

AP European History

Period 1: c. 1450 to c. 1648

Key Concept 1.1

The worldview of European intellectuals shifted from one based on ecclesiastical and classical authority to one based primarily on inquiry and observation of the natural world.

Renaissance intellectuals and artists revived classical motifs in the fine arts and classical values in literature and education.

Intellectuals — later called humanists — employed new methods of textual criticism based on a deep knowledge of Greek and Latin, and revived classical ideas that made human beings the measure of all things. Artists formulated new styles based on ancient models. The humanists remained Christians while promoting ancient philosophical ideas that challenged traditional Christian views. Artists and architects such as Brunelleschi, Leonardo, Michelangelo, and Raphael glorified human potential and the human form in the visual arts, basing their art on classical models while using new techniques of painting and drawing, such as geometric perspective. The invention of the printing press in the mid-15th century accelerated the development and dissemination of these new attitudes, notably in Europe north of the Alps (the northern Renaissance).

During the 16th and 17th centuries, Europeans developed new approaches to and methods for looking at the natural world in what historians have called the Scientific Revolution. Aristotle's classical cosmology and Ptolemy's astronomical system came under increasing scrutiny from natural philosophers (later called scientists) such as Copernicus, Galileo, and Newton. The philosophers Francis Bacon and René Descartes articulated comprehensive theories of inductive and deductive reasoning to give the emerging scientific method a sound foundation. Bacon urged the collection and analysis of data about the world and spurred the development of an international community of natural philosophers dedicated to the vast enterprise of what came to be called natural science. In medicine, the new approach to knowledge led physicians such as William Harvey to undertake observations that produced new explanations of anatomy and physiology and to challenge the traditional theory of health and disease (the four humors) espoused by Galen in the second century. The articulation of natural laws, often expressed mathematically, became the goal of science. The unexpected encounter with the Western hemisphere at the end of the 15th century further undermined knowledge derived from classical and biblical authorities. The explorations produced new knowledge of geography and the world's peoples through direct observation, and this seemed to give credence to new approaches to knowledge more generally. Yet while they developed inquiry-based epistemologies, Europeans also continued to use traditional explanations of the natural world based on witchcraft, magic, alchemy, and astrology.

I. A revival of classical texts led to new methods of scholarship and new values in both society and religion.

A. Italian Renaissance humanists promoted a revival in classical literature and created new philological approaches to ancient texts. Some Renaissance humanists furthered the values of secularism and individualism.

- Petrarch (pre-1450)
- Desiderius Erasmus

B. Humanist revival of Greek and Roman texts, spread by the printing press, challenged the institutional power of universities and the Roman Catholic Church and shifted the focus of education away from theology toward the study of the classical texts.

- Niccolò Machiavelli

C. Admiration for Greek and Roman political institutions supported a revival of civic humanist culture in the Italian city-states and produced secular models for individual and political behavior.

- Niccolò Machiavelli

II. The invention of printing promoted the dissemination of new ideas.

A. The invention of the printing press in the 1450s aided in spreading the Renaissance beyond Italy and encouraged the growth of vernacular literature, which would eventually contribute to the development of national cultures.

B. Protestant reformers used the press to disseminate their ideas, which spurred religious reform and helped it to become widely established.

III. The visual arts incorporated the new ideas of the Renaissance and were used to promote personal, political, and religious goals.

A. Princes and popes, concerned with enhancing their prestige, commissioned paintings and architectural works based on classical styles and often employing the newly invented technique of geometric perspective.

- Michelangelo
- Donatello

B. A human-centered naturalism that considered individuals and everyday life appropriate objects of artistic representation was encouraged through the patronage of both princes and commercial elites.

- Raphael
- Leonardo da Vinci

C. Mannerist and Baroque artists employed distortion, drama, and illusion in works commissioned by monarchies, city-states, and the church for public buildings to promote their stature and power.

- Artemisia Gentileschi

IV. New ideas in science based on observation, experimentation, and mathematics challenged classical views of the cosmos, nature, and the human body, although folk traditions of knowledge and the universe persisted.

A. New ideas and methods in astronomy led individuals such as Copernicus, Galileo, and Newton to question the authority of the ancients and religion and to develop a heliocentric view of the cosmos.

B. Anatomical and medical discoveries by physicians, including William Harvey, presented the body as an integrated system, challenging the traditional humoral theory of the body and of disease espoused by Galen.

- Andreas Vesalius

C. Francis Bacon and René Descartes defined inductive and deductive reasoning and promoted experimentation and the use of mathematics, which would ultimately shape the scientific method.

D. Alchemy and astrology continued to appeal to elites and some natural philosophers, in part because they shared with the new science the notion of a predictable and knowable universe. In the oral culture of peasants, a belief that the cosmos was governed by divine and demonic forces persisted.

- Johannes Kepler
- Sir Isaac Newton

Key Concept 1.2

The struggle for sovereignty within and among states resulted in varying degrees of political centralization.

Three trends shaped early modern political development: (1) from decentralized power and authority toward centralization; (2) from a political elite consisting primarily of a hereditary landed nobility toward one open to men distinguished by their education, skills, and wealth; and (3) from religious toward secular norms of law and justice.

One innovation promoting state centralization and the transformation of the landed nobility was the new dominance of firearms and artillery on the battlefield. The introduction of these new technologies, along with changes in tactics and strategy, amounted to a military revolution that reduced the role of mounted knights and castles, raised the cost of maintaining military power beyond the means of individual lords, and led to professionalization of the military on land and sea under the authority of the sovereign. This military revolution favored rulers who could command the resources required for building increasingly complex fortifications and fielding disciplined infantry and artillery units. Monarchs who could increase taxes and create bureaucracies to collect and spend them on their military outmaneuvered those who could not.

In general, monarchs gained power vis-à-vis the corporate groups and institutions that had thrived during the medieval period, notably the landed nobility and the clergy. Commercial and professional groups, such as merchants, lawyers, and other educated and talented persons, acquired increasing power in the state — often in alliance with the monarchs — alongside or in place of these traditional

corporate groups. New legal and political theories, embodied in the codification of law, strengthened state institutions, which increasingly took control of the social and economic order from traditional religious and local bodies. However, these developments were not universal. In eastern and southern Europe, the traditional elites maintained their positions in many polities. The centralization of power within polities took place within and facilitated a new diplomatic framework among states. Ideals of a universal Christian empire declined along with the power and prestige of the Holy Roman Empire, which was unable to overcome the challenges of political localism and religious pluralism. By the end of the Thirty Years' War, a new state system had emerged based on sovereign nation-states and the balance of power.

I. The new concept of the sovereign state and secular systems of law played a central role in the creation of new political institutions.

A. New Monarchies laid the foundation for the centralized modern state by establishing a monopoly on tax collection, military force, and the dispensing of justice, and gaining the right to determine the religion of their subjects.

- Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain consolidating control of the military

B. The Peace of Westphalia (1648), which marked the effective end of the medieval ideal of universal Christendom, accelerated the decline of the Holy Roman Empire by granting princes, bishops, and other local leaders control over religion.

C. Across Europe, commercial and professional groups gained in power and played a greater role in political affairs.

- Merchants and financiers in Renaissance Italy and northern Europe

D. Secular political theories, such as those espoused in Machiavelli's *The Prince*, provided a new concept of the state.

- Hugo Grotius

II. The competitive state system led to new patterns of diplomacy and new forms of warfare.

A. Following the Peace of Westphalia, religion no longer was a cause for warfare among European states; instead, the concept of the balance of power played an important role in structuring diplomatic and military objectives.

B. Advances in military technology (i.e., the military revolution) led to new forms of warfare, including greater reliance on infantry, firearms, mobile cannon, and more elaborate fortifications, all financed by heavier taxation and requiring a larger bureaucracy. Technology, tactics, and strategies tipped the balance of power toward states able to marshal sufficient resources for the new military environment.

- Spain under the Habsburgs

III. The competition for power between monarchs and corporate groups produced different distributions of governmental authority in European states.

A. The English Civil War, a conflict between the monarchy, Parliament, and other elites over their respective roles in the political structure, exemplified this competition.

- James I
- Charles I
- Oliver Cromwell

B. Monarchies seeking enhanced power faced challenges from nobles who wished to retain traditional forms of shared governance and regional autonomy.

- Louis XIII and Cardinal Richelieu

Key Concept 1.3

Religious pluralism challenged the concept of a unified Europe.

Late medieval reform movements in the Church (including lay piety, mysticism, and Christian humanism) created a momentum that propelled a new generation of 16th-century reformers, such as Erasmus and Martin Luther. After 1517, when Luther posted his 95 Theses attacking ecclesiastical abuses and the doctrines that spawned them, Christianity fragmented, even though religious uniformity remained the ideal. Some states, such as Spain and Portugal, which had recently expelled Muslims and Jews, held fast to this ideal. Others — notably the Netherlands and lands under Ottoman control, which accepted Jewish refugees — did not. In central Europe, the Peace of Augsburg (1555) permitted each state of the Holy Roman Empire to be either Catholic or Lutheran at the option of the prince. By the late 16th century, northern European countries were generally Protestant and Mediterranean countries generally Catholic. To re-establish order after a period of religious warfare, France introduced limited toleration of the minority Calvinists within a Catholic kingdom (Edict of Nantes, 1598; revoked in 1685). Jews remained a marginalized minority wherever they lived. Differing conceptions of salvation and the individual's relationship to the church were at the heart of the conflicts among Luther, subsequent Protestant reformers such as Calvin and the Anabaptists, and the Roman Catholic Church. The Catholic Church affirmed its traditional theology at the Council of Trent (1545–1563), ruling out any reconciliation with the Protestants and inspiring the resurgence of Catholicism in the 17th century. Religious conflicts inevitably merged with and exacerbated long-standing political tensions between the monarchies and nobility across Europe, dramatically escalating these conflicts as they spread from the Holy Roman Empire to France, the Netherlands, and England. Economic issues such as the power to tax and control ecclesiastical resources further heightened these clashes. All three motivations — religious, political, and economic — contributed to the brutal and destructive Thirty Years' War, which was ended by the Peace of Westphalia (1648). The treaty established a new balance of power with a weakened Holy Roman Empire. The Peace of Westphalia also added Calvinism to Catholicism and Lutheranism as an accepted religion in the Holy Roman Empire, ensuring the permanence of European religious pluralism. However, pluralism did not mean religious freedom; the prince or ruler still controlled the religion of the state, and few were tolerant of dissenters.

