hour had gone by, before we retired to rest. When I placed my head on my pillow, I did not sleep, nor could I be said to think. My imagination, unbidden, possessed and guided me. . . . I saw—with shut eyes, but acute mental vision—I saw the pale student of [unholy] arts kneeling beside the thing he had put together. I saw the hideous phantasm of a man stretched out, and then, on the working of some powerful engine, show signs of life, and stir with an uneasy, half-vital motion.

MARY SHELLEY, Introduction to *Frankenstein*

Background

Dupin used the pen name George Sand because she knew that critics would not take a woman writer seriously.

Background

Victor Hugo championed the cause of freedom in France. When Napoleon III overthrew the Second Republic, Hugo left France in protest.

SPOTLIGHT ON

Frankenstein

In *Frankenstein*, a rational scientist, Dr. Frankenstein, oversteps the limits of humanity by creating life itself. Since his goal is unnatural, he succeeds only in creating a physical monster who cannot live with humans because of his ugliness.

In addition to Gothic horror, the novel embodies a number of major romantic themes. Mary Shelley warns of the danger of humans meddling with nature. Also, despite his horrible appearance, the creature is sensitive and gentle. Like many romantics of Shelley's day, the creature feels lost in an unsympathetic and alien world. Finally, his solitude drives him to madness.

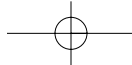
The story of *Frankenstein*, originally published in 1818, still enjoys an enormous readership. The book has inspired many films—some serious, such as *Frankenstein* with actor Boris Karloff, and some satirical, such as producer Mel Brooks's *Young Frankenstein*.



THINK THROUGH HISTORY

B. Summarizing

What are some of the feelings that are key to romantic literature and art?



Background

To express powerful emotions, romantic composers increased the size of symphony orchestras. They added large numbers of wind, brass, and percussion instruments.

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

One of romanticism's first composers rose to become its greatest: Ludwig van Beethoven (LOOD-vihg vahn BAY-toh-vuhn). In his early years, Beethoven wrote the classical music of the Enlightenment. But in later years, he turned to romantic compositions. His Ninth Symphony soars, celebrating freedom, dignity, and triumph.

While they never matched Beethoven's greatness, 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) was popular both with other musicians and with the public. Chopin's compositions, such as his first and second piano concertos, contain melodies that are still familiar today.

Romanticism made music a popular art form. As music became part of middle-class life, musicians and composers became popular heroes of romanticism. Composer and pianist Franz Liszt (lihst), for example, achieved earnings and popularity equal to that of today's rock stars.

The Shift to Realism

By the middle of the 19th century, rapid industrialization had a deep effect on everyday life in Europe. And this change began to make the dreams of the romantics seem pointless. In literature and the visual arts, **realism** tried to show life as it is, not as it should be. Realist painting reflected the increasing political importance of the working class in the 1850s. The growing class of industrial workers lived grim lives in dirty, crowded cities. Along with paintings, novels proved especially suited to describing workers' suffering. The interest in science and the scientific method during this period encouraged this "realistic" approach to art and literature. Science operated through objective observation and the reporting of facts. That new invention, the camera, also recorded objective and precise images. In the same way, realist authors observed and reported as precisely and objectively as they could.

Writers Study Society Realism in literature flourished in France with writers such as Honoré de Balzac and Emile Zola. Balzac wrote a massive series of almost one hundred novels entitled *The Human Comedy*. These stories detail the lives of over 2,000 people from all levels of French society following the Revolution. They also describe in detail the brutal struggle for wealth and power among France's business class. Zola's explosive novels scandalized France at the end of the 1800s. He exposed the miseries of French workers in small shops, factories, and coal mines. His revelations shocked readers. His work spurred reforms of labor laws and working conditions in France.

The famous English realist novelist, Charles Dickens, created unforgettable characters and scenes. Many were humorous, but others showed the despair of London's

HISTORY MAKERS



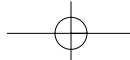
Ludwig van Beethoven
1770–1827

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. His composing and concerts went on as before. By 1802, however, he knew that his hearing would only worsen. He suffered then from bouts of depression. The depressions 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. . . .

After 1819, Beethoven's friends had to write their questions to him in notebooks. He continued to compose, however, and left many "sketchbooks" of musical ideas he would never hear.



HISTORY THROUGH ART: **Fine Art**

Artistic Movements

In the 19th century, as always, artistic movements reflected the social conditions of the time. During the first half of the century, common people began to fight for political power. During that same period, romanticism was the dominant artistic style.

By mid-century, political realism had taken over. At the same time, art began to celebrate working, sweating, everyday people. But the romantic ideal did not die. By the end of the century, a new movement called impressionism portrayed the life of middle-class people as a beautiful dream.



