An Age of Democracy and Progress, 1815–1914

Connect History and Geography

By the start of the 20th century, political reforms were taking place in a number of industrial nations. As the map at the right shows, however, only a few Western nations had democratic governments in 1900. Use the map to answer the questions below.

1. What Western democracies existed in 1900?
2. What have you learned in previous chapters about similarities among these countries or connections among them?
3. Why do you think so few Western nations were democratic in 1900?

In Paris, the 984-foot-tall Eiffel Tower opened in 1889. Bridge engineer Gustave Eiffel designed the tower to mark the hundredth anniversary of the French Revolution.

For more information about Western democracies in the 19th and 20th centuries . . .

CLASSZONE.COM

Kansas Pioneers, by George Melville Stone, depicts Americans making the westward journey across the Great Plains by Conestoga wagon.

1815

1837
Queen Victoria comes to power.

1845
Ireland struck by famine.

656
Western Democracies, 1900

- 1859: Darwin publishes theory of evolution.
- 1867: Dominion of Canada formed.
- 1876: Bell demonstrates telephone.
- 1889: Eiffel Tower completed.
You live in a glorious age. Trains and telegraphs are not even 50 years old—and so much remains to be discovered! You’re something of a tinkerer yourself. Maybe you can perfect a gas-powered engine and invent the car. Or maybe you can invent a device to use electricity to light up a room! But wait—if people could move five times faster, would they really be happier? What are the dangers of playing with strange new forces such as electricity and X-rays? Considering all the possible consequences . . .

What would you invent?

The invention of the electric light can turn night into day. What will people do with the extra daylight hours?

EXAMINING the ISSUES

- What were the drawbacks of living in a time before telephones, cars, electric lights, radios, and so on?
- What might have been better about life before the “progress” of the 19th century—and for whom?
- How might inventions affect social life: the closeness of families, the gap between rich and poor, the power of different social groups?

Break into groups and have each group choose one truly beneficial invention of the past two centuries. Debate one another’s choices and see if you can find some costs, as well as benefits, of each invention.

As you read this chapter, consider how invention and democracy were intertwined in the 19th century. How did each promote the other? Think about the Industrial Revolution and its consequences. Also consider more recent inventions, such as compact disc players and the Internet.
Urbanization and industrialization brought sweeping changes to Western nations. People looking for solutions to the problems created by these developments began to demand reforms. They wanted to improve conditions for workers and the poor. Many people also began to call for political reforms. They demanded that ordinary people be given a greater voice in government.

Britain Adopts Democratic Reforms

As Chapter 21 explained, Britain became a constitutional monarchy in the late 1600s. And it remains so today. Under this system of government, the monarch serves as the head of state, but Parliament holds the real power. The British Parliament consists of a House of Lords and a House of Commons. Members of the House of Lords either inherit their seats or are appointed. Members of the House of Commons are elected by the British people.

In the early 1800s, the British government was not a true democracy. Only about 6 percent of the population had the right to elect the members of the House of Commons. Voting was limited to men who owned a substantial amount of land. Women could not vote at all. As a result, the upper classes ran the government.

During the 1800s, however, democracy gradually expanded in Great Britain. The ideas of liberalism that were popular in France and other countries spread among Britain’s growing middle and working classes. These groups demanded a greater share of the power held by the aristocratic landowners. Yet unlike the French, the British achieved reforms without the bitter bloodshed of revolution.

The Reform Bill of 1832

The first group to demand a greater voice in politics was the wealthy middle class—factory owners, bankers, merchants. Beginning in 1830, protests took place around England in favor of a bill in Parliament that would extend suffrage, or the right to vote. The Revolution of 1830 in France frightened parliamentary leaders. They feared that revolutionary violence would spread to Britain. Thus, Parliament passed the Reform Bill of 1832. This law eased the property requirements so that well-to-do men in the middle class could vote.

The Reform Bill also modernized the districts for electing members of Parliament. Many of the old districts were areas owned by aristocrats and actually contained few people. In contrast, cities such as Manchester and Sheffield had no representatives in Parliament. The Reform Bill eliminated the so-called “rotten boroughs,” or empty districts, and gave the thriving new industrial cities more representation.

Workers Demand Suffrage

Although the Reform Bill increased the number of British voters, only about one in five men were now eligible to
vote. The passage of the bill, however, encouraged reformers. Among the workers and other groups who still could not vote, a popular movement arose to press for more rights. It was called the **Chartist movement** because the group first presented its demands to Parliament on a petition called The People’s Charter of 1838.

The People’s Charter called for suffrage for all men and annual Parliamentary elections. It also proposed to reform Parliament in other ways. In Britain at the time, eligible men voted openly by voice. Since their vote was not secret, they could feel pressure to vote in a certain way. Moreover, members of Parliament had to own land and received no salary, so they needed to be independently wealthy. The Chartists wanted to make Parliament more responsive to the interests of the lower classes. To achieve this, they demanded a secret ballot, an end to the property requirements for serving in Parliament, and pay for members of Parliament.

Parliament rejected the Chartists’ demands. However, their protests convinced many people that workers had sound complaints. Over the years, workers continued to press for political reform, and Parliament eventually responded. It gave the vote to working-class men in 1867 and to male rural workers in 1884. After 1884, therefore, most adult males in Britain had the right to vote. By the early 1900s, all the demands of the Chartists, except for annual elections, became law.

**The Victorian Age** The figure who presided over all this historic change was **Queen Victoria**. Victoria came to the throne in 1837 at the age of 18. She was queen for 64 years, one of the longest reigns in history. During the Victorian Age, the British empire reached the height of its wealth and power. Victoria was popular with her subjects, and she performed her duties wisely and capably. However, she was forced to accept a new, virtually powerless role for the British monarchy.

The kings who preceded Victoria in the 1700s and 1800s had exercised great influence over Parliament. The spread of democracy in the 1800s shifted political power almost completely to Parliament, and especially to the elected House of Commons. Now the government was completely run by the prime minister and the cabinet. Thus, ever since Queen Victoria, British monarchs have been mainly symbolic rulers with no political power.

**Women Demand the Vote** By 1890, several industrial countries had universal male suffrage (the right of all men to vote). No country, however, allowed women to vote. As more men gained suffrage, more women demanded the same.
Riding the Rails

If you want to travel quickly and cheaply, you can’t beat the new and improved British railways. Regular trains will speed you to your destination at 20 miles an hour; on express routes, you’ll whiz along at nearly 40. Here are some tips for happier traveling:

- Bring your own candles if you intend to read at night.
- Prepare to rent a metal foot warmer if you’re taking a winter journey.
- Bring your own food or prepare to brave the crowds at station restaurants.
- For long journeys, tote a chamber pot in a basket.

Cholera Comes from Bad Water

London: This fall, Dr. John Snow published a revised edition of his 1849 pamphlet entitled “On the Mode of Communication of Cholera.” In his pamphlet, Dr. Snow uses case examples to show that contaminated drinking water caused the cholera epidemics that killed thousands of poor Londoners in 1831–1832, 1848–1849, and 1854. Dr. Snow’s critics scorn his theory, maintaining that cholera spreads from the air that surrounds rubbish heaps.

Victorian Ladies’ News

Mind Your Tea and Cakes

Taking afternoon tea at about 5:00 p.m. has become as English as London fog, but tea drinkers should be careful to buy supplies only from reputable sources. Some so-called tea merchants add coloring to convert blackthorn leaves into something that looks like tea. In London, several factories dye recycled tea leaves for dishonest merchants to sell as new tea.