I. The Protestant and Catholic Reformations fundamentally changed theology, religious institutions, and culture.

A. Christian humanism, embodied in the writings of Erasmus, employed Renaissance learning in the service of religious reform.

- Sir Thomas More

B. Reformers Martin Luther and John Calvin, as well as religious radicals such as the Anabaptists, criticized Catholic abuses and established new interpretations of Christian doctrine and practice.

- Indulgences

C. The Catholic Reformation, exemplified by the Jesuit Order and the Council of Trent, revived the church but cemented the division within Christianity.

- Index of Prohibited Books

II. Religious reform both increased state control of religious institutions and provided justifications for challenging state authority.

A. Monarchs and princes, such as the English rulers Henry VIII and Elizabeth I, initiated religious reform from the top down (magisterial) in an effort to exercise greater control over religious life and morality.

- Spanish Inquisition

B. Some Protestants, including Calvin and the Anabaptists, refused to recognize the subordination of the church to the state.

C. Religious conflicts became a basis for challenging the monarchs' control of religious institutions.

- Huguenots

III. Conflicts among religious groups overlapped with political and economic competition within and among states.

A. Issues of religious reform exacerbated conflicts between the monarchy and the nobility, as in the French Wars of Religion.

- Henry IV

B. The efforts of Habsburg rulers failed to restore Catholic unity across Europe.

- Charles I (Charles V)

C. States exploited religious conflicts to promote political and economic interests.

- France, Sweden, and Denmark in the Thirty Years' War

D. A few states, such as France with the Edict of Nantes, allowed religious pluralism in order to maintain domestic peace.

- The Netherlands

Key Concept 1.4

Europeans explored and settled overseas territories, encountering and interacting with indigenous populations.

From the 15th through the 17th centuries, Europeans used their mastery of the seas to extend their power in Africa, Asia, and the Americas. In the 15th century, the Portuguese sought direct access by sea to the sources of African gold, ivory, and slaves. At the same time, the rise of Ottoman power in the eastern Mediterranean led to Ottoman control of the Mediterranean trade routes and increased the motivation of Iberians and then northern Europeans to explore possible sea routes to the East. The success and consequences of these explorations, and the maritime expansion that followed them, rested on European adaptation of Muslim and Chinese navigational technology as well as advances in military technology and cartography. Political, economic, and religious rivalries among Europeans also stimulated maritime expansion. By the 17th century, Europeans had forged a global trade network that gradually edged out earlier Muslim and Chinese dominion in the Indian Ocean and the western Pacific.

In Europe, these successes shifted economic power within Europe from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic states. In Asia, the Portuguese, Spanish, and Dutch competed for control of trade routes and trading stations. In the Americas, the Spanish and Portuguese led in the establishment of colonies, followed by the Dutch, French, and English. The pursuit of colonies was sustained by mercantilist economic theory, which promoted government management of economic imperatives and policies. The creation of maritime empires was also animated by the religious fervor sweeping Europe during the period of the Reformations (Catholic and Protestant). Global European expansion led to the conversion of indigenous populations in South and Central America, to an exchange of commodities and crops that enriched European and other civilizations that became part of the global trading network, and, eventually, to migrations that had profound effects on Europe. The expansion also challenged parochial worldviews in Christian Europe. Yet the Columbian Exchange also unleashed several ecological disasters — notably the death of vast numbers of the Americas' population in epidemics of European diseases, such as smallpox and measles, against which the native populations had no defenses. The establishment of the plantation system in the American colonies also led to the vast expansion of the African slave trade, one feature of the new Atlantic trading system.

I. European nations were driven by commercial and religious motives to explore overseas territories and establish colonies.

A. European states sought direct access to gold and spices and luxury goods as a means to enhance personal wealth and state power.

B. The rise of mercantilism gave the state a new role in promoting commercial development and the acquisition of colonies overseas.

C. Christianity served as a stimulus for exploration as governments and religious authorities sought to spread the faith and counter Islam, and as a justification for the physical and cultural subjugation of indigenous civilizations.

II. Advances in navigation, cartography, and military technology allowed Europeans to establish overseas colonies and empires.

- Compass
- astrolabe
- Lateen rig
- Horses
- Guns and gunpowder

III. Europeans established overseas empires and trade networks through coercion and negotiation.

- A. The Portuguese established a commercial network along the African coast, in South and East Asia, and in South America.
- B. The Spanish established colonies across the Americas, the Caribbean, and the Pacific, which made Spain a dominant state in Europe.
- C. The Atlantic nations of France, England, and the Netherlands followed by establishing their own colonies and trading networks to compete with Portuguese and Spanish dominance.
- D. The competition for trade led to conflicts and rivalries among European powers.

IV. Europe's colonial expansion led to a global exchange of goods, flora, fauna, cultural practices, and diseases, resulting in the destruction of some indigenous civilizations, a shift toward European dominance, and the expansion of the slave trade.

- A. The exchange of goods shifted the center of economic power in Europe from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic states and brought the latter into an expanding world economy.
- B. The exchange of new plants, animals, and diseases — the Columbian Exchange — created economic opportunities for Europeans and facilitated European subjugation and destruction of indigenous peoples, particularly in the Americas.

From Europe to the Americas:

- Wheat
- Cattle
- Horses
- Pigs
- Sheep
- Smallpox
- Measles

From the Americas to Europe:

- Tomatoes
- Potatoes
- Squash
- Corn
- Tobacco
- Turkeys
- Syphilis

C. Europeans expanded the African slave trade in response to the establishment of a plantation economy in the Americas and demographic catastrophes among indigenous peoples.

Key Concept 1.5

European society and the experiences of everyday life were increasingly shaped by commercial and agricultural capitalism, notwithstanding the persistence of medieval social and economic structures.

In the 16th and 17th centuries, Europeans experienced profound economic and social changes. The influx of precious metals from the Americas and the gradual recovery of Europe's population from the Black Death caused a significant rise in the cost of goods and services by the 16th century, known as the *price revolution*. The new pattern of economic enterprise and investment that arose from these changes would come to be called capitalism. Family-based banking houses were supplanted by broadly integrated capital markets in Genoa, then in Amsterdam, and later in London. These and other urban centers became increasingly active consumer markets for a variety of luxury goods and commodities. Rulers soon recognized that capitalist enterprise offered them a revenue source to support state functions, and the competition among states was extended into the economic arena. The drive for economic profit and the increasing scale of commerce stimulated the creation of joint-stock companies to conduct overseas trade and colonization.

Many Europeans found their daily lives altered by these demographic and economic changes. As population increased in the 16th century, the price of grain rose and diets deteriorated, all as monarchs were increasing taxes to support their larger state militaries. All but the wealthy were vulnerable to food shortages, and even the wealthy had no immunity to recurrent lethal epidemics. Although hierarchy and privilege continued to define the social structure, the nobility and gentry expanded with the infusion of new blood from the commercial and professional classes. By the mid-17th century, war, economic contraction, and slackening population growth contributed to the disintegration of older communal values. Growing numbers of the poor became beggars or vagabonds, straining the traditional systems of charity and social control. In eastern Europe, commercial development lagged and traditional social patterns persisted; the nobility actually increased its power over the peasantry.

Traditional town governments, dominated by craft guilds and traditional religious institutions, staggered under the burden of rural migrants and growing poverty. The Reformation and Counter-Reformation stimulated a drive to regulate public morals, leisure activities, and the distribution of poor relief. In both town and country, the family remained the dominant unit of production, and marriage remained an instrument of families' social and economic strategies. The children of peasants and craft workers often labored

alongside their parents. In the lower orders of society, men and women did not occupy separate spheres, although they performed different tasks. Economics often dictated later marriages (European marriage pattern). However, there were exceptions to this pattern: In the cities of Renaissance Italy, men in their early 30s often married teenaged women, and in eastern Europe, early marriage for both men and women persisted. Despite the growth of the market economy in which individuals increasingly made their own way, leisure activities tended to be communal, rather than individualistic and consumerist, as they are today. Local communities enforced their customs and norms through crowd action and rituals of public shaming.

I. Economic change produced new social patterns, while traditions of hierarchy and status persisted.

A. Innovations in banking and finance promoted the growth of urban financial centers and a money economy.

- The Dutch East India Company
- The British East India Company

B. The growth of commerce produced a new economic elite, which related to traditional elites in different ways in Europe's various geographic regions.

- Town elites (bankers and merchants)

C. Hierarchy and status continued to define social power and perceptions in rural and urban settings.

II. Most Europeans derived their livelihood from agriculture and oriented their lives around the seasons, the village, or the manor, although economic changes began to alter rural production and power.

A. Subsistence agriculture was the rule in most areas, with three-crop field rotation in the north and two-crop rotation in the Mediterranean; in many cases, farmers paid rent and labor services for their lands.

B. The price revolution contributed to the accumulation of capital and the expansion of the market economy through the commercialization of agriculture, which benefited large landowners in western Europe.

- Enclosure movement

C. As western Europe moved toward a free peasantry and commercial agriculture, serfdom was codified in the east, where nobles continued to dominate economic life on large estates.

D. The attempts of landlords to increase their revenues by restricting or abolishing the traditional rights of peasants led to revolt.

III. Population shifts and growing commerce caused the expansion of cities, which often found their traditional political and social structures stressed by the growth.

A. Population recovered to its pre-Great Plague level in the 16th century, and continuing population pressures contributed to uneven price increases; agricultural commodities increased more sharply than wages, reducing living standards for some.

B. Migrants to the cities challenged the ability of merchant elites and craft guilds to govern and strained resources.

- Sanitation problems caused by overpopulation

C. Social dislocation, coupled with the weakening of religious institutions during the Reformation, left city governments with the task of regulating public morals.

- New secular laws regulating private life

IV. The family remained the primary social and economic institution of early modern Europe and took several forms, including the nuclear family.

A. Rural and urban households worked as units, with men and women engaged in separate but complementary tasks.

B. The Renaissance and Reformation movements raised debates about female roles in the family, society, and the church.

- Women's intellect and education

C. From the late 16th century forward, Europeans responded to economic and environmental challenges, such as the “Little Ice Age,” by delaying marriage and childbearing, which restrained population growth and ultimately improved the economic condition of families.

V. Popular culture, leisure activities, and rituals reflecting the persistence of folk ideas reinforced and sometimes challenged communal ties and norms.

A. Leisure activities continued to be organized according to the religious calendar and the agricultural cycle and remained communal in nature.