Romanticism

Romantic landscape artists idealized nature. Some emphasized the harmony between humans and nature. Others showed nature's power and mystery, as in this painting, *Moonrise Over the Sea*, by German artist Caspar David Friedrich. Still other romantic artists focused on heroes and scenes from history, legend, or literature.

Realism

Realist artists reacted against the dreams of the romantics. These artists believed that their art should portray people as they really were, not as they should be. *The Winnowers*, by Gustave Courbet, the most famous realist, shows the world of everyday work. The winnowers are removing hulls from newly harvested grain. Courbet does not romanticize the work. He records it.



Impressionism

Impressionists aimed at capturing their immediate "impression" of a brief moment. They used bright colors and loose brushwork to catch the fleeting light that sparkles and shimmers. As a result, *Poppies at Argenteuil* by Claude Monet shows less attention to exact "realistic" detail than does *The Winnowers*. It also does not express the sense of serene mystery of *Moonrise Over the Sea*.

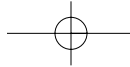
Connect to History

Synthesizing Artists choose specific elements for their paintings to create the world they want to show. Compare the settings, use of color and light, sharpness of line, and atmosphere of these paintings.

 [SEE SKILLBUILDER HANDBOOK, PAGE R18](#)

Connect to Today

Comparing Look for examples of modern art in books and magazines. Show examples of paintings where artists still use techniques that could be called romantic or realist or impressionist.



working poor. In this passage, Dickens describes the gloom of working-class life:

A VOICE FROM THE PAST

It was a Sunday evening in London, gloomy, close, and stale. . . . Melancholy streets, in a penitential garb of soot, steeped the souls of the people who were condemned to look at them out of windows, in dire despondency. . . . No pictures, no unfamiliar animals, no rare plants or flowers. . . . Nothing for the spent toiler to do, but to compare the monotony of his seventh day with the monotony of his six days, think what a weary life he led, and make the best of it.

CHARLES DICKENS, *Little Dorrit*

Vocabulary

despondency: lack of hope

THINK THROUGH HISTORY

C. Analyzing

Causes Why do you think a description of London like Dickens's might lead to social change?

Background

Daguerre's photo process required about 20–30 minutes exposure time—a big advance over a previous method that took eight hours.

Photographers Capture the Passing Moment 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-TYPS). They were named after their French inventor, Louis Daguerre. Daguerre was an artist who created scenery for theaters. To improve the realism of his scenery, Daguerre developed his photographic invention. The images produced in his daguerrotypes were startlingly real and won him worldwide fame.

Daguerrotype prints were made on metal. However, the British inventor William Talbot invented a light-sensitive paper that he used to produce photographic negatives. The advantage of paper 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.

Impressionists React Against Realism Beginning in the 1860s, a group of painters in Paris reacted against the realistic style. Instead of showing life “as it really is,” they tried giving their impression of a subject or a moment in time. For this reason, this 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.

Artists like Edouard Manet (mah-NAY), Claude Monet (moh-NAY), Edgar Degas (duh-GAH), and Pierre-Auguste Renoir (ruhn-WHAR) also found new subjects for their art. 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 dock workers enjoying themselves in dance halls and cafés. They painted performers in the theater and circuses. And they glorified the delights of the life of the rising middle class.



“Ships at Low Tide,” an early photograph taken in 1844 by William Talbot.

Section 4 Assessment

1. TERMS & NAMES

Identify

- romanticism
- realism
- impressionism

2. TAKING NOTES

Using a chart like the one below, contrast romanticism, realism, and impressionism. For each movement, provide a brief description, the social conditions that each reflects, and representative artists.

Movement	Description	Social Conditions	Artists
Romanticism			
Realism			
Impressionism			

3. ANALYZING CAUSES

How might a realist novel bring about changes in society? Describe the steps by which this might happen.

THINK ABOUT

- the conditions described in realist novels
- who reads realist novels
- how political change takes place

4. THEME ACTIVITY

Revolution Listen to a symphony or concerto by Beethoven. Imagine that you are a music critic who has previously heard only formal classical compositions. Write a review of Beethoven's piece. Make the theme of your review the revolutionary quality of Beethoven's music—which you may admire or dislike.

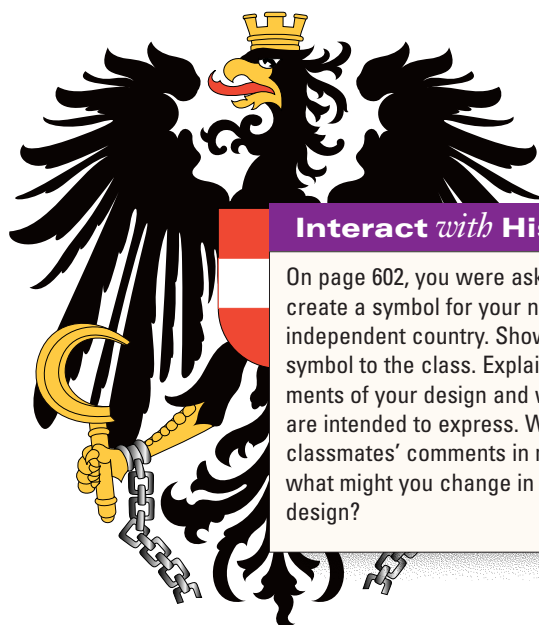


Chapter 24 Assessment

TERMS & NAMES

Briefly explain the importance of each of the following to the revolutions in Latin America or Europe.