Be careful, too, about those cakes you serve with your tea. To get the brightest colors to decorate cakes, some dishonest bakers use dangerous chemicals: copper and zinc to get gold and silver; iron for blue and lead for red; and even arsenic for green.

Researching

Using the library or Internet, research some aspect of American culture that shows an example of either tradition or dramatic change. As possible subjects, consider transportation, communications, entertainment, or fashion.

Connect to Today

Connect to History

Synthesizing List examples from this page to demonstrate that popular culture in Victorian England admired both tradition and change.

SEE SKILLBUILDER HANDBOOK, PAGE R18
Organization and Resistance  During the 1800s, women in both Great Britain and the United States worked to gain the right to vote. In the United States, women such as Lucretia Mott and Elizabeth Cady Stanton organized a campaign for women’s rights as early as 1848. From a convention in Seneca Falls, New York, they issued a declaration of women’s rights modeled on the Declaration of Independence. “We hold these truths to be self-evident,” the declaration stated, “that all men and women are created equal.”

A VOICE FROM THE PAST
The history of mankind is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations on the part of man toward woman, having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over her. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

He has never permitted her to exercise her inalienable right to the elective franchise. He has compelled her to submit to laws in the formation of which she has no voice.

THE SENECA FALLS CONVENTION, “Declaration of Sentiments”

British women, too, organized reform societies and protested unfair laws and customs. As women became more vocal, however, resistance to their demands grew. Many people, both men and women, thought that women’s suffrage was too radical a break with tradition. Some claimed that women lacked the ability to take part in politics.

Militant Protests  After decades of peaceful efforts to win the right to vote, some women took more drastic steps. In Britain, Emmeline Pankhurst formed the Women’s Social and Political Union (WSPU) in 1903. The WSPU became the most militant organization for women’s rights. Besides peaceful demonstrations and parades, its members heckled government speakers, cut telegraph wires, and committed arson. Their goal was to draw attention to the cause of women’s suffrage.

Emmeline Pankhurst, her daughters Christabel and Sylvia, and other WSPU members were arrested and imprisoned many times. When they were jailed, the Pankhursts led hunger strikes to keep their cause in the public eye. British officials force-fed Sylvia and other activists to keep them alive. One WSPU member, Emily Davison, did give her life for the women’s movement. As a protest, she threw herself in front of the king’s horse at the English Derby.

Though the women’s suffrage movement commanded wide attention between 1880 and 1914, its successes were gradual. Women did not win the right to vote in national elections in Great Britain and the United States until after World War I.

Democracy in France

While Great Britain moved toward true democracy in the late 1800s, democracy finally took permanent hold in France. However, France’s road to democracy was rocky.

The Third Republic  In the aftermath of the Franco-Prussian War, France went through a series of crises. After being released by Prussia, Napoleon III spent his last years in exile in Britain. France’s National Assembly met to decide on a new government.

Meanwhile, in March 1871, a radical government called the Paris Commune took control of Paris. In May, troops loyal to the National Assembly marched into the city. Parisian workers threw up barricades in the streets and fought the army block by block. After a week of fighting, the army stamped out the Communards, as supporters of the Commune were called. About 20,000 Parisians were massacred, and much of the city burned.

Not until 1875 could the National Assembly agree on a new government. Eventually, the members voted to set up a republic. In the words of a leading French politician, it

Background
During the Franco-Prussian War, the Germans captured Napoleon III and held Paris under siege for four months. The siege ended in late January 1871.
was “the system of government that divides us least.” The Third Republic, as this new system was called, lasted over 60 years. However, France remained bitterly divided. A dozen political parties competed for power. Between 1871 and 1914, France averaged a change of government every ten months.

**The Dreyfus Affair** During the 1880s and 1890s, the unsteady Third Republic was threatened by monarchists, aristocrats, clergy, and army leaders. These groups wanted to return France to a monarchy or to have military rule. A controversy known as the Dreyfus affair became a battleground for these opposing forces. Widespread feelings of anti-Semitism, or prejudice against Jews, also played a role in this scandal.

In 1894, Captain Alfred Dreyfus, one of the few Jewish officers in the French army, was accused of selling military secrets to Germany. A court found him guilty, based on false evidence, and sentenced him to life in prison. In a few years, new evidence showed that Dreyfus had been framed by other army officers.

Public opinion was sharply divided over the scandal. Many army leaders, nationalists, leaders in the clergy, and anti-Jewish groups refused to let the case be reopened. They feared sudden action would cast doubt on the honor of the army. Dreyfus’s defenders insisted that justice was more important and that he should be freed. In 1898, the writer Émile Zola published an open letter titled *J'accuse!* (I Accuse) in a popular French newspaper. In the letter, Zola denounced the army for covering up a scandal. Zola was given a year in prison for his views, but his letter gave strength to Dreyfus’s cause. Eventually, the French government officially declared his innocence.

**The Rise of Zionism** The Dreyfus case showed the strength of anti-Semitism in France and other parts of Western Europe. However, persecution of Jews was even more severe in Eastern Europe. Russian officials, for example, permitted and even encouraged pogroms (puh-GRAHMS)—organized campaigns of violence against Jewish communities. From the late 1880s on, thousands of Jews fled Eastern Europe. Many headed for the United States.

For many Jews, the long history of exile and persecution convinced them that they should work for a separate homeland in Palestine. In the 1890s, a movement known as Zionism developed to pursue this goal. Its leader was Theodor Herzl (HEHRT-suhl), a writer in Vienna. It took many years, however, before the state of Israel was established, making the dream a reality.
SETTING THE STAGE  By 1800, Great Britain had colonies around the world. These included small outposts in Africa and Asia. In these areas, the British managed trade with the local peoples, but they had little influence over the population at large. In the colonies of Canada, Australia, and New Zealand, on the other hand, European colonists had overrun and replaced the native populations. As Britain industrialized and prospered in the 1800s, so did these colonies. Like the United States, which had already broken away from British rule, some of these colonies were becoming strong enough to stand on their own.

Canada Struggles for Self-Rule

Canada was originally home to many Native American peoples, including the Algonquin, Huron, Cree, Blackfoot, and Inuit. The first European country to colonize Canada was France. Great Britain took possession of the country in 1763, following the French and Indian War. The thousands of French who remained there lived mostly in the lower St. Lawrence Valley. Many English-speaking colonists arrived in Canada after it came under British rule. Some came from Great Britain, and others were Americans who had stayed loyal to Britain after the American Revolution. They settled separately from the French—mostly along the Atlantic seaboard and north of the Great Lakes.

The earliest French colonists had included many fur trappers and missionaries. They tended to live among the Native Americans rather than displace them. Some French intermarried with Native Americans. As more French and British settlers arrived, they took over much of eastern and southern Canada. Native groups in the north and west, however, remained largely undisturbed until later in the 1800s.

French and English Canada  Religious and cultural differences between the mostly Roman Catholic French and the mainly Protestant English-speaking colonists caused conflict in Canada. Both groups also pressed Britain for a greater voice in governing their own affairs. In 1791 the British Parliament tried to resolve both issues by creating two new Canadian provinces. Upper Canada (now Ontario) had an English-speaking majority. Lower Canada (now Quebec) had a French-speaking majority. Each province had its own elected assembly with limited powers.