- ♦ Saint’s day festivities

B. Local and church authorities continued to enforce communal norms through rituals of public humiliation.

- ♦ Stocks

C. Reflecting folk ideas and social and economic upheaval, accusations of witchcraft peaked between 1580 and 1650.

Period 2: c. 1648 to c. 1815

Key Concept 2.1

Different models of political sovereignty affected the relationship among states and between states and individuals.

Between 1648 and 1815, the sovereign state was consolidated as the principal form of political organization across Europe. Justified and rationalized by theories of political sovereignty, states adopted a variety of methods to acquire the human, fiscal, and material resources essential for the promotion of their interests. Although challenged and sometimes effectively resisted by various social groups and institutions, the typical state of the period, best exemplified by the rule of Louis XIV in France, asserted claims to absolute authority within its borders. A few states, most notably England and the Dutch Republic, gradually developed governments in which the authority of the executive was restricted by legislative bodies protecting the interests of the landowning and commercial classes. Between the Peace of Westphalia (1648) and the Congress of Vienna (1814–1815), European states managed their external affairs within a balance of power system. In this system, diplomacy became a major component of the relations among states. Most of the wars of the period, including conflicts fought outside of Europe, stemmed from attempts either to preserve or disturb the balance of power among European states. While European monarchs continued to view their affairs in dynastic terms, increasingly, reasons of state influenced policy.

The French Revolution was the most formidable challenge to traditional politics and diplomacy during this period. Inspired in part by Enlightenment ideas, the revolution introduced mass politics, led to the creation of numerous political and social ideologies, and remained the touchstone for those advocating radical reform in subsequent decades. The French Revolution was part of a larger revolutionary impulse that, as a transatlantic movement, influenced revolutions in Spanish America and the Haitian slave revolt. Napoleon Bonaparte built upon the gains of the revolution and attempted to exploit the resources of the continent in the interests of France and his own dynasty. Napoleon's revolutionary state imposed French hegemony throughout Europe, but eventually a coalition of European powers overthrew French domination and restored, as much as possible, a balance of power within the European state system. At the same time, the conservative powers attempted to suppress the ideologies inspired by the French Revolution.

I. In much of Europe, absolute monarchy was established over the course of the 17th and 18th centuries.

A. Absolute monarchies limited the nobility's participation in governance but preserved the aristocracy's social position and legal privileges.

- Louis XIV of France
- Peter the Great of Russia

B. Louis XIV and his finance minister, Jean-Baptiste Colbert, extended the administrative, financial, military, and religious control of the central state over the French population.

C. In the 18th century, a number of states in eastern and central Europe experimented with enlightened absolutism.

- Frederick II of Prussia

D. The inability of the Polish monarchy to consolidate its authority over the nobility led to Poland's partition by Prussia, Russia, and Austria, and its disappearance from the map of Europe.

E. Peter the Great "westernized" the Russian state and society, transforming political, religious, and cultural institutions; Catherine the Great continued this process.

II. Challenges to absolutism resulted in alternative political systems.

A. The outcome of the English Civil War and the Glorious Revolution protected the rights of gentry and aristocracy from absolutism through assertions of the rights of Parliament.

- English Bill of Rights

B. The Dutch Republic developed an oligarchy of urban gentry and rural landholders to promote trade and protect traditional rights.

III. After 1648, dynastic and state interests, along with Europe's expanding colonial empires, influenced the diplomacy of European states and frequently led to war.

A. As a result of the Holy Roman Empire's limitation of sovereignty in the Peace of Westphalia, Prussia rose to power and the Habsburgs, centered in Austria, shifted their empire eastward.

- Maria Theresa of Austria

B. After the Austrian defeat of the Turks in 1683 at the Battle of Vienna, the Ottomans ceased their westward expansion.

C. Louis XIV's nearly continuous wars, pursuing both dynastic and state interests, provoked a coalition of European powers opposing him.

- War of the Spanish Succession

D. Rivalry between Britain and France resulted in world wars fought both in Europe and in the colonies, with Britain supplanting France as the greatest European power.

IV. The French Revolution posed a fundamental challenge to Europe's existing political and social order

A. The French Revolution resulted from a combination of long-term social and political causes, as well as Enlightenment ideas, exacerbated by short-term fiscal and economic crises.

B. The first, or liberal, phase of the French Revolution established a constitutional monarchy, increased popular participation, nationalized the Catholic Church, and abolished hereditary privileges.

- Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen

C. After the execution of the Louis XVI, the radical Jacobin Republic led by Robespierre responded to opposition at home and war abroad by instituting the Reign of Terror, fixing prices and wages, and pursuing a policy of de-Christianization.

- Georges Danton
- Jean-Paul Marat
- Committee of Public Safety

D. Revolutionary armies, raised by mass conscription, sought to bring the changes initiated in France to the rest of Europe.

E. Women enthusiastically participated in the early phases of the revolution; however, while there were brief improvements in the legal status of women, citizenship in the republic was soon restricted to men.

F. Revolutionary ideals inspired a slave revolt led by Toussaint L'Ouverture in the French colony of Saint Domingue, which became the independent nation of Haiti in 1804.

G. While many were inspired by the revolution's emphasis on equality and human rights, others condemned its violence and disregard for traditional authority.

V. Claiming to defend the ideals of the French Revolution, Napoleon Bonaparte imposed French control over much of the European continent that eventually provoked a nationalistic reaction.

A. As first consul and emperor, Napoleon undertook a number of enduring domestic reforms while often curtailing some rights and manipulating popular impulses behind a façade of representative institutions.

- Educational system
- Centralized bureaucracy
- Civil Code
- Concordat of 1801
- Secret police

B. Napoleon's new military tactics allowed him to exert direct or indirect control over much of the European continent, spreading the ideals of the French Revolution across Europe.

C. Napoleon's expanding empire created nationalist responses throughout Europe.

D. After the defeat of Napoleon by a coalition of European powers, the Congress of Vienna (1814-1815) attempted to restore the balance of power in Europe and contain the danger of revolutionary or nationalistic upheavals in the future.

Key Concept 2.2

The expansion of European commerce accelerated the growth of a worldwide economic network.

The economic watershed of the 17th and 18th centuries was a historically unique passage from limited resources that made material want inescapable, to self-generating economic growth that dramatically raised levels of physical and material well-being. European societies — first those with access to the Atlantic and gradually those to the east and on the Mediterranean — provided increasing percentages of their populations with a higher standard of living.

The gradual emergence of new economic structures that made European global influence possible both presupposed and promoted far-reaching changes in human capital, property rights, financial instruments, technologies, and labor systems. These changes included:

Availability of labor power, both in terms of numbers and in terms of persons with the skills (literacy, ability to understand and manipulate the natural world, physical health sufficient for work) required for efficient production

Institutions and practices that supported economic activity and provided incentives for it (new definitions of property rights and protections for them against theft or confiscation and against state taxation)

Accumulations of capital for financing enterprises and innovations, as well as for raising the standard of living and the means for turning private savings into investable or “venture” capital

Technological innovations in food production, transportation, communication, and manufacturing

A major result of these changes was the development of a growing consumer society that benefited from and contributed to the increase in material resources. At the same time, other effects of the economic revolution — increased geographic mobility, transformed employer–worker relations, the decline of domestic manufacturing — eroded traditional community and family solidarities and protections.

European economic strength derived in part from the ability to control and exploit resources (human and material) around the globe. Mercantilism supported the development of European trade and influence around the world. However, the economic, social, demographic, and ecological effects of European exploitation on other regions were often devastating. Internally, Europe divided more and more sharply between the societies engaging in overseas trade and undergoing the economic transformations sketched above (primarily countries on the Atlantic) and those (primarily in central and eastern Europe) with little such involvement. The eastern European countries remained in a traditional, principally agrarian, economy and maintained the traditional order of society and the state that rested on it.

I. Early modern Europe developed a market economy that provided the foundation for its global role.

A. Labor and trade in commodities were increasingly freed from traditional restrictions imposed by governments and corporate entities.

- Market-driven wages and prices

B. The Agricultural Revolution raised productivity and increased the supply of food and other agricultural products.

C. The putting-out system, or cottage industry, expanded as increasing numbers of laborers in homes or workshops produced for markets through merchant intermediaries or workshop owners.

D. The development of the market economy led to new financial practices and institutions.

- Bank of England

II. The European-dominated worldwide economic network contributed to the agricultural, industrial, and consumer revolutions in Europe.

A. European states followed mercantilist policies by exploiting colonies in the New World and elsewhere.

B. The transatlantic slave-labor system expanded in the 17th and 18th centuries as demand for New World products increased.

- Middle Passage

C. Overseas products and influences contributed to the development of a consumer culture in Europe.

- Tea

D. The importation and transplantation of agricultural products from the Americas contributed to an increase in the food supply in Europe.

E. Foreign lands provided raw materials, finished goods, laborers, and markets for the commercial and industrial enterprises in Europe.

III. Commercial rivalries influenced diplomacy and warfare among European states in the early modern era.

A. European sea powers vied for Atlantic influence throughout the 18th century.

B. Portuguese, Dutch, French, and British rivalries in Asia culminated in British domination in India and Dutch control of the East Indies.

Key Concept 2.3

The popularization and dissemination of the Scientific Revolution and the application of its methods to political, social, and ethical issues led to an increased, although not unchallenged, emphasis on reason in European culture.

During the 17th and 18th centuries, Europeans applied the methods of the new science — such as empiricism, mathematics, and skepticism — to human affairs. During the Enlightenment, intellectuals such as Rousseau, Voltaire, and Diderot aimed to replace faith in divine revelation with faith in human reason and classical values. In economics and politics, liberal theorists such as John Locke and Adam Smith questioned absolutism and mercantilism by arguing for the authority of natural law and the market. Belief in progress, along with improved social and economic conditions, spurred significant gains in literacy and education as well as the creation of a new culture of the printed word, including novels, newspapers, periodicals, and such reference works as Diderot’s *Encyclopédie*, for a growing educated audience.

Several movements of religious revival occurred during the 18th century, but elite culture embraced skepticism, secularism, and atheism for the first time in European history, and popular attitudes began to move in the same directions. From the beginning of this period, Protestants and Catholics grudgingly tolerated each other following the religious warfare of the previous two centuries. By 1800, most governments had extended toleration to Christian minorities and in some states even to Jews. Religion was viewed increasingly as a matter of private rather than public concern.