1. creoles
2. Simón Bolívar
3. conservatives
4. liberals
5. nationalism
6. Camillo di Cavour
7. Otto von Bismarck
8. realpolitik
9. romanticism
10. realism



Interact with History

On page 602, you were asked to create a symbol for your newly independent country. Show your symbol to the class. Explain the elements of your design and what they are intended to express. With your classmates' comments in mind, what might you change in your design?

REVIEW QUESTIONS

SECTION 1 (pages 603–608)

Latin American Peoples Win Independence

11. What caused the creoles in South America to rebel against Spain?
12. What role did Agustín de Iturbide play in the independence of Mexico and of the countries of Central America?
13. Who was Dom Pedro, and what role did he play in Brazil's move to independence?

SECTION 2 (pages 609–612)

Revolutions Disrupt Europe

14. Why did so many people in Europe and North America support the revolution of Greek nationalists against the Ottoman Empire?
15. How successful were the revolts of 1848? Explain.

SECTION 3 (pages 613–618)

Nationalism

Case Studies: Italy and Germany

16. How did nationalism in the 1800s work as a force both for disunity and for unity?
17. What approaches did Camillo di Cavour use to try to acquire more territory for Piedmont-Sardinia?
18. What strategy did Otto von Bismarck use to try to make Prussia the leader of a united Germany?

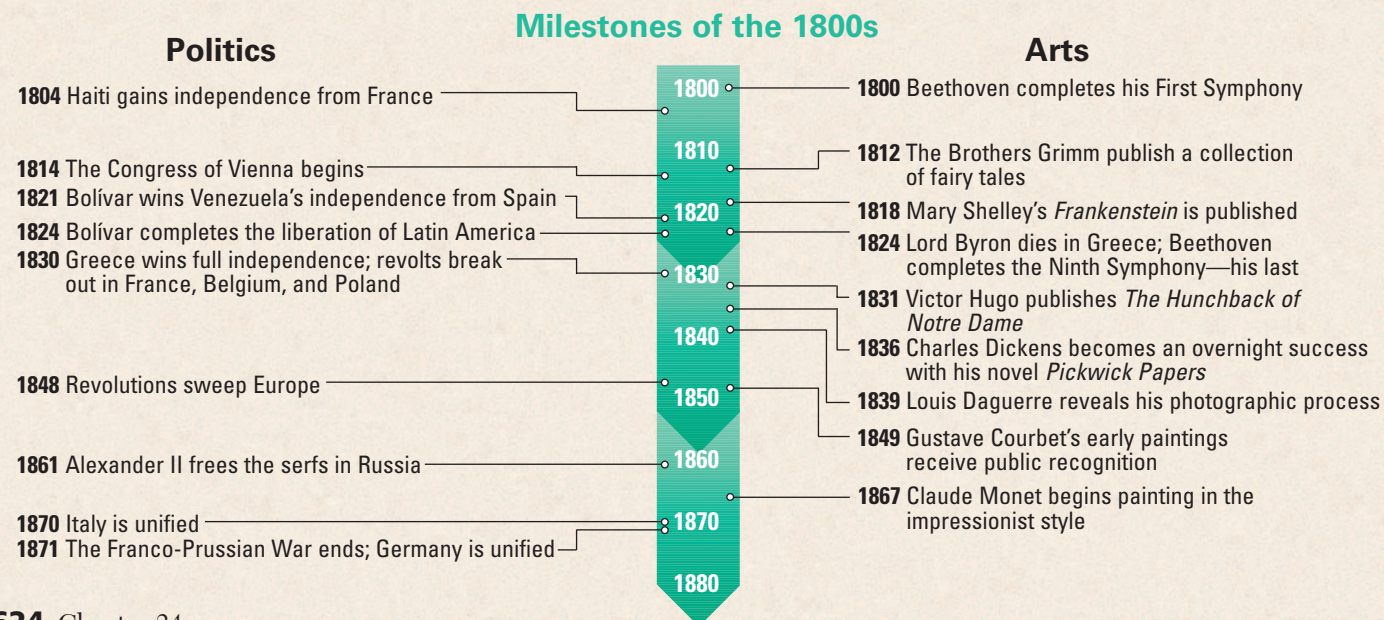
SECTION 4 (pages 619–623)

Revolutions in the Arts

19. Name two ideas or attitudes of the romantic movement that reflected the ideals of nationalism.
20. What new conditions caused a change in the arts from romanticism to realism?