The Durham Report  The division of Upper and Lower Canada eased colonial tensions only temporarily. In both colonies, the royal governor and a small group of wealthy British held most of the power. During the early 1800s, the people in both colonies, led by middle-class professionals, began to demand political and economic reforms. In Lower Canada, these demands were also fueled by French resentment toward British rule. In the late 1830s, rebellions broke out in both colonies.

TERMS & NAMES
- dominion
- Maori
- Aborigine
- penal colony
- home rule
Upper and Lower Canada. The British Parliament remembered the events that had led to the American Revolution. So, it sent a reform-minded statesman, Lord Durham, to investigate Canadians’ demands for self-rule.

Durham’s report, issued in 1839, urged two major reforms. First, Upper and Lower Canada should be reunited as the Province of Canada, and British immigration should be encouraged. In this way, Durham said, the French would slowly become part of the dominant English culture. Second, colonists in the provinces of Canada should be allowed to govern themselves in domestic matters. Parliament should regulate only in matters of foreign policy. Within ten years, both proposals had been carried out.

**The Dominion of Canada** By the mid-1800s, many Canadians believed that Canada needed a central government. A central government would be better able to protect the interests of Canadians against the United States, whose territory now extended from the Atlantic to the Pacific oceans. In 1867, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick joined with the Province of Canada to form the Dominion of Canada. As a dominion, Canada was self-governing in domestic affairs but remained part of the British Empire.

**Canada’s Westward Expansion** Canada’s first prime minister, John MacDonald, quickly expanded Canada westward by purchasing lands and persuading frontier territories to join the Canadian union. Canada stretched to the Pacific Ocean by 1871. MacDonald also began the construction of a transcontinental railroad to unite distant parts of the dominion. It was completed in 1885.

The dominion government also took other steps to strengthen Canada. It encouraged foreign investment to develop Canada’s rich supply of natural resources. It also encouraged immigration to provide a labor force for Canada’s farms and factories.

**Australia and New Zealand**

The British sea captain James Cook claimed New Zealand in 1769 and Australia in 1770 for Great Britain. Both lands were already inhabited. On New Zealand, Cook was greeted by the *Maoris*, a Polynesian people who had settled on New Zealand’s two main islands around A.D. 800. Maori culture was based on farming, hunting, and fishing. Although the Maoris had driven away Dutch explorers in the 1640s, they made peace with Cook. As British colonization began, however, they stood ready to defend their land.

When Cook reached Australia, he considered the land uninhabited. In fact, Australia was sparsely populated by *Aborigines*, as Europeans later called the native peoples. These nomadic peoples fished, hunted, and gathered food. As they did not practice warfare among themselves, they at first raised little resistance to the flood of British immigrants who settled their country.

**Britain’s Penal Colony** Britain began colonizing Australia in 1788—not with ordinary settlers, but with convicted criminals. The prisons in England were severely overcrowded. To solve this problem, the British government established a penal colony in Australia. A **penal colony** is a place where convicts were sent to serve their sentences as an alternative to prison. Many European nations used penal colonies as a way to prevent overcrowding of their prisons. After their release, the freed convicts could buy land and settle as free men and women.
Free Settlers Arrive  In time, the former convicts in both Australia and New Zealand were joined by other British settlers who came of their own free will. In the early 1800s, an Australian settler named John MacArthur experimented with breeds of sheep until he found one that produced high quality wool and thrived in the country’s warm dry weather. Although sheep are not native to Australia, the raising and export of wool became its biggest business. Australians say that their country “rode to prosperity on the back of a sheep.”

To encourage immigration, the government offered settlers cheap land. It used the money from land sales to lure laborers from Britain by paying the costs of the long voyage. The population grew steadily in the early 1800s and then skyrocketed after a gold rush in 1851.

The scattered settlements on Australia’s east coast grew into separate colonies. Meanwhile, a few pioneers pushed westward across the vast dry interior and established outposts in western Australia. In the 1860s, settlers finally pressured the British to stop sending convicts to Australia.

**Settling New Zealand**  European settlement of New Zealand grew more slowly. This was because the British did not claim ownership of New Zealand, as it did Australia. Rather, it recognized the land rights of the Maoris. Among the first British settlers in New Zealand were convicts who had escaped from Australia. In 1814, missionary groups began arriving from Australia seeking to convert the Maoris to Christianity.

The arrival of more foreigners stirred conflicts between the Maoris and the European settlers over land. Responding to the settlers’ pleas, the British decided to annex New Zealand in 1838 and appointed a governor to negotiate with the Maoris. In a treaty signed in 1840, the Maoris accepted British exchange for recognition of their land rights. Britain quickly established colonies around New Zealand. Many colonists successfully turned to producing wool and other agricultural products for export.

**Self-Government**  Like many Canadians, the colonists of Australia and New Zealand wanted to rule themselves yet remain in the British Empire. During the 1850s, the colonies in both Australia and New Zealand became self-governing and created parliamentary forms of government. In 1901, the Australian colonies were united under a federal constitution as the Commonwealth of Australia. During the early 1900s, both Australia and New Zealand became dominions.

The people of Australia and New Zealand pioneered a number of political reforms. For example, the secret ballot, sometimes called the Australian ballot, was first used in Australia in the 1850s. In 1893, New Zealand became the first nation in the world to give full voting rights to women. These rights were granted only to white women of European descent.
Status of Native Peoples Native peoples and other non-Europeans were generally excluded from democracy and prosperity. As in the Americas, diseases brought by the Europeans killed a great number of both Aborigines and Maoris. As Australian settlement grew, the colonists displaced or killed many Aborigines. Sheep ranchers in particular took possession of vast tracts of land for grazing. Both the loss of open land and the spread of diseases contributed to the destruction of the Aborigines’ way of life.

In New Zealand, tensions between settlers and Maoris continued to grow after it became a British colony. Between 1845 and 1872, the colonial government fought the Maoris in a series of wars. Reduced by disease and outgunned by British weapons, the Maoris were finally driven into a remote part of the country.

The Irish Fight for Home Rule

English expansion into Ireland had begun in the 1100s, when the pope granted control of Ireland to the English king. English knights invaded Ireland, and many settled there to form a new aristocracy. The Irish, who had their own ancestry, culture, and language, bitterly resented the English presence.

This resentment grew stronger after English King Henry VIII tried to tighten England’s hold on Ireland. In hopes of planting a pro-English population in Ireland, Henry VIII and some later English leaders (including Elizabeth I and Oliver Cromwell) encouraged English and Scottish subjects to move there. Large numbers did, mostly to the north. Religious differences between the native Irish, who were Catholic, and these Protestant settlers caused conflicts.

Laws imposed in the 1500s and 1600s limited the rights of Catholics. For example, Catholics could no longer hold public office. They had to pay taxes to support the Church of Ireland, which was Protestant. In addition, English was made Ireland’s official language.

Many Irish hated British rule. However, the British government was determined to preserve its control over Ireland. It formally joined Ireland to Britain in 1801. Though a setback for Irish nationalism, this move did give Ireland representation in the British Parliament. One brilliant Irish leader, Daniel O’Connell, persuaded Parliament to pass the Catholic Emancipation Act in 1829. This law restored many rights to Catholics.