The new rationalism did not sweep all before it; in fact, it coexisted with a revival of sentimentalism and emotionalism. Until about 1750, Baroque art and music glorified religious feeling and drama as well as the grandiose pretensions of absolute monarchs. During the French Revolution, romanticism and nationalism implicitly challenged what some saw as the Enlightenment’s overemphasis on reason. These Counter-Enlightenment views laid the foundations for new cultural and political values in the 19th century. Overall, intellectual and cultural developments during this period marked a transition in European history to a modern worldview in which rationalism, skepticism, scientific investigation, and a belief in progress generally dominated, although such views did not completely overwhelm other worldviews stemming from religion, nationalism, and romanticism.

I. Rational and empirical thought challenged traditional values and ideas.

A. Intellectuals such as Voltaire and Diderot began to apply the principles of the Scientific Revolution to society and human institutions.

- Montesquieu’s *The Spirit of the Laws*

B. Locke and Rousseau developed new political models based on the concept of natural rights.

C. Despite the principles of equality espoused by the Enlightenment and the French Revolution, intellectuals such as Rousseau offered new arguments for the exclusion of women from political life, which did not go unchallenged.

- Mary Wollstonecraft

II. New public venues and print media popularized Enlightenment ideas.

A. A variety of institutions, such as salons, explored and disseminated Enlightenment culture.

- Lending libraries

B. Despite censorship, increasingly numerous and varied printed materials served a growing literate public and led to the development of public opinion.

- Newspapers
- The *Encyclopédie*

C. Natural sciences, literature, and popular culture increasingly exposed Europeans to representations of peoples outside Europe.

III. New political and economic theories challenged absolutism and mercantilism.

A. Political theories, such as John Locke's, conceived of society as composed of individuals driven by self-interest and argued that the state originated in the consent of the governed (i.e., a social contract) rather than in divine right or tradition.

B. Mercantilist theory and practice were challenged by new economic ideas, such as Adam Smith's, espousing free trade and a free market.

- Physiocrats

IV. During the Enlightenment, the rational analysis of religious practices led to natural religion and the demand for religious toleration.

A. Intellectuals, including Voltaire and Diderot, developed new philosophies of deism, skepticism, and atheism.

- David Hume

B. Religion was viewed increasingly as a matter of private rather than public concern.

C. By 1800, most governments had extended toleration to Christian minorities and, in some states, civil equality to Jews.

V. The arts moved from the celebration of religious themes and royal power to an emphasis on private life and the public good.

A. Until about 1750, Baroque art and music promoted religious feeling and was employed by monarchs to glorify state power.

- J. S. Bach

B. Artistic movements and literature also reflected the outlook and values of commercial and bourgeois society as well as new Enlightenment ideals of political power and citizenship.

- Neoclassicism
- Jane Austen

VI. While Enlightenment values dominated the world of European ideas, they were challenged by the revival of public sentiment and feeling.

A. Rousseau questioned the exclusive reliance on reason and emphasized the role of emotions in the moral improvement of self and society.

B. Revolution, war, and rebellion demonstrated the emotional power of mass politics and nationalism.

C. Romanticism emerged as a challenge to Enlightenment rationality.

Key Concept 2.4

The experiences of everyday life were shaped by demographic, environmental, medical, and technological changes.

The legacies of the 16th-century population explosion, which roughly doubled the European population, were social disruptions and demographic disasters that persisted into the 18th century. Volatile weather in the 17th century harmed agricultural production. In some localities, recurring food shortages caused undernourishment that combined with disease to produce periodic spikes in mortality. By the 17th century, the European marriage pattern, which limited family size, became the most important check on population levels, although some couples also adopted birth control practices to limit family size. By the middle of the 18th century, better weather, improvements in transportation, new crops and agricultural practices, less epidemic disease, and advances in medicine and hygiene allowed much of Europe to escape from the cycle of famines that had caused repeated demographic disaster. By the end of the 18th century, reductions in child mortality and increases in life expectancy constituted the demographic underpinnings of new attitudes toward children and families.

Particularly in western Europe, the demographic revolution, along with the rise in prosperity, produced advances in material well-being that did not stop with the economic: Greater prosperity was associated with increasing literacy, education, and rich cultural lives (the growth of publishing and libraries, the founding of schools, and the establishment of orchestras, theaters, and museums). By the end of the 18th century, it was evident that a high proportion of Europeans were better fed, healthier, longer lived, and more secure and comfortable in their material well-being than at any previous time in human history. This relative prosperity was balanced by increasing numbers of the poor throughout Europe, who strained charitable resources and alarmed government officials and local communities.

I. In the 17th century, small landholdings, low-productivity agricultural practices, poor transportation, and adverse weather limited and disrupted the food supply, causing periodic famines. By the 18th century, Europeans began to escape from the Malthusian imbalance between population and the food supply, resulting in steady population growth.

A. By the middle of the 18th century, higher agricultural productivity and improved transportation increased the food supply, allowing populations to grow and reducing the number of demographic crises (a process known as the Agricultural Revolution).

B. In the 18th century, plague disappeared as a major epidemic disease, and inoculation reduced smallpox mortality.

II. The consumer revolution of the 18th century was shaped by a new concern for privacy, encouraged the purchase of new goods for homes, and created new venues for leisure activities.

- Homes were built to include private retreats, such as the boudoir
- Cotton and linens for home décor
- Theaters and opera houses

III. By the 18th century, family and private life reflected new demographic patterns and the effects of the commercial revolution.

A. Although the rate of illegitimate births increased in the 18th century, population growth was limited by the European marriage pattern and, in some areas, by the early practice of birth control.

B. As infant and child mortality decreased and commercial wealth increased, families dedicated more space and resources to children and child-rearing, as well as private life and comfort.

IV. Cities offered economic opportunities, which attracted increasing migration from rural areas, transforming urban life and creating challenges for the new urbanites and their families.

A. The Agricultural Revolution produced more food using fewer workers; as a result, people migrated from rural areas to the cities in search of work.

B. The growth of cities eroded traditional communal values, and city governments strained to provide protection and a healthy environment.

C. The concentration of the poor in cities led to a greater awareness of poverty, crime, and prostitution as social problems, and prompted increased efforts to police marginal groups.

Period 3: c. 1815 to c. 1914

Key Concept 3.1

The Industrial Revolution spread from Great Britain to the continent, where the state played a greater role in promoting industry.

The transition from an agricultural to an industrial economy began in Britain in the 18th century, spread to France and Germany between 1850 and 1870, and finally to Russia in the 1890s. The governments of those countries actively supported industrialization. In southern and eastern Europe, some pockets of industry developed, surrounded by traditional agrarian economies. Although continental nations sought to borrow from and in some instances imitate the British model — the success of which was represented by the Crystal Palace Exhibition in 1851 — each nation's experience of industrialization was shaped by its own matrix of geographic, social, and political factors. The legacy of the revolution in France, for example, led to a more gradual adoption of mechanization in production, ensuring a more incremental industrialization than was the case in Britain. Despite the creation of a customs union in the 1830s, Germany's lack of political unity hindered its industrial development. However, following unification in 1871, the German Empire quickly came to challenge British dominance in key industries, such as steel, coal, and chemicals.

Beginning in the 1870s, the European economy fluctuated widely because of the vagaries of financial markets. Continental states responded by assisting and protecting the development of national industry in a variety of ways, the most important being protective tariffs, military procurements, and colonial conquests. Key economic stakeholders, such as corporations and industrialists, expected governments to promote economic development by subsidizing ports, transportation, and new inventions; registering patents and sponsoring education; encouraging investments and enforcing contracts; and maintaining order and preventing labor strikes. State intervention reached its culmination in the 20th century, when some governments took over direction of the entire process of industrial development under the pressure of war and depression and/or from ideological commitments.

I. Great Britain established its industrial dominance through the mechanization of textile production, iron and steel production, and new transportation systems.

A. Britain's ready supplies of coal, iron ore, and other essential raw materials promoted industrial growth.

B. Economic institutions and human capital such as engineers, inventors, and capitalists helped Britain lead the process of industrialization, largely through private initiative.

- Banks

C. Britain's parliamentary government promoted commercial and industrial interests because those interests were represented in Parliament.

II. Following the British example, industrialization took root in continental Europe, sometimes with state sponsorship.

A. France moved toward industrialization at a more gradual pace than Great Britain, with government support and with less dislocation of traditional methods of production.

- Railroads

B. Industrialization in Prussia allowed that state to become the leader of a unified Germany, which subsequently underwent rapid industrialization under government sponsorship.

- Friedrich List's National System

C. A combination of factors including geography, lack of resources, the dominance of traditional landed elites, the persistence of serfdom in some areas, and inadequate government sponsorship accounted for eastern and southern Europe's lag in industrial development.

- Lack of resources

III. During the second industrial revolution (c. 1870–1914), more areas of Europe experienced industrial activity, and industrial processes increased in scale and complexity.

A. Mechanization and the factory system became the predominant modes of production by 1914.

B. New technologies and means of communication and transportation — including railroads — resulted in more fully integrated national economies, a higher level of urbanization, and a truly global economic network.

- Bessemer process
- Steamship

C. Volatile business cycles in the last quarter of the 19th century led corporations and governments to try to manage the market through monopolies, banking practices, and tariffs.

Key Concept 3.2

The experiences of everyday life were shaped by industrialization, depending on the level of industrial development in a particular location.

Industrialization promoted the development of new socioeconomic classes between 1815 and 1914. In highly industrialized areas, such as western and northern Europe, the new economy created new social divisions, leading for the first time to the development of self-conscious economic classes, especially the proletariat and the bourgeoisie. In addition, economic changes led to the rise of trade and industrial unions, benevolent associations, sport clubs, and distinctive class-based cultures of dress, speech, values, and customs. Europe also experienced rapid population growth and urbanization that resulted in benefits as well as social dislocations. The increased population created an enlarged labor force, but in some areas migration from the countryside to the towns and cities led to overcrowding and significant emigration overseas.

Industrialization and urbanization changed the structure and relations of bourgeois and working-class families to varying degrees. Birth control became increasingly common across Europe, and childhood experience changed with the advent of protective legislation, universal schooling, and smaller families. The growth of a cult of domesticity established new models of gendered behavior for men and women. Gender roles became more clearly defined as middle-class women withdrew from the workforce. At the same time, working-class women increased their participation as wage-laborers, although the middle class criticized them for neglecting their families.