Visual Summary

Nationalist Revolutions Sweep the West





CRITICAL THINKING

1. GARIBALDI'S CHOICE

THEME POWER AND AUTHORITY Giuseppe Garibaldi stepped aside to let Victor Emmanuel II rule areas that Garibaldi had conquered in southern Italy. Why do you think he made that choice?

2. NATIONALISM

Using a chart like the one below, describe the nationalist movement in each of the following countries and the results of those movements.

Country	Nationalism and its Results
Mexico	
Greece	
Italy	
Germany	

3. THE MEANS TO VICTORY

In the 1800s, revolutionaries often fought with inferior weapons and scarce supplies. 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. ANALYZING PRIMARY SOURCES

In a speech to the German parliament in 1888, Otto von Bismarck called for further expansion of the army. In the following quote from that speech, “the Iron Chancellor” explains why Germany must always be prepared for war.

A VOICE FROM THE PAST

When I say that we must strive continually to be ready for all emergencies, I advance the proposition that, on account of our geographical position, we must make greater efforts than other powers would be obliged to make in view of the same ends. We lie in the middle of Europe. We have at least three fronts on which we can be attacked. France has only an eastern boundary; Russia only its western, exposed to assault. . . . So we are spurred forward on both sides to endeavors which perhaps we would not make otherwise.

OTTO VON BISMARCK, speech to the German parliament on February 6, 1888.

- According to Bismarck, what key factor makes Germany a potential target for invasion? Why?
- Do you think Bismarck might have been overstating the threat to Germany? Explain.

CHAPTER ACTIVITIES

1. LIVING HISTORY: Unit Portfolio Project

THEME REVOLUTION Your unit portfolio project focuses on showing the similarities and differences among revolutions (see page 509). For Chapter 24, you might use one of the following ideas.

- Ask classmates to role-play bystanders present at Padre Hidalgo's *grito de Dolores*. Ask them to share their feelings. Audiotape their comments and use them to write a newspaper report about reactions to the event.
- Write a speech that might have been delivered to a rally somewhere in Europe. Urge the country's leaders to help the Greeks in their struggle for independence from the Ottoman Empire.
- Create a “How-to Booklet for Nationalists,” based on the strategies used either by Cavour or by Bismarck.

2. CONNECT TO TODAY: Research Project

THEME CULTURAL INTERACTION Romanticism and realism in the arts reflected social and political conditions. These two artistic movements still exist today. Create a chart comparing romantic and realistic aspects of modern films.



Use the Internet, newspapers, magazines, or your own personal experience to search for romantic and realistic portrayals of social and political conditions in movies today.

- For your chart, list examples of modern films that are romantic and list films that are realistic. Include still shots from movies that support your findings.
- In your search, consider movies from at least three countries.

3. INTERPRETING A TIME LINE

Revisit the unit time line on pages 508–509. If you were shown only the period from 1820 to 1848, what fate would you predict for Europe's old order? Why?

FOCUS ON POLITICAL CARTOONS

The 19th-century French cartoonist Charles Philipon was testing a law to see how far away an artist could get from the true features of Louis-Philippe before being condemned to prison and a fine. Since the French word *poire* (“pear”) also means “fool,”

- how does the cartoonist show King Louis-Philippe developing as a monarch?
- what do you think was the legal fate of the cartoonist?

Connect to History What right was Charles Philipon standing up for by drawing his cartoon and testing the law?

LES POIRES,
Parait le jour d'après le mardi par le Directeur de la Presse.
Vendues pour payer les 6,000 fr. d'amende du journal le *Charivari*.
(CHEZ ALBERT, GALERIE VERO-DODAT)

Si, pour reconnaître le monarque dans une caricature, vous n'attendez pas qu'il soit déguisé autrement que par la ressemblance, vous tombez dans l'erreur. Voyez ces rois admettez, toujours d'après les principes du bon sens et de la justice.

Ce roi-ci ressemble à Louis-Philippe, vous condamneriez donc?

Alors il faudra condamner celui-ci, qui ressemble au premier.

Eh! condamner cet autre, qui ressemble au second!

Et enfin, si vous êtes conséquents, vous ne sauriez absoudre cette poire, qui ressemble aux autres précédentes. Alors, pour une poire, pour une bêtise, et pour rendre les idées grossières dans l'empire, le bon et le malice sera-t-elle cette fois en remembrance, vous serez obligés d'arrêter sans motif, et cinq mille francs d'amende!! Avez-vous, Messieurs, que c'est là une singulière liberté de la presse!!