The Great Famine

In the 1840s, Ireland experienced one of the worst famines of modern history. For many years, Irish peasants had depended on potatoes as virtually their sole source of food. From 1845 to 1848, a plant fungus ruined nearly all of Ireland’s potato crop. Out of a population of 8 million, about a million people died from starvation and disease over the next few years. A traveler described what he saw on a journey through Ireland in 1847:

A VOICE FROM THE PAST

We entered a cabin. Stretched in one dark corner, scarcely visible, from the smoke and rags that covered them, were three children huddled together, lying there because they were too weak to rise, pale and ghastly, their little limbs—on removing a portion of the filthy covering—perfectly emaciated, eyes sunk, voice gone, and evidently in the last stage of actual starvation.

WILLIAM BENNETT, quoted in The Peoples of Ireland

The Great Famine, 1845–1851

Fate of the Irish during the famine

70% remained in Ireland, though millions more Irish emigrated after 1851
18% emigrated
12% died

Where they emigrated to (1851)
Australia, 2.5%
Canada, 11.5%
Britain, 36%
United States, 50%

SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Graphs

1. What percentage of Ireland’s population died during the great famine?
2. Which country received the most Irish emigrants?
During the famine years, about a million-and-a-half people fled from Ireland. Most went to the United States; others went to Britain, Canada, and Australia. At home, in Ireland, the British government enforced the demands of the English landowners that the Irish peasants pay their rent. Many Irish lost their land and fell hopelessly in debt, while large landowners profited from higher food prices. This situation fueled even greater Irish resentment toward their British overlords.

**Demands for Home Rule** During the second half of the 1800s, opposition to British rule over Ireland took two forms. Some people wanted Ireland to be completely independent. A greater number of Irish preferred home rule—local control over internal matters only. The British refused, however, to consider home rule for many decades. One reason for Britain’s opposition to home rule was concern for Ireland’s Protestants. Protestants made up a small minority of the population. Most lived in the northern part of Ireland, known as Ulster. Irish Protestants feared being a minority in a country dominated by Catholics. Finally, in 1914, Parliament enacted a home rule bill for southern Ireland. Just one month before the plan was to take effect, World War I broke out in Europe. The issue of Irish independence was put on hold.

**Rebellion and Division** Frustrated over the delay in independence, a small group of Irish nationalists rebelled in Dublin in Easter week, 1916. British troops quickly put down the Easter Rising and executed its leaders. Their fate, however, aroused wider popular support for the nationalist movement.

After World War I ended, the Irish nationalists won a major victory in the elections for the British Parliament. To protest delays in home rule, the nationalist members decided not to attend Parliament. Instead, they formed an underground Irish government and led a series of violent attacks against British officials in Ireland. The attacks sparked war between the nationalists and the British government.

In 1921, Britain tried to end the violence by dividing Ireland and granting home rule to southern Ireland. Ulster, or Northern Ireland, remained a part of Great Britain. The south became a dominion called the Irish Free State. However, many Irish nationalists, led by Eamon De Valera, continued to seek total independence from Britain. In 1949, the Irish Free State declared itself the independent Republic of Ireland.

**CONNECT to TODAY**

“Troubles” in Northern Ireland

When Northern Ireland decided to stay united with Great Britain, many Catholics refused to accept the partition, or division. Catholics also resented that the Protestant majority controlled Northern Ireland’s government and economy.

In the late 1960s, Catholic groups began to demonstrate for more civil rights. Their protests touched off violent rioting and fighting between Catholics and Protestants. Militant groups on both sides engaged in terrorism. This violent period, called the “troubles,” continued into the 1990s.

In 1999, on the heels of a historic peace accord, Catholics and Protestants began sharing power in a new home-rule government. Nonetheless, tensions between the two sides remain.

**Section Assessment**

1. **TERMS & NAMES**
   - dominion
   - Maori
   - Aborigine
   - penal colony
   - home rule

2. **TAKING NOTES**

   Using a chart like the one below, compare progress toward self-rule by recording significant political events in Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and Ireland during the period.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Political Events</th>
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<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
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<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
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<td>New Zealand</td>
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<td>Ireland</td>
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3. **COMPARING**

   How was Great Britain’s policy towards Canada beginning in the late 1700s similar to its policy towards Ireland in the 1900s?

   **THINK ABOUT**
   - the creation of Upper and Lower Canada
   - the division of Ireland into Northern Ireland and the Irish Free State

4. **ANALYZING THEMES**

   **Empire Building** At various times, England encouraged emigration to each of the colonies covered in this section. What effects did this policy have on these areas?

   **THINK ABOUT**
   - cultural divisions in Canada
   - native peoples in Canada, Australia, and New Zealand
   - political divisions in Ireland

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**Connect to Today**

D. Evaluating Decisions Was Britain’s policy in dividing Ireland successful? Why or why not?
Expansion and Crisis in the United States

SETTING THE STAGE The United States had won its independence from Britain in 1783. At the end of the Revolutionary War, the Mississippi River marked the western boundary of the new republic. As the original United States filled with settlers, land-hungry newcomers pushed beyond the Mississippi, looking for opportunity. The government helped them by acquiring new territory for settlement.

Americans Move Westward Piece by piece, the United States added new territory. In 1803, President Thomas Jefferson bought the Louisiana Territory from France. The Louisiana Purchase nearly doubled the size of the new republic and extended its boundary to the Rocky Mountains. In 1819, Spain gave up Florida to the United States. In 1846, a treaty with Great Britain gave the United States part of the Oregon Territory. In the north, the nation now stretched from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific Ocean.

War with Mexico Meanwhile, the United States had entered a war with Mexico over Texas. When Mexico had gained its independence from Spain in 1821, it included the lands west of the Louisiana Purchase—from Texas to California. Many American settlers moved into these areas, with Mexico's acceptance. Some settlers were unhappy with Mexico's rule.

The largest number of American settlers were in the Mexican territory of Texas. In 1836, Texans revolted against Mexican rule. For nine-and-a-half years, Texas was an independent country. Then, in 1845, the United States annexed Texas. Mexico responded angrily to what it believed was an act of aggression.

Between May 1846 and September 1847, war flared between the two countries. In bitter fighting, U.S. troops captured Mexico City and forced Mexico to surrender. As part of the settlement of the Mexican-American War, Mexico ceded, or gave up possession of, territory to the United States. The Mexican Cession included California and a huge amount of territory in the Southwest. A few years later, in 1853, the Gadsden Purchase from Mexico brought the lower continental United States to its present boundaries.

The 20th-century movements to ensure civil rights for African Americans and Hispanics are a legacy of this period.
**Manifest Destiny** Many Americans eagerly supported their country's westward expansion. These people believed in manifest destiny—the idea that the United States had the right and duty to rule North America from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific Ocean. Government leaders used manifest destiny as a way of justifying any action that helped white settlers occupy new land. This included evicting Native Americans from their tribal lands.

The Indian Removal Act of 1830 made such actions official policy. This law enabled the federal government to force Native Americans living in the East to move to the West. Georgia's Cherokee tribe challenged the law before the Supreme Court. The Court, however, ruled the suit was invalid. Like many other Native American tribes, the Cherokees had to move. They traveled 800 miles to Oklahoma, mostly on foot, on a journey later called the Trail of Tears. About a quarter of the Cherokees died on the trip. A survivor recalled how the journey began:

**A VOICE FROM THE PAST**

The day was bright and beautiful, but a gloomy thoughtfulness was depicted in the lineaments of every face.... At this very moment a low sound of distant thunder fell on my ear... and sent forth a murmur, I almost thought a voice of divine indignation for the wrong of my poor and unhappy countrymen, driven by brutal power from all they loved and cherished in the land of their fathers.