Industrialization and urbanization also changed people's conception of time; in particular, work and leisure were increasingly differentiated by means of the imposition of strict work schedules and the separation of the workplace from the home. Increasingly, trade unions assumed responsibility for the social welfare of working-class families, fighting for improved working conditions and shorter hours. Increasing leisure time spurred the development of leisure activities and spaces for bourgeois families. Overall, although inequality and poverty remained significant social problems, the quality of material life improved. For most social groups, the standard of living rose; the availability of consumer products grew; and sanitary standards, medical care, and life expectancy improved.

I. Industrialization promoted the development of new classes in the industrial regions of Europe.

- A. In industrialized areas of Europe (i.e., western and northern Europe), socioeconomic changes created divisions of labor that led to the development of self-conscious classes, such as the proletariat and the bourgeoisie.
- B. In some of the less industrialized areas of Europe, the dominance of agricultural elites persisted into the 20th century.
- C. Class identity developed and was reinforced through participation in philanthropic, political, and social associations among the middle classes, and in mutual aid societies and trade unions among the working classes.

II. Europe experienced rapid population growth and urbanization, leading to social dislocations.

- A. Along with better harvests caused in part by the commercialization of agriculture, industrialization promoted population growth, longer life expectancy, and lowered infant mortality.
- B. With migration from rural to urban areas in industrialized regions, cities experienced overcrowding, while affected rural areas suffered declines in available labor as well as weakened communities.

III. Over time, the Industrial Revolution altered the family structure and relations for bourgeois and working-class families.

- A. Bourgeois families became focused on the nuclear family and the cult of domesticity, with distinct gender roles for men and women.
- B. By the end of the century, wages and the quality of life for the working class improved because of laws restricting the labor of children and women, social welfare programs, improved diet, and the use of birth control.

- Ten Hours Act of 1847

C. Economic motivations for marriage, while still important for all classes, diminished as the middle-class notion of companionate marriage began to be adopted by the working classes.

D. Leisure time centered increasingly on the family or small groups, concurrent with the development of activities and spaces to use that time.

- Department stores

IV. A heightened consumerism developed as a result of the second industrial revolution.

A. Industrialization and mass marketing increased both the production and demand for a new range of consumer goods — including clothing, processed foods, and labor-saving devices — and created more leisure opportunities.

- Catalogs

B. New efficient methods of transportation and other innovations created new industries, improved the distribution of goods, increased consumerism, and enhanced the quality of life.

- Railroads
- Electricity and utilities

V. Because of the persistence of primitive agricultural practices and land-owning patterns, some areas of Europe lagged in industrialization while facing famine, debt, and land shortages.

- Irish potato famine

Key Concept 3.3

The problems of industrialization provoked a range of ideological, governmental, and collective responses.

The French and industrial revolutions triggered dramatic political and social consequences and new theories to deal with them. The ideologies engendered by these 19th-century revolutions — conservatism, liberalism, socialism, nationalism, and even romanticism — provided their adherents with coherent views of the world and differing blueprints for change. For example, utopian socialists experimented with communal living as a social and economic response to change. The responses to socioeconomic changes reached a culmination in the revolutions of 1848, but the failure of these uprisings left the issues raised by the economic, political, and social transformations unresolved well into the 20th century.

In the second half of the 19th century, labor leaders in many countries created unions and syndicates to provide the working classes with a collective voice, and these organizations used collective action such as strikes and movements for men's universal suffrage to reinforce their demands. Feminists and suffragists petitioned and staged public protests to press their demands for similar rights for women. The international movements for socialism, labor, and women's rights were important examples of a trend toward international cooperation in a variety of causes, including antislavery and peace movements. Finally, political parties emerged as sophisticated vehicles for advocating reform or reacting to changing conditions in the political arena.

Nationalism acted as one of the most powerful engines of political change, inspiring revolutions as well as campaigns by states for national unity or a higher degree of centralization. Early nationalism emphasized shared historical and cultural experiences that often threatened traditional elites. Over the course of the 19th century, leaders recognized the need to promote national unity through economic development and expanding state functions to meet the challenges posed by industry.

I. Ideologies developed and took root throughout society as a response to industrial and political revolutions.

A. Liberals emphasized popular sovereignty, individual rights, and enlightened self-interest but debated the extent to which all groups in society should actively participate in its governance.

- John Stuart Mill

B. Radicals in Britain and republicans on the continent demanded universal male suffrage and full citizenship without regard to wealth and property ownership; some argued that such rights should be extended to women.

- Flora Tristan

C. Conservatives developed a new ideology in support of traditional political and religious authorities, which was based on the idea that human nature was not perfectible.

- Klemens von Metternich

D. Socialists called for a fair distribution of society's resources and wealth and evolved from a utopian to a Marxist scientific critique of capitalism.

- Henri de Saint-Simon
- Friedrich Engels

E. Anarchists asserted that all forms of governmental authority were unnecessary and should be overthrown and replaced with a society based on voluntary cooperation.

- Mikhail Bakunin

F. Nationalists encouraged loyalty to the nation in a variety of ways, including romantic idealism, liberal reform, political unification, racialism with a concomitant anti-Semitism, and chauvinism justifying national aggrandizement.

- Grimm Brothers
- Christian Social Party in Germany

G. A form of Jewish nationalism, Zionism, developed in the late 19th century as a response to growing anti-Semitism in both western and eastern Europe.

- Theodor Herzl

II. Governments responded to the problems created or exacerbated by industrialization by expanding their functions and creating modern bureaucratic states.

A. Liberalism shifted from laissez-faire to interventionist economic and social policies on behalf of the less privileged; the policies were based on a rational approach to reform that addressed the impact of the Industrial Revolution on the individual.

B. Government reforms transformed unhealthy and overcrowded cities by modernizing infrastructure, regulating public health, reforming prisons, and establishing modern police forces.

- Public transportation

C. Governments promoted compulsory public education to advance the goals of public order, nationalism, and economic growth.

III. Political movements and social organizations responded to the problems of industrialization.

A. Mass-based political parties emerged as sophisticated vehicles for social, economic, and political reform.

- Social Democratic Party in Germany

B. Workers established labor unions and movements promoting social and economic reforms that also developed into political parties.

- British Labour Party

C. Feminists pressed for legal, economic, and political rights for women as well as improved working conditions.

- Flora Tristan

D. Various private, nongovernmental reform movements sought to lift up the deserving poor and end serfdom and slavery.

- British Abolitionist Movement
- Children, Women, Elderly
- Young Prostitutes

Key Concept 3.4

European states struggled to maintain international stability in an age of nationalism and revolutions.

Following a quarter-century of revolutionary upheaval and war spurred by Napoleon's imperial ambitions, the Great Powers met in Vienna in 1814–1815 to re-establish a workable balance of power and suppress liberal and nationalist movements for change. Austrian Foreign Minister Klemens von Metternich led the way in creating an informal security arrangement to resolve international disputes and stem revolution through common action among the Great Powers. Nonetheless, revolutions aimed at liberalization of the political system and national self-determination defined the period from 1815 to 1848.

The revolutions that swept Europe in 1848 were triggered by poor economic conditions, frustration at the slow pace of political change, and unfulfilled nationalist aspirations. At first, revolutionary forces succeeded in establishing regimes dedicated to change or to gaining independence from great-power domination. However, conservative forces, which still controlled the military and bureaucracy, reasserted control. Although the revolutions of 1848 were, as George Macaulay Trevelyan quipped, a “turning point at which modern history failed to turn,” they set the stage for a subsequent sea change in European diplomacy. A new breed of conservative leader, exemplified by Napoleon III of France, co-opted nationalism as a top-down force for the advancement of state power and authoritarian rule in the name of “the people.” Further, the Crimean War (1853–1856), prompted by the decline of the Ottoman Empire, shattered the Concert of Europe established in 1815 and opened the door for the unifications of Italy and Germany. Using the methods of *Realpolitik*, Cavour in Italy and Bismarck in Germany succeeded in unifying their nations after centuries of disunity. Their policies of war, diplomatic intrigue, and, in Bismarck's instance, manipulation of democratic mechanisms created states with the potential for upsetting the balance of power, particularly in the case of Germany.

Following the Crimean War, Russia undertook a series of internal reforms aimed at achieving industrial modernization. The reforms succeeded in establishing an industrial economy and emboldened Russia's aspirations in the Balkans. They also led to an active revolutionary movement, which employed political violence and assassinations and was one of the driving forces behind the 1905 Russian Revolution.

After the new German Emperor Wilhelm II dismissed Chancellor Bismarck in 1890, Germany's diplomatic approach altered significantly, leading to a shift in the alliance system and increased tensions in European diplomacy. Imperial antagonisms, growing nationalism, militarism, and other factors resulted in the development of a rigid system of alliances. The Great Powers militarized their societies and built up army and naval forces to unprecedented levels (fed by industrial and technological advances), while at the same time developing elaborate plans for the next war. The long-anticipated war finally came in the summer of 1914. The assassination of the heir to the Austrian throne in Sarajevo forced the political leaders of the Great Powers, locked in the rigid structure of the Triple Entente versus the Triple Alliance, to implement war plans that virtually required the escalation of hostilities. The ensuing Great War revealed the flaws in the diplomatic order established after the unifications of Germany and Italy, but more importantly, it produced an even more challenging diplomatic situation than that faced by the diplomats in 1814–1815.

I. The Concert of Europe (or Congress System) sought to maintain the status quo through collective action and adherence to conservatism.

- A. Metternich, architect of the Concert of Europe, used it to suppress nationalist and liberal revolutions.
- B. Conservatives re-established control in many European states and attempted to suppress movements for change and, in some areas, to strengthen adherence to religious authorities.
- C. In the first half of the 19th century, revolutionaries attempted to destroy the status quo.
 - ♦ Greek War of Independence
- D. The revolutions of 1848 challenged the conservative order and led to the breakdown of the Concert of Europe.

II. The breakdown of the Concert of Europe opened the door for movements of national unification in Italy and Germany as well as liberal reforms elsewhere.

- A. The Crimean War demonstrated the weakness of the Ottoman Empire and contributed to the breakdown of the Concert of Europe, thereby creating the conditions in which Italy and Germany could be unified after centuries of fragmentation.
- B. A new breed of conservative leaders, including Napoleon III, Cavour, and Bismarck, co-opted the agenda of nationalists for the purposes of creating or strengthening the state.
- C. The creation of the dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary, which recognized the political power of the largest ethnic minority, was an attempt to stabilize the state by reconfiguring national unity.
- D. In Russia, autocratic leaders pushed through a program of reform and modernization, which gave rise to revolutionary movements and eventually the Revolution of 1905.