WILLIAM SHOREY COODEY, quoted in *The Trail of Tears*

When the Cherokees reached their destination, they ended up on land far inferior to that which they had been forced to leave. Nor did the trail end there. As whites moved west during the second half of the 19th century, the government continued to push Native Americans off their land to make room for the new settlers. Eventually, the government demanded that Native Americans abandon most of their lands and move to reservations.

**Civil War Tests Democracy**

America's westward expansion raised questions about what laws and customs should be followed in the West. Ever since the nation's early days, the northern and southern parts of the United States had followed different ways of life. Each section wanted to extend its own way of life to the new territories and states in the West.

**North and South** The North had a diversified economy with both farms and industry. For both its factories and farms, the North depended on free workers. The South's economy, on the other hand, was based on just a few cash crops, mainly cotton. Southern planters relied on slave labor.

The economic differences between the two regions led to a conflict over slavery. Many Northerners considered slavery morally wrong. They wanted to outlaw slavery in the new western states. Some wanted to abolish slavery altogether. Most white Southerners believed slavery was necessary for their economy. They wanted laws to protect slavery in the West so that they could continue to raise cotton on the fertile soil there.

The disagreement over slavery fueled a debate about the rights of the individual states against those of the federal government. Southern politicians argued that the states had freely joined the Union, and so they could freely leave. Most Northerners felt that the Constitution of the United States had established the Union once and for all—it could not be broken.

**Civil War Breaks Out** Conflict between the North and South reached a climax in 1860, when Abraham Lincoln was elected President. Southerners fiercely opposed Lincoln, who had promised to stop the spread of slavery. One by one, Southern states began to secede, or withdraw, from the Union. These states came together as the Confederate States of America.

**Vocabulary**

**manifest**: clearly apparent or obvious.
On April 12, 1861, Confederate forces fired on Fort Sumter, a federal fort in Charleston, South Carolina. Lincoln ordered the army to bring the rebel states back into the Union. The U.S. Civil War had begun. Four years of fighting followed, most of it in the South. Although the South had superior military leadership, the North had a larger population, better transportation, greater resources, and more factories to turn out weapons and supplies. These advantages proved too much for the South to overcome. In April 1865, the South surrendered. The United States had survived the toughest test of its democracy.

**Abolition of Slavery** From the beginning of the war, Lincoln declared that it was being fought to save the Union and not to end slavery. Lincoln eventually decided that ending slavery would help to save the Union. Early in 1863, he issued the **Emancipation Proclamation**, declaring that all slaves in the Confederate states were free.

At first, the proclamation freed no slaves, because the Confederate states did not accept it as law. As Union armies advanced into the South, however, they freed slaves in the lands they conquered. The Emancipation Proclamation also showed people in Europe that the war was being fought against slavery. The proclamation made many Europeans, especially the British, less sympathetic to the South. They did not send the money and supplies that the South had hoped they would.

In the aftermath of the war, the U.S. Congress passed the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution, which forever abolished slavery in all parts of the United States. Soon after, the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments extended the rights of citizenship to all Americans, black or white, and guaranteed former slaves the right to vote.
Chapter 26

1. TERMS & NAMES

- Germany
- much discrimination.

2. TAKING NOTES

Following the example below, create a time line showing the major events of the United States in the 19th century.

3. DISTINGUISHING FACT FROM OPINION

Reread the quotation from William Shorey Coodey on page 670. What facts are conveyed in his statement? What opinions—judgment, beliefs, or feelings—does he express about the Trail of Tears? How does he use his description of events to help justify his opinions?

4. ANALYZING THEMES

Economics Imagine that circumstances had forced the North to surrender to the South in the Civil War. Therefore, two countries shared the region now occupied by the United States. What economic effects might this have had on the North? the South? the region as a whole?

THINK THROUGH HISTORY

C. Recognizing Effects How did railroads affect the growth of the United States?

Global Impact

Settling the West

The settling of the American West affected people in many parts of the world. Most of those drawn to the “Wild West” were American-born. However, many Europeans and Asians also arrived in search of work and land.

U.S. railroad companies, who owned much land in the West, sent agents to Europe to recruit people to buy and settle their land. Facing wars, overpopulation, and economic problems, many Europeans jumped at the offer. German and Scandinavian farmers, for example, settled widely in the upper Midwest.

The railroads also hired many immigrants as laborers—including thousands of Chinese. The Chinese sought opportunity in the United States for many of the same reasons Europeans did. Desperate families scraped together money to send one son to America. Once they arrived, however, the Chinese faced not only backbreaking labor but much discrimination.

From 1865 to 1877, Union troops occupied the South and enforced the constitutional protections. This period is called Reconstruction. After federal troops left the South, white Southerners passed laws that limited African Americans’ rights and made it difficult for them to vote. Such laws also encouraged segregation, or separation, of blacks and whites in the South. African Americans continued to face discrimination in Northern states as well. Decades passed before African Americans made significant progress towards equality with other citizens.

Postwar Economic Expansion

While the South struggled to rebuild its shattered economy, the United States as a whole experienced a period of industrial expansion unmatched in history. The need for mass production and distribution of goods during the Civil War greatly speeded America’s industrialization. By 1914, the United States was a leading industrial power in the world.

Immigration

Industrialization could not have occurred so rapidly without the tremendous contribution of immigrants. During the 1870s, immigrants arrived at a rate of nearly 2,000 a day. By 1914, more than 20 million people had moved to the United States from Europe and Asia. Many settled in the growing industrial cities of the Northeast and Midwest. Others staked their claims in the open spaces of the West, lured by government offers of free land.

The Railroads

As settlers moved west, so did the nation’s rail system. In 1862, Congress had authorized money to build a transcontinental railroad. For seven years, Chinese and Irish immigrants, Mexican Americans, African Americans, and others did the backbreaking labor. They dug tunnels, built bridges, and hammered down the heavy steel tracks and wooden ties. When the transcontinental railroad was completed in 1869, railroads linked California with the Midwest and Eastern United States.

By 1890, nearly 200,000 miles of track spiderwebbed the nation. This massive system linked farm to city and boosted trade and industry. For one thing, the railroads bought huge quantities of steel. Also, trains brought materials such as coal and iron ore to factories and moved the finished goods quickly to market. They carried corn, wheat, and cattle from the Great Plains to processing plants in St. Louis, Chicago, and Minneapolis. These developments helped to make the United States a world leader in the great explosion of technological progress that marked the late nineteenth century.
Setting the Stage  
The Industrial Revolution happened because of inventions like the spinning jenny and the steam engine. In turn, the demands of growing industries spurred even greater advances in technology. By the late 1800s, advances in both industry and technology were occurring faster than ever before. In industrialized countries, economic growth produced many social changes. At the same time, a surge of scientific discovery pushed the frontiers of knowledge forward.

Inventions Change Ways of Life

In the early 1800s, coal and steam drove the machines of industry. By the late 1800s, new kinds of energy were coming into use. One was gasoline, which powered a new type of engine called an internal combustion engine. Small, light, and efficient, this engine would eventually make the automobile possible. Another kind of energy was the mysterious force called electricity. In the 1870s, the electric generator was developed, which produced a current that could power machines. This invention made it possible to bring the magic of electricity into daily life.