- ♦ Alexander II

III. The unification of Italy and Germany transformed the European balance of power and led to efforts to construct a new diplomatic order.

A. Cavour's *Realpolitik* strategies, combined with the popular Garibaldi's military campaigns, led to the unification of Italy.

B. Bismarck employed diplomacy and industrialized warfare and weaponry and the manipulation of democratic mechanisms to unify Germany.

C. After 1871, Bismarck attempted to maintain the balance of power through a complex system of alliances directed at isolating France.

- Triple Alliance

D. Bismarck's dismissal in 1890 eventually led to a system of mutually antagonistic alliances and heightened international tensions.

E. Nationalist tensions in the Balkans drew the Great Powers into a series of crises, leading up to World War I.

- Bosnia-Herzegovina Annexation Crisis, 1908

Key Concept 3.5

A variety of motives and methods led to the intensification of European global control and increased tensions among the Great Powers.

The European imperial outreach of the 19th century was in some ways a continuation of three centuries of colonization, but it also resulted from the economic pressures and necessities of a maturing industrial economy. The new technologies and imperatives of the second industrial revolution (1870–1914) led many European nations to view overseas territories as sources of raw materials and consumer markets. While European colonial empires in the Western hemisphere diminished in size over this period as former colonies gained independence, the region remained dependent on Europe as a source of capital and technological expertise and was a market for European-made goods. European powers also became increasingly dominant in Eastern and Southern Asia in the early 19th century, and a combination of forces created the conditions for a new wave of imperialism there and in Africa later in the century. Moreover, European national rivalries accelerated the expansion of colonialism as governments recognized that actual control of these societies offered economic and strategic advantages. Notions of global destiny and racial superiority fed the drive for empire, and innovations such as antimalarial drugs, machine guns, and gunboats made it feasible. Non-European societies without these modern advantages could not effectively resist European imperial momentum.

The “new imperialism” of the late 19th and early 20th centuries was promoted in European nations by interest groups that included politicians, military officials and soldiers, missionaries, explorers, journalists, and intellectuals. As an example of a new complex phase of imperial diplomacy, the Berlin Conference in 1884–1885 outlined the procedures that Europeans should use in the partition of the African continent. By 1914, most of Africa and Asia were under the domination of Great Britain, France, Portugal, Germany, Belgium, and the Netherlands. Notwithstanding the power of colonial administrations, some groups in the colonial societies resisted European imperialism, and by 1914, anticolonial movements had taken root within the non-European world and in Europe itself. Imperialism exposed Europeans to foreign societies and introduced “exotic” influences into European art and culture. At the same time, millions of Europeans carried their culture abroad, to the Americas and elsewhere, through emigration, and helped to create a variety of mixed cultures around the world.

I. European nations were driven by economic, political, and cultural motivations in their new imperial ventures in Asia and Africa.

A. European national rivalries and strategic concerns fostered imperial expansion and competition for colonies.

B. The search for raw materials and markets for manufactured goods, as well as strategic and nationalistic considerations, drove Europeans to colonize Africa and Asia, even as European colonies in the Americas broke free politically, if not economically.

C. Europeans justified imperialism through an ideology of cultural and racial superiority.

II. Industrial and technological developments (i.e., the second industrial revolution) facilitated European control of global empires.

A. The development of advanced weaponry invariably ensured the military superiority of Europeans over colonized areas.

- Machine gun

B. Communication and transportation technologies allowed for the creation of European empires.

C. Advances in medicine supported European control of Africa and Asia by preserving European lives.

- Louis Pasteur's germ theory of disease
- Anesthesia and antiseptics
- Quinine

III. Imperial endeavors significantly affected society, diplomacy, and culture in Europe and created resistance to foreign control abroad.

A. Imperialism created diplomatic tensions among European states that strained alliance systems.

- Berlin Conference in (1884–1885)

B. Imperial encounters with non-European peoples influenced the styles and subject matter of artists and writers and provoked debate over the acquisition of colonies.

- Jules Verne's literature of exploration
- J. A. Hobson's and Vladimir Lenin's anti-imperialism

C. As non-Europeans became educated in Western values, they challenged European imperialism through nationalist movements and/or by modernizing their own economies and societies.

- Indian Congress Party
- Zulu Resistance
- India's Sepoy Mutiny
- China's Boxer Rebellion
- Japan's Meiji Restoration

Key Concept 3.6

European ideas and culture expressed a tension between objectivity and scientific realism on one hand, and subjectivity and individual expression on the other.

The romantic movement of the early 19th century set the stage for later cultural perspectives by encouraging individuals to cultivate their uniqueness and to trust intuition and emotion as much as reason. Partly in reaction to the Enlightenment, romanticism affirmed the value of sensitivity, imagination, and creativity and thereby provided a climate for artistic experimentation. Later artistic movements such as Impressionism, Expressionism, and Cubism, which rested on subjective interpretations of reality by the individual artist or writer, arose from the attitudes fostered by romanticism. The sensitivity of artists to non-European traditions that imperialism brought to their attention also can be traced to the romantics' emphasis on the primacy of culture in defining the character of individuals and groups.

In science, Darwin's evolutionary theory raised questions about human nature, and physicists began to challenge the uniformity and regularity of the Newtonian universe. In 1905 Einstein's theory of relativity underscored the position of the observer in defining reality, while the quantum principles of randomness and probability called the objectivity of Newtonian mechanics into question. The emergence of psychology as an independent discipline, separate from philosophy on the one hand and neurology on the other, led to investigations of human behavior that gradually revealed the need for more subtle methods of analysis than those provided by the physical and biological sciences. Freud's investigations into the human psyche suggested the power of irrational motivations and unconscious drives.

Many writers saw humans as governed by spontaneous, irrational forces and believed that intuition and will were as important as reason and science in the search for truth. In art, literature, and science, traditional notions of objective, universal truths and values increasingly shared the stage with a commitment to and recognition of subjectivity, skepticism, and cultural relativism.

I. Romanticism broke with neoclassical forms of artistic representation and with rationalism, placing more emphasis on intuition and emotion.

A. Romantic artists and composers broke from classical artistic forms to emphasize emotion, nature, individuality, intuition, the supernatural, and national histories in their works.

- Eugène Delacroix
- Richard Wagner

B. Romantic writers expressed similar themes while responding to the Industrial Revolution and to various political revolutions.

- Mary Shelley

II. Following the revolutions of 1848, Europe turned toward a realist and materialist worldview.

A. Positivism, or the philosophy that science alone provides knowledge, emphasized the rational and scientific analysis of nature and human affairs.

B. Charles Darwin provided a rational and material account of biological change and the development of human beings as a species, and inadvertently a justification for racialist theories known as *Social Darwinism*.

C. Marx's scientific socialism provided a systematic critique of capitalism and a deterministic analysis of society and historical evolution.

D. Realist and materialist themes and attitudes influenced art and literature as painters and writers depicted the lives of ordinary people and drew attention to social problems.

- Charles Dickens
- Thomas Hardy

III. A new relativism in values and the loss of confidence in the objectivity of knowledge led to modernism in intellectual and cultural life.

A. Philosophy largely moved from rational interpretations of nature and human society to an emphasis on irrationality and impulse, a view that contributed to the belief that conflict and struggle led to progress.

- Georges Sorel

B. Freudian psychology provided a new account of human nature that emphasized the role of the irrational and the struggle between the conscious and subconscious.

C. Developments in the natural sciences such as quantum mechanics and Einstein's theory of relativity undermined the primacy of Newtonian physics as an objective description of nature.

- Max Planck

D. Modern art, including Impressionism, Post-Impressionism, and Cubism, moved beyond the representational to the subjective, abstract, and expressive and often provoked audiences that believed that art should reflect shared and idealized values such as beauty and patriotism.

- Claude Monet

Period 4: c. 1914 to the Present

Key Concept 4.1

Total war and political instability in the first half of the 20th century gave way to a polarized state order during the Cold War and eventually to efforts at transnational union.

European politics and diplomacy in the 20th century were defined by total war and its consequences. World War I destroyed the balance of power, and the Treaty of Versailles, which ended the war, created unstable conditions in which extremist ideologies emerged that challenged liberal democracy and the postwar settlement. In Russia, hardships during World War I gave rise to a revolution in 1917. The newly established, postwar democracies in central and eastern Europe were too weak to provide stability either internally or in the European state system, especially during the Great Depression of the 1930s. The League of Nations, established after the war to employ collective security in the interests of peace, could not manage the international tensions unleashed by World War I. The breakdown of the settlement led to World War II, a conflict even more violent than World War I. During this second great war, the combatants engaged in wholesale destruction of cities, deliberate attacks on civilians, and the systematic destruction of their enemies' industrial complexes. The Nazi government in Germany undertook the annihilation of Jews from the whole continent (the Holocaust), as well as the murder of other targeted groups of Europeans. At the end of the war, the economic and political devastation left a power vacuum that facilitated the Cold War division of Europe.

During the 20th century, European imperialism, power, and sense of superiority reached both its apogee and nadir. In the first half of the century, nations extended their control and influence over most of the non-Western world, often through League of Nations' mandates. The idea of decolonization was born early in the century with the formation of movements seeking rights for indigenous peoples; the material and moral destruction of World War II made the idea a reality. After the war, regions colonized and dominated by European nations moved from resistance to independence at differing rates and with differing consequences. Yet even after decolonization, neocolonial dependency persisted, and millions of people migrated to Europe as its economy recovered from the war. This immigration created large populations of poor and isolated minorities, which occasionally rioted because of discrimination and economic deprivation. As European governments tried to solve these problems, the apparently permanent presence of the immigrants challenged old notions of European identity.

The uneasy alliance between Soviet Russia and the West during World War II gave way after 1945 to a diplomatic, political, and economic confrontation between the democratic, capitalist states of Western Europe allied with the United States and the communist bloc of Eastern Europe dominated by the Soviet Union (also known as the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, or USSR). During the ensuing confrontation between East and West, called the Cold War, relations between the two blocs fluctuated, but one consequence of the conflict was that European nations could not act autonomously in international affairs; the superpowers — the Soviet Union and the United States — controlled international relations in Europe.