Edison the Inventor  
If electricity seemed like magic to people in the 19th century, Thomas Edison was perhaps the century’s greatest magician. Over his career, Edison patented more than 1,000 inventions, including the light bulb and the phonograph.

Early in his career, Edison started a research laboratory in Menlo Park, New Jersey. Most of his important inventions were developed there, with help from the researchers he employed. Indeed, the idea of a laboratory for industrial research and development may have been Edison’s most important invention.

Bell and Marconi Revolutionize Communication  
Other inventors helped harness electricity to transmit sounds over great distances. Alexander Graham Bell was a teacher of deaf students who invented the telephone in his spare time. He displayed his device at the Philadelphia Exposition of 1876. The emperor of Brazil used it to speak to his aide in another room. When he heard the reply he exclaimed, “My word! It speaks Portuguese!”

The Italian inventor Guglielmo Marconi used theoretical discoveries about electromagnetic waves to create the first radio in 1895. This device was important because it sent messages (using Morse Code) through the air, without the use of wires. Primitive radios soon became standard equipment for ships at sea. Not until later could radios transmit human voices.

Ford Sparks the Automobile Industry  
In the 1880s, German inventors used a gasoline engine to power a vehicle—the automobile.

An Age of Inventions

Light Bulb  
Edison and his team invented the first practical electric light bulb in 1879. Within a few years, Edison had perfected a longer-lasting bulb and begun installing electric lighting in New York City.

Telephone  
Alexander Graham Bell demonstrated the first telephone in 1876. It quickly became an essential of modern life. By 1900, there were nearly 2 million telephones in the United States. By 1912, there were 8.7 million.
Automobile technology developed quickly, but since early cars were built by hand, they were expensive to buy and repair.

An American mechanic named Henry Ford decided to make cars that were affordable for most people. “The way to make automobiles is to make them all alike,” he said, “just as one pin is like another when it comes from the pin factory.” To build his cars alike, Ford used standardized, interchangeable parts. He also built them on an assembly line—a line of workers who each put a single piece on unfinished cars as they passed on a moving belt.

Assembly line workers could put together an entire Model T Ford in less than two hours. When Ford introduced this plain, black, reliable car in 1908, it sold for $850. As his production costs fell, Ford lowered the price. Eventually it dropped to less than $300—well within the reach of the middle class. Other factories adopted Ford’s ideas. By 1914, more than 600,000 cars were traveling around on the world’s roads.

**The Wright Brothers Fly** Two bicycle mechanics from Dayton, Ohio, named Wilbur and Orville Wright solved the age-old riddle of flight. On December 17, 1903, they flew a gasoline-powered flying machine at Kitty Hawk, North Carolina. The longest flight that day lasted only 59 seconds, but it was enough to begin a whole new industry—aircraft.

### The Rise of Mass Culture

In earlier periods, art, music, and most theater had been largely the concern of the wealthy. This group had the money, leisure time, and education to enjoy high culture. It was not until about 1900 that people could speak of mass culture—the appeal of art, writing, music, and other forms of entertainment to a much larger audience.

**Changes Produce Mass Culture** There were several causes for the rise of mass culture around the turn of the century. First, the spread of public education increased literacy in both Europe and North America. This, in turn, provided a mass market for books, newspapers, and magazines. Improvements in communications made it possible to meet the broad demand for information and entertainment. For example, new high-speed presses duplicated thousands of pages in a few hours. They made publications cheaper and easier to produce. The invention of the phonograph and records brought music directly into people’s homes. Working folks now had more time for leisure pursuits. By 1900, most industrial countries had limited the working day to ten hours. Most people worked Monday through Friday and a half-day on Saturday. This five-and-a-half-day work week created the “weekend,” a special time for relaxation. More leisure time in evenings and on weekends allowed workers to take part in activities that their grandparents never had time to enjoy.

**Music Halls and Vaudeville** A popular leisure activity was a trip to the local music hall. On a typical evening, a music hall might offer a dozen or more different acts. It might feature singers, dancers, comedians, jugglers, magicians, acrobats, and even trained parakeets. In the United States, musical variety shows were called vaudeville.

**French artist Henri de Toulouse-Lautrec designed this bicycle poster in 1896.**
Movies Are Born During the 1880s, several inventors worked at trying to record and project moving images. One successful design came from France. Another came from Thomas Edison’s laboratory. The earliest motion pictures caused a sensation only because of their novelty. They were black and white, lasted less than a minute, and had no plot. One of Edison’s first films, for example, showed nothing but a man sneezing.

By the early 1900s, filmmakers were producing the first feature films (see Something in Common, page 676). Movies quickly became big business. By 1910, five million Americans attended some 10,000 theaters each day to watch silent movies. The European movie industry experienced similar growth.

Sports Entertain Millions With new time at their disposal, ordinary people began to enjoy all kinds of sports and outdoor activities. For every person who played sports, even more enjoyed watching them. Spectator sports now became entertainment for many. In the United States, football and baseball soared in popularity. In Europe, the first professional soccer clubs formed and drew big crowds—120,000 fans turned out to watch a 1913 match in England. Favorite English sports such as cricket spread to the British colonies of Australia, India, and South Africa.

As a result of the growing interest in sports, the international Olympic Games began in 1896. They revived the ancient Greek tradition of holding an athletic competition among countries every four years. Fittingly, the first modern Olympics took place in Athens.

New Ideas in Medicine and Science

Earlier centuries had established the scientific method as a road to knowledge. Now this method brought powerful new insights into nature as well as many practical results.

The Germ Theory of Disease An important breakthrough in the history of medicine was the germ theory of disease. It was developed by French chemist Louis Pasteur in the mid-1800s. While examining the fermentation process of alcohol, Pasteur discovered that it was caused by microscopic organisms he called bacteria. He also learned that heat killed bacteria. This led him to develop the process of pasteurization to kill germs in liquids such as milk. Soon, it became clear to Pasteur and others that bacteria also caused diseases.

A British surgeon named Joseph Lister read about Pasteur’s work. He thought germs might explain why half of all surgical patients died of infections. In 1865, he ordered that his surgical wards be kept spotlessly clean. He insisted that wounds be washed in antiseptics, or germ-killing liquids. As a result, 85 percent of Lister's patients survived. Soon, other hospitals began to follow Lister’s standards of cleanliness.

Public officials, too, began to understand that cleanliness helped prevent the spread of disease. Cities built plumbing and sewer systems and took other steps to improve public health. Meanwhile, medical researchers developed vaccines or cures for such deadly diseases as typhus, typhoid fever, diphtheria, and yellow fever. These advances helped people live longer, healthier lives.
Mass Entertainment

In 1903, an American filmmaker named Edwin S. Porter presented the first feature film, *The Great Train Robbery*. Audiences packed theaters on both sides of the Atlantic to see it. Movies soon became one of the most popular forms of mass entertainment around the world. Today, billions of people still flock to movie theaters, despite newer forms of entertainment such as television and videos. One reason that going to the movies remains popular is the pleasure of shared experience—seeing a movie, a play, a circus, or sporting event as part of a large audience.

American Movies

Edwin S. Porter’s *The Great Train Robbery* did something no other motion picture had done—it told a story! The silent, 12-minute action film portrayed a sensational robbery (shown in these stills) and the capture of bandits by a sheriff’s posse. Films such as *The Great Train Robbery* launched a new art form. Movies made possible a new kind of visual storytelling, whose realistic images were a hit with a mass audience.
Camel Races in India
Seasonal festivals provide entertainment in areas throughout the world. Thousands of people from all over India, as well as foreign tourists, flock to the town of Pushkar in November for its annual fair. Although the main business is camel trading, the Pushkar fair is enlivened with dramas, food stalls, magic shows—and the races. Shown here is a camel rider racing at these annual festivities. These races are as eagerly anticipated as the Kentucky Derby is in the United States.

Russian Circus
The Russian circus began when an English showman sent a troupe of stunt horse riders to Empress Catherine the Great in the 1790s. Russia has been famous for the popularity and quality of its circuses ever since. Most Russian circuses, like this one with animal trainer Vyacheslav Zolkin, feature trained bears. Russian circuses usually use a single ring so that audiences can sit close to the performers.

Chinese Opera
The performing arts have a long history in China. Characters in Chinese drama, such as this troupe from the Beijing Opera, wear elaborate silk costumes and stylized facial makeup or masks. The character of the actors is expressed in part through the symbolic use of color. This scene is from *The Story of the White Snake*, a tragic love story about a white snake that is transformed into a human being and marries a young man.
Darwin’s Theory of Evolution  No scientific idea of modern times aroused more controversy than the work of English biologist Charles Darwin. The cause of the controversy was Darwin’s answer to the question that faced biologists: How can we explain the tremendous variety of plants and animals on earth? A widely accepted answer in the 1800s was the idea of special creation. According to this view, every kind of plant and animal had been created by God at the beginning of the world and had remained the same since then.

Darwin challenged the idea of special creation. Based on his research, he developed a theory that all forms of life, including human beings, evolved from earlier living forms that had existed millions of years ago.

In 1859, Darwin published his thinking in a book titled *The Origin of Species by Means of Natural Selection*. According to the idea of natural selection, populations tend to grow faster than the food supply and so must compete for food. The members of a species that survive are those that are fittest, or best adapted to their environment. These surviving members of a species produce offspring that share their advantages. Gradually, over many generations, the species may change. In this way, new species evolve. Darwin’s idea of change through natural selection came to be called the theory of evolution.

The *Origin of Species* caused great excitement among scientists. At the same time, Darwin’s ideas roused a storm of debate outside the scientific community. Many people believed that the idea of evolution directly contradicted the account of creation in the Bible.

Even today, well over 100 years after *The Origin of Species* was first published, Darwin’s ideas are controversial.

Mendel and Genetics  Although Darwin said that living things passed on their variations from one generation to the next, he did not know how they did so. In the 1850s and 1860s, an Austrian monk named Gregor Mendel discovered that there is a pattern to the way that certain traits are inherited. Although his work was not widely known until 1900, Mendel’s work began the science of genetics. Later, biologists discovered genes, the units of living matter that carry traits from parents to offspring.

Advances in Chemistry and Physics  In 1803, the British chemist John Dalton theorized that all matter is made of tiny particles called atoms. Dalton showed that elements contain only one kind of atom, which has a specific weight. Compounds, on the other hand, contain more than one kind of atom.

In 1869, Dmitri Mendeleev (MEHN-duh-LAY-uhf), a Russian chemist, organized a chart on which all the known elements were arranged in order of weight, from lightest to heaviest. He left gaps where he predicted that new elements would be discovered. Later, his predictions proved correct. Mendeleev’s chart, called the Periodic Table, is still used by scientists today.

A husband and wife team working in Paris discovered two of the missing elements. Marie and Pierre Curie found that a mineral called pitchblende released a powerful form of energy. In 1898, Marie Curie gave this energy the name radioactivity. The Curies discovered two new elements that they named radium and polonium. Both were highly radioactive. In 1903, the Curies shared the Nobel Prize for physics for their work on radioactivity. In 1911, Marie won the Nobel Prize for chemistry for the discovery of radium and polonium.
Physicists around 1900 tried to unravel the secrets of the atom. Earlier scientists believed that the atom was the smallest particle that existed. A British physicist named Ernest Rutherford suggested that atoms were made up of yet smaller particles. Each atom, he said, had a nucleus surrounded by one or more particles called electrons. Soon other physicists such as Max Planck, Neils Bohr, and Albert Einstein were studying the structure and energy of atoms. Their discoveries, discussed in Chapter 31, were fully as revolutionary as Newton’s or Darwin’s ideas.

The Social Sciences

The scientific theories of the 1800s prompted scholars to study human society and behavior in a scientific way. Interest in these fields grew enormously during that century, as global expeditions produced a flood of new discoveries about ancient civilizations and world cultures. This interest led to the development of modern social sciences such as archaeology, anthropology, and sociology.

An important new social science was psychology, the study of the human mind and behavior. The Russian biologist Ivan Pavlov broke new ground in psychology with a famous experiment in the early 1900s. Ordinarily, a dog’s mouth waters at the smell of food. Pavlov began ringing a bell each time he gave food to a dog. Eventually, the dog learned to associate the bell with food. Each time the bell rang, the dog salivated, even if no food was present.

Pavlov concluded that an animal’s reflexes could be changed, or conditioned, through training. He also applied these findings to humans. He believed that human actions were often unconscious reactions to experiences and could be changed by training.

Another pioneer in psychology, the Austrian doctor Sigmund Freud, also believed that the unconscious mind drives how people think and act. In Freud’s view, unconscious forces such as suppressed memories, desires, and impulses help shape behavior. He created a type of therapy called psychoanalysis to help people deal with the psychological conflicts created by these forces.

As Chapter 31 explains, Freud’s theories became very influential. However, his idea that the mind was beyond conscious control also shocked many people. The ideas of Freud and Pavlov challenged the fundamental idea of the Enlightenment—that reason was supreme. The new ideas about psychology began to shake the 19th-century faith that humans could perfect themselves and society through reason.

Social Darwinism

Charles Darwin was a biologist, but a number of 19th-century thinkers tried to apply his ideas about plants and animals to economics and politics. The leader in this movement was Herbert Spencer, an English philosopher.

Free economic competition, Spencer argued, was natural selection in action. The best companies make profits, while inefficient ones go bankrupt. Spencer applied the same rules to individuals. Those who were fittest for survival enjoyed wealth and success, while the poor remained poor because they were unfit. This idea became known as Social Darwinism.

Some Social Darwinists expanded these ideas into racist thinking. They claimed that certain groups of people were “fitter”—brighter, stronger, and more advanced—than others. These “superior races,” they said, were intended by nature to dominate “lesser peoples.” Many Europeans used such arguments to justify the spread of imperialism, which is described in Chapter 27.

Section 4 Assessment

1. TERMS & NAMES
   - assembly line
   - mass culture
   - Charles Darwin
   - theory of evolution
   - radioactivity
   - psychology

2. TAKING NOTES
   Using a web diagram like the one below, connect the inventors, scientists, and thinkers with the invention, discovery, or new idea for which they were responsible.

   ![Web Diagram](Diagram)

   Which breakthrough do you think helped people the most? Why?

3. COMPARING AND CONTRASTING
   How is the mass culture that rose at the end of the 19th century similar to mass culture today? How is it different? Explain your response.

   THINK ABOUT
   - the role of technology
   - increase in leisure time
   - new forms of entertainment

4. THEME ACTIVITY
   Science and Technology
   Choose one of the inventions, discoveries, or new ideas that occurred in this period and plan a museum exhibit of that breakthrough. Decide how to display the invention or discovery. Write a description of it, who was responsible for it, and how it has affected peoples’ lives.