Nonetheless, the Cold War promoted political and economic unity in Western Europe, leading to the establishment of a succession of ever-more comprehensive organizations for economic cooperation. In 1957, six countries formed the Common Market, which soon began to expand its membership to include other European states. The success of the Common Market inspired Europeans to work toward a closer political and economic unity, including a European executive body and Parliament. The founding of the European Union in 1991 at Maastricht included the agreement to establish the euro as a common currency for qualifying member-states. Following a series of largely peaceful revolutions in 1989, culminating in the collapse of the Soviet Union in 1991, the formerly communist states of Eastern Europe moved toward democracy and capitalist economies, and over time some of these states joined the European Union. One unforeseen consequence of the end of the Cold War was the re-emergence of nationalist movements *within* states, which led to the Balkan wars in Yugoslavia and tensions among the successor states of the Soviet Union as well as the rebirth of nationalist political parties in Western Europe.

I. World War I, caused by a complex interaction of long- and short-term factors, resulted in immense losses and disruptions for both victors and vanquished.

A. A variety of factors — including nationalism, military plans, the alliance system, and imperial competition — turned a regional dispute in the Balkans into World War I.

B. New technologies confounded traditional military strategies and led to massive troop losses.

- Machine gun
- Barbed wire
- Submarine
- Airplane
- Poison gas
- Tank

C. The effects of military stalemate and total war led to protest and insurrection in the belligerent nations and eventually to revolutions that changed the international balance of power.

D. The war in Europe quickly spread to non-European theaters, transforming the war into a global conflict.

- Japanese aggression in the Pacific and on the Chinese mainland

E. The relationship of Europe to the world shifted significantly with the globalization of the conflict, the emergence of the United States as a world power, and the overthrow of European empires.

II. The conflicting goals of the peace negotiators in Paris pitted diplomatic idealism against the desire to punish Germany, producing a settlement that satisfied few.

A. Wilsonian idealism clashed with postwar realities in both the victorious and the defeated states. Democratic successor states emerged from former empires and eventually succumbed to significant political, economic, and diplomatic crises.

- Czechoslovakia

B. The League of Nations, created to prevent future wars, was weakened from the outset by the nonparticipation of major powers, including the United States, Germany, and the Soviet Union.

C. The Versailles settlement, particularly its provisions on the assignment of guilt and reparations for the war, hindered the German Weimar Republic's ability to establish a stable and legitimate political and economic system.

III. In the interwar period, fascism, extreme nationalism, racist ideologies, and the failure of appeasement resulted in the catastrophe of World War II, presenting a grave challenge to European civilization.

A. French and British fears of another war, American isolationism, and deep distrust between Western democratic, capitalist nations, and the communist Soviet Union allowed fascist states to rearm and expand their territory.

- Remilitarization of the Rhineland
- Italian invasion of Ethiopia
- Annexation of Austria
- Nazi–Soviet Non-Aggression Pact

B. Germany's *Blitzkrieg* warfare in Europe, combined with Japan's attacks in Asia and the Pacific, brought the Axis powers early victories.

C. American and British industrial, scientific, and technological power and the all-out military commitment of the USSR contributed critically to the Allied victories.

D. Fueled by racism and anti-Semitism, Nazi Germany — with the cooperation of some of the other Axis powers and collaborationist governments — sought to establish a “new racial order” in Europe, which culminated with the Holocaust.

- Nuremberg Laws
- Auschwitz and other death camps

IV. As World War II ended, a Cold War between the liberal democratic West and the communist East began, lasting nearly half a century.

A. Despite efforts to maintain international cooperation through the newly created United Nations, deep-seated tensions between the USSR and the West led to the division of Europe, which was referred to in the West as the *Iron Curtain*.

B. The Cold War played out on a global stage and involved propaganda campaigns; covert actions; limited “hot wars” in Asia, Africa, Latin America, and the Caribbean; and an arms race, with the threat of a nuclear war.

- Korean War
- Vietnam War

C. The United States exerted a strong military, political, and economic influence in Western Europe, leading to the creation of world monetary and trade systems and geopolitical alliances such as the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO).

- International Monetary Fund (IMF)
- World Bank
- World Trade Organization (WTO)

D. Countries east of the Iron Curtain came under the military, political, and economic domination of the Soviet Union within the Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (COMECON) and the Warsaw Pact.

E. The collapse of the USSR in 1991 ended the Cold War and led to the establishment of capitalist economies throughout Eastern Europe. Germany was reunited, the Czechs and the Slovaks parted, Yugoslavia dissolved, and the European Union was enlarged through admission of former Eastern bloc countries.

V. In response to the destructive impact of two world wars, European nations began to set aside nationalism in favor of economic and political integration, forming a series of transnational unions that grew in size and scope over the second half of the 20th century.

A. As the economic alliance known as the European Coal and Steel Community, envisioned as a means to spur postwar economic recovery, developed into the European Economic Community (EEC or Common Market) and the European Union (EU), Europe experienced increasing economic and political integration and efforts to establish a shared European identity.

B. One of the major continuing challenges to countries in the EU is balancing national sovereignty with the responsibilities of membership in an economic and political union.

- The creation of the euro
- Free movement across borders

VI. Nationalist and separatist movements, along with ethnic conflict and ethnic cleansing, periodically disrupted the post–World War II peace.

- Ireland
- Chechnya
- Basque (ETA)
- Flemish
- Bosnian Muslims
- Albanian Muslims of Kosovo

VII. The process of decolonization occurred over the course of the century with varying degrees of cooperation, interference, or resistance from European imperialist states.

A. At the end of World War I, President Woodrow Wilson's principle of national self-determination raised expectations in the non-European world for freedom from colonial domination — expectations that led to international instability.

B. The League of Nations distributed former German and Ottoman possessions to France and Great Britain through the mandate system, thereby altering the imperial balance of power and creating a strategic interest in the Middle East and its oil.

- Lebanon and Syria
- Iraq
- Palestine

C. Despite indigenous nationalist movements, independence for many African and Asian territories was delayed until the mid- and even late 20th century by the imperial powers' reluctance to relinquish control, threats of interference from other nations, unstable economic and political systems, and Cold War strategic alignments.

- Indian National Congress
- Algeria's National Liberation Front (FLN)
- Ho Chi Minh's Viet Minh

Key Concept 4.2

The stresses of economic collapse and total war engendered internal conflicts within European states and created conflicting conceptions of the relationship between the individual and the state, as demonstrated in the ideological battle between liberal democracy, communism, and fascism.

During World War I, states increased the degree and scope of their authority over their economies, societies, and cultures. The demands of total war required the centralization of power and the regimentation of the lives of citizens. During the war, governments sought to control information and used propaganda to create stronger emotional ties to the nation and its war effort. Ironically, these measures also produced distrust of traditional authorities. At the end of the war, four empires dissolved — the German, Austro-Hungarian, Ottoman, and Russian empires — but the democratic nations that arose in their place lacked a tradition of democratic politics and suffered from weak economies and ethnic tensions. Even before the end of the war, Russia experienced a revolution and civil war that created not only a new state, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (also known as the USSR or Soviet Union), but also a new conception of government and socioeconomic order based on communist ideals.

In Italy and Germany, charismatic leaders led fascist movements to power, seizing control of the post-World War I governments. Fascism promised to solve economic problems through state direction, although not ownership, of production. The movements also promised to counteract the provisions of the Treaty of Versailles by rearming the military and by territorial expansion. The efforts of fascist governments to revise the Treaty of Versailles led to the most violent and destructive war in human history (World War II), a conflict between liberal democracies, temporarily allied with communist Russia, and fascist states. When this conflict ended in the total defeat of fascism, Europe was devastated, and liberal, capitalist democracies faced centrally directed, communist states — the only viable alternatives left.

In the post-World War II period, despite the difference of ideologies, states in both the East and West increased their involvement in their citizens' lives through the establishment of welfare programs, the expansion of education, regulation and planning of the economy, and the extension of cultural opportunities to all groups in society.

With the collapse of communism and the fall of the Soviet Union in the early 1990s, the liberal democracies of Western Europe celebrated the triumph of their political and economic systems, and many of the former communist states moved for admission into the European Union and the NATO. By the late 1990s, it became evident that the transition from communism to capitalism and democracy was not as simple as it first appeared to be. The West also experienced difficulties because of economic recession and experimented with hybrid economies that emphasized the social responsibility of the state toward its citizens.

I. The Russian Revolution created a regime based on Marxist-Leninist theory.

A. In Russia, World War I exacerbated long-term problems of political stagnation, social inequality, incomplete industrialization, and food and land distribution, all while creating support for revolutionary change.

- February/March Revolution

B. Military and worker insurrections, aided by the revived Soviets, undermined the Provisional Government and set the stage for Lenin's long-planned Bolshevik Revolution and establishment of a communist state.

C. The Bolshevik takeover prompted a protracted civil war between communist forces and their opponents, who were aided by foreign powers.

D. In order to improve economic performance, Lenin compromised with free-market principles under the New Economic Policy, but after his death, Stalin undertook a centralized program of rapid economic modernization.

- Collectivization
- Five-Year Plans

E. Stalin's economic modernization of the Soviet Union came at a high price, including the liquidation of the kulaks, famine in the Ukraine, purges of political rivals, unequal burdens placed on women, and the establishment of an oppressive political system.

- Great Purges
- Gulags
- Secret police

II. The ideology of fascism, with roots in the pre–World War I era, gained popularity in an environment of postwar bitterness, the rise of communism, uncertain transitions to democracy, and economic instability.

A. Fascist dictatorships used modern technology and propaganda that rejected democratic institutions, promoted charismatic leaders, and glorified war and nationalism to lure the disillusioned.

B. Mussolini and Hitler rose to power by exploiting postwar bitterness and economic instability, using terror and manipulating the fledgling and unpopular democracies in their countries.

C. Franco’s alliance with Italian and German fascists in the Spanish Civil War — in which the Western democracies did not intervene — represented a testing ground for World War II and resulted in authoritarian rule in Spain from 1936 to the mid-1970s.

D. After failures to establish functioning democracies, authoritarian dictatorships took power in Central and Eastern Europe during the interwar period.

- Poland

III. The Great Depression, caused by weaknesses in international trade and monetary theories and practices, undermined Western European democracies and fomented radical political responses throughout Europe.

A. World War I debt, nationalistic tariff policies, overproduction, depreciated currencies, disrupted trade patterns, and speculation created weaknesses in economies worldwide.

B. Dependence on post–World War I American investment capital led to financial collapse when, following the 1929 stock market crash, the United States cut off capital flows to Europe.

C. Despite attempts to rethink economic theories and policies and forge political alliances, Western democracies failed to overcome the Great Depression and were weakened by extremist movements.

- Keynesianism in Britain
- Popular Fronts in France and Spain

IV. Postwar economic growth supported an increase in welfare benefits; however, subsequent economic stagnation led to criticism and limitation of the welfare state.

A. Marshall Plan funds from the United States financed an extensive reconstruction of industry and infrastructure and stimulated an extended period of growth in Western and Central Europe, often referred to as an “economic miracle,” which increased the economic and cultural importance of consumerism.

B. The expansion of cradle-to-grave social welfare programs in the aftermath of World War II, accompanied by high taxes, became a contentious domestic political issue as the budgets of European nations came under pressure in the late 20th century.

V. Eastern European nations were defined by their relationship with the Soviet Union, which oscillated between repression and limited reform, until Mikhail Gorbachev’s policies led to the collapse of communist governments in Eastern Europe and the fall of the Soviet Union.

A. Central and Eastern European nations within the Soviet bloc followed an economic model based on central planning, extensive social welfare, and specialized production among bloc members.

B. After 1956, Soviet leader Nikita Khrushchev’s de-Stalinization policies failed to meet their economic goals within the Soviet Union and prompted revolts in Eastern Europe.

C. Following a long period of economic stagnation, Mikhail Gorbachev’s internal reforms of *perestroika* and *glasnost*, designed to make the Soviet system more flexible, failed to stave off the collapse of the Soviet Union and the end of its hegemonic control over Eastern and Central European satellites.

D. The rise of new nationalisms in Central and Eastern Europe brought peaceful revolution in most countries but resulted in war and genocide in the Balkans and instability in some former Soviet republics.

Key Concept 4.3

During the 20th century, diverse intellectual and cultural movements questioned the existence of objective knowledge, the ability of reason to arrive at truth, and the role of religion in determining moral standards.

The major trend of 20th-century European thought and culture moved from an optimistic view that modern science and technology could solve the problems of humankind to the formation of eclectic and sometimes skeptical movements that doubted the possibility of objective knowledge and of progress. Existentialism, postmodernism, and renewed religiosity challenged the perceived dogmatism of positivist science. While European society became increasingly secular, religion continued to play a role in the lives of many Europeans. Religious denominations addressed and in some cases incorporated modern ideas, such as the toleration of other religions, as well as scholarship — biblical and scientific — that challenged the veracity of the Bible. The Christian churches made these accommodations as immigration, particularly from Muslim countries, altered the religious landscape, challenging Europe's traditional Judeo-Christian identity.

After World War I, prewar trends in physics, psychology, and medical science accelerated. In physics, new discoveries and theories challenged the certainties of a Newtonian universe by introducing the ideas of relativity and uncertainty. Psychology, which became an independent field of inquiry at the end of the 19th century, demonstrated that much human behavior stemmed from irrational sources. By the mid-20th century, dramatic new medical technologies prolonged life but created new social, moral, and economic problems. During World War II, the potential dangers of scientific and technological achievements were demonstrated by the industrialization of death in the Holocaust and by the vast destruction wrought by the atomic bombs dropped on Japanese cities. It became clear that science could create weapons powerful enough to end civilization.

The art world in the 20th century was defined by experimentation and subjectivity, which asserted the independence of visual arts from realism. Futurism glorified the machine age; Dadaism satirized traditional aesthetics; and Expressionism and Surrealism explored the relationship between art and the emotions or the unconscious. In the interwar period, the slogan “form follows function” expressed a desire by architects to render the space in which we live and work more efficient. Throughout the century, American culture exerted an increasing pull on both elite and popular culture in Europe.

I. The widely held belief in progress characteristic of much of 19th-century thought began to break down before World War I; the experience of war intensified a sense of anxiety that permeated many facets of thought and culture, giving way by the century's end to a plurality of intellectual frameworks.

A. When World War I began, Europeans were generally confident in the ability of science and technology to address human needs and problems despite the uncertainty created by the new scientific theories and psychology.

B. The effects of world war and economic depression undermined this confidence in science and human reason, giving impetus to existentialism and producing postmodernism in the post-1945 period.

II. Science and technology yielded impressive material benefits but also caused immense destruction and posed challenges to objective knowledge.

A. The challenge to the certainties of the Newtonian universe in physics opened the door to uncertainty in other fields by undermining faith in objective knowledge, while also providing the knowledge necessary for the development of nuclear weapons and power.

- Erwin Schrödinger

B. Medical theories and technologies extended life but posed social and moral questions that eluded consensus and crossed religious, political, and philosophical perspectives.

- Eugenics
- Birth control
- Abortion
- Fertility treatments
- Genetic engineering

C. Military technologies made possible industrialized warfare, genocide, nuclear proliferation, and the risk of global nuclear war.

III. Organized religion continued to play a role in European social and cultural life despite the challenges of military and ideological conflict, modern secularism, and rapid social changes.

A. The challenges of totalitarianism and communism in Central and Eastern Europe brought mixed responses from the Christian churches.

- Solidarity

B. Reform in the Catholic Church found expression in the Second Vatican Council, which redefined the Church's dogma and practices and started to redefine its relations with other religious communities.

C. Increased immigration into Europe altered Europe's religious makeup, causing debate and conflict over the role of religion in social and political life.

IV. During the 20th century, the arts were defined by experimentation, self-expression, subjectivity, and the increasing influence of the United States in both elite and popular culture.

A. New movements in the visual arts, architecture, and music demolished existing aesthetic standards, explored subconscious and subjective states, and satirized Western society and its values.

- Pop Art
- Modernism
- Compositions of Richard Strauss

B. Throughout the century, a number of writers challenged traditional literary conventions, questioned Western values, and addressed controversial social and political issues.

- Jean-Paul Sartre

C. Increased imports of United States technology and popular culture after World War II generated both enthusiasm and criticism.

Key Concept 4.4

Demographic changes, economic growth, total war, disruptions of traditional social patterns, and competing definitions of freedom and justice altered the experiences of everyday life.

The disruptions of two total wars, the reduction of barriers to migration within Europe because of economic integration, globalization, and the arrival of new permanent residents from outside Europe changed the everyday lives of Europeans in significant ways. For the first time, more people lived in cities than in rural communities. Economic growth — although interrupted by repeated wars and economic crises — generally increased standards of living, leisure time (despite the growing number of two-career families), educational attainment, and participation in mass cultural entertainments. The collapse of the birth rate to below replacement levels enhanced the financial well-being of individual families even as it reduced the labor force. To support labor-force participation and encourage families, governments instituted family policies supporting child care and created large-scale guest-worker programs. Europe's involvement in an increasingly global economy exposed its citizens to new goods, ideas, and practices. Altogether, the disruptions of war and decolonization led to new demographic patterns — a population increase followed by falling birth rates and the immigration of non-Europeans — and to uncertainties about Europeans' cultural identity. Even before the collapse of communism and continuing afterward, a variety of groups on both the left and right began campaigns of terror in the name of ethnic or national autonomy, or in radical opposition to free-market ideology. Other groups worked within the democratic system to achieve nationalist and xenophobic goals.

By the 1960s, the rapid industrialization of the previous century had created significant environmental problems. Environmentalists argued that the unfettered free-market economy could lead Europe to ecological disaster, and they challenged the traditional economic and political establishment with demands for sustainable development sensitive to environmental, aesthetic, and moral constraints. At the same time, a generation that had not experienced either economic depression or total war came of age and criticized existing institutions and beliefs while calling for greater political and personal freedom. These demands culminated with the 1968 youth revolts in Europe's major cities and in challenges to institutional authority structures, especially those of universities.

Feminist movements gained increased participation for women in politics, and before the end of the century, several women became heads of government or state. Yet traditional social patterns and institutions continued to hinder the achievement of gender equality. While these internal movements and struggles went on, immigrants from around the globe poured into Europe, and by the end of the century, Europeans found themselves living in multiethnic and multireligious communities. Immigrants defied traditional expectations of integration and assimilation and expressed social values different from 20th-century Europeans. Many Europeans refused to consider the newcomers as true members of their society. In the early 21st century, Europeans continued to wrestle with issues of social justice and how to define European identity.

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I. The 20th century was characterized by large-scale suffering brought on by warfare and genocide as well as tremendous improvements in the standard of living.

A. World War I created a “lost generation,” fostered disillusionment and cynicism, transformed the lives of women, and democratized societies.

B. World War II decimated a generation of Russian and German men; virtually destroyed European Jewry; resulted in the murder of millions in other groups targeted by the Nazis including Roma, homosexuals, people with disabilities, and others; forced large-scale migrations; and undermined prewar class hierarchies.

C. Mass production, new food technologies, and industrial efficiency increased disposable income and created a consumer culture in which greater domestic comforts such as electricity, indoor plumbing, plastics, and synthetic fibers became available.

D. New communication and transportation technologies multiplied the connections across space and time, transforming daily life and contributing to the proliferation of ideas and to globalization.

- Telephone

II. The lives of women were defined by family and work responsibilities, economic changes, and feminism.

A. During the world wars, women became increasingly involved in military and political mobilization as well as in economic production.

B. In Western Europe through the efforts of feminists, and in Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union through government policy, women finally gained the vote, greater educational opportunities, and access to professional careers, even while continuing to face social inequalities.

- Simone de Beauvoir

C. With economic recovery after World War II, the birth rate increased dramatically (the Baby Boom), often promoted by government policies.

- Child-care facilities

D. New modes of marriage, partnership, motherhood, divorce, and reproduction gave women more options in their personal lives.

- Scientific means of fertilization

E. Women attained high political office and increased their representation in legislative bodies in many nations.

- Margaret Thatcher of Great Britain

III. New voices gained prominence in political, intellectual, and social discourse.

A. Green parties in Western and Central Europe challenged consumerism, urged sustainable development, and, by the late 20th century, cautioned against globalization.

B. Gay and lesbian movements worked for expanded civil rights, obtaining in some nations the right to form civil partnerships with full legal benefits or to marry.

C. Intellectuals and youth reacted against perceived bourgeois materialism and decadence, most significantly with the revolts of 1968.

D. Because of the economic growth of the 1950s and 1960s, numerous guest workers from southern Europe, Asia, and Africa immigrated to Western and Central Europe; however, after the economic downturn of the 1970s, these workers and their families often became targets of anti-immigrant agitation and extreme nationalist political parties.

- French National Front