An Age of Democracy and Progress 679
Chapter 26 Assessment

TERMS & NAMES
Briefly explain the importance of each of the following to the reforms, crises, or advances of Western nations from 1815 to 1914.

1. suffrage 6. manifest destiny
2. anti-Semitism 7. Emancipation Proclamation
3. dominion 8. segregation
4. penal colony 9. assembly line
5. home rule 10. theory of evolution

REVIEW QUESTIONS
SECTION 1 (pages 659–663)
Democratic Reform and Activism
11. What political reforms had the effect of expanding democracy for men in Britain?
12. How did the Women’s Social and Political Union call attention to its cause?

SECTION 2 (pages 664–668)
Self-Rule for British Colonies
13. What cultural conflict caused problems for Canada?
14. How did Australia’s early history differ from that of other British colonies?
15. Why did the British government pass a home rule bill for southern Ireland only?

SECTION 3 (pages 669–672)
Expansion and Crisis in the United States
16. In what different ways did the United States gain territory in the 1800s?
17. How did the North and South differ economically? Why was the issue of slavery so divisive?

SECTION 4 (pages 673–679)
Nineteenth-Century Progress
18. What was Darwin’s principle of natural selection? Why did many people oppose his theory of evolution?
19. What contributions did each of the following scientists make?
   (a) Mendel (b) Dalton (c) Mendeleev (d) Marie Curie (e) Rutherford
20. How did Pavlov and Freud contribute to the study of psychology?

Interact with History
On page 658, you considered the benefits and drawbacks of technological progress. Now consider the inventions you read about in this chapter. Write a paragraph explaining which you think was most significant. State the reasons for your choice. Consider
• Which affected the most people?
• Which changed daily life the most?
• Which changed industry the most?
• Which produced the greatest benefit with the fewest drawbacks?
Share your paragraph with the class.

Visual Summary
Democracy
Progress
1815
1825
1835
1845
1855
1865
1875
1885
1895
1905
1915
1832 First Reform Bill in Britain
1848 Seneca Falls Convention
1861 Outbreak of U.S. Civil War
1863 Emancipation Proclamation
1871 Paris Commune
1875 Third Republic in France
1884 Suffrage extended to male rural workers in Britain
1885 Marconi invents radio
1894 Dreyfus affair begins
1896 Zionist movement founded
1898 First modern Olympic Games
1903 First airplane flight by Wright brothers
1905 Ford introduces Model T
1906 Ford 6 Cylinder Touring Car
Price $2,900
6 cylinders, 40 b. h. p. 4 to 50 miles per hour on high gear. Perfectly magneto ignition—mechanical alter, 114 inch wheel base, luxurious body for 2 passengers, weight 2000 pounds.

1879 Edison develops light bulb
1880s Internal combustion engine perfected
1884 Suffrage extended to male rural workers in Britain
1885 Women gain voting rights in New Zealand
1894 Dreyfus affair begins
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1903 WSPU founded
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1850s Mendel experiments with genetics
1860s Medical advances of Pasteur and Lister
1869 Transcontinental railroad completed in United States
1874 Mendeleev’s Periodic Table of Elements
1876 Bell patents telephone
1878 Edison develops light bulb
1880s Internal combustion engine perfected
1895 Marconi invents radio
1898 First modern Olympic Games
1898 Henri Becquerel discovers radioactivity
1899 Frederic Winslow Taylor develops scientific management
1903 First airplane flight by Wright brothers
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1884 Suffrage extended to male rural workers in Britain
1885 Marconi invents radio
1894 Dreyfus affair begins
1896 Zionist movement founded
1903 WSPU founded
1905 First airplane flight by Wright brothers
1906 Ford 6 Cylinder Touring Car
Price $2,900
6 cylinders, 40 b. h. p. 4 to 50 miles per hour on high gear. Perfectly magneto ignition—mechanical alter, 114 inch wheel base, luxurious body for 2 passengers, weight 2000 pounds.

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1. ASSEMBLY LINE WORK

**THEME ECONOMICS** Read the quotation from Henry Ford on page 674. From a worker’s point of view, what would be the advantages and disadvantages of an assembly line?

2. AN ERA OF CHANGE

Create a web diagram of the major political, economic, social and cultural, and scientific and technological changes of the 1800s and early 1900s.

3. SOCIAL DARWINISM

Charles Darwin did not fully agree with the Social Darwinists. How do natural selection and economic competition differ?

4. ANALYZING PRIMARY SOURCES

On January 11, 1898, Major Esterhazy, the army officer who had actually committed the crimes of which Alfred Dreyfus was accused, was judged innocent by a court martial, or military court. Two days later, Émile Zola published an open letter about the Dreyfus affair. Part of that letter appears below.

**A VOICE FROM THE PAST**

It is only now that the Affair is beginning, because only now are men assuming clear positions: on the one hand, the guilty, who do not wish justice to be done; on the other, the followers of justice, who will give their lives so that justice may triumph.

I accuse the War Office of having carried on in the press an abominable campaign in order to screen their mistake and mislead the public.

I accuse the first Court Martial of having violated the law by condemning an accused man on the basis of a secret document and I accuse the second Court Martial of having, in obedience to orders, screened that illegal act by knowingly acquitting a guilty man.

As to the men I accuse, I do not know them. I have never seen them, I have no resentment or hatred toward them. I have but one passion—that of light.

- Of what crimes did Zola accuse the French War Office and the Courts Martial?
- What did Zola claim to be his motive for making these accusations?

**CHAPTER ACTIVITIES**

1. **LIVING HISTORY:** Unit Portfolio Project

**THEME EMPIRE BUILDING** Your unit portfolio project focuses on the effects of empire building on all the lands and peoples involved (see page 629). For Chapter 26 you might use one of the following ideas.

- Design and produce a handbill that might have been distributed by English-speaking Canadians demanding a representative government.
- Write an editorial that might have appeared in a newspaper in 19th-century New Zealand. In the editorial, address the issue of British settlers’ taking land from the Maori, and the Maori response.
- Draw a political cartoon that reflects how Britain treated Ireland during the Great Famine.

2. **CONNECT TO TODAY:** Cooperative Learning

**THEME SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY** Breakthroughs in science, technology, and medicine transformed daily life in the 1800s. Many of those inventions and discoveries still affect us today. Work with a partner to make a collage of 19th-century breakthroughs as they are reflected in modern life.

- Begin by noting all the inventions and discoveries presented in the chapter.
- Then brainstorm ways that they might be represented visually.
- In magazines or newspapers, look for the pictures you need. If you cannot find a particular picture, try drawing it.
- Determine a creative way to identify the pictures and link them with the 19th-century breakthroughs.

3. **INTERPRETING A TIME LINE**

Revisit the time line on pages 628–629, and study the segment for Chapter 26. Which event do you think was the most significant? Why?

**FOCUS ON POLITICAL CARTOONS**

This 1852 English cartoon titled “A Court for King Cholera” depicts a poor section of the city. Notice the children playing with a dead rat and the woman picking through the rubbish heap. At the time, some health experts believed that the epidemic disease cholera spread from the air around rubbish heaps.

- What does the artist say about the unhealthy living conditions of the poor?
- Do you think the artist is sympathetic to the urban poor? Why or why not?

**Connect to History** What changes took place in the 19th century that helped eliminate the spread of diseases like cholera in Western cities?