

AP EUROPEAN HISTORY CRAM PACKET

1815-1914

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

- Key Terms:
 - Industrial Revolution- the phase of the industrialization process, lasting 1820-1900, characterized by the advent of large-scale iron and steel production, the application of the steam engine, and the development of a railway system.
 - Factory system- A system of production created in order to better supervise labor; workers come to a central location and worked with machines under the supervision of managers.
 - Division of labor- A technique whereby formerly complex task that required knowledge and skill were broken down into a series of simple tasks aided by machines.
 - Bessemer Process- Invented 1850s by English engineer Henry Bessemer that allowed steel to be produced more cheaply and in larger quantities.
 - Steam Engine- A power source that burns coal to produce steam pressure; first used in early 18th century to pump water out of coal mines, it came to be used to drive machinery as diverse as bellows for iron forges, looms for textile manufacture, and mills for grain, and , in the 19th century, as a source of locomotive power.
 - Internal Combustion Engine- Developed 1886 by German engineers, Gottlieb Daimler and Karl Benz that burns petroleum as fuel.
 - The Railway Boom- Rapid development of railway system, beginning in G. Britain 1830s, which further spurred the dev. of heavy industry, as railroads facilitated the speedy transportation of iron and steel while simultaneously consuming large quantities of both.
 - Class Consciousness- A sense of belonging to a “working class” that developed among European workers during Ind. Rev. of 19th c.
- The Factory System and Division of Labor
 - It replaced skilled craftsmen with unskilled labor, thereby increasing the supply of labor and decreasing wages
 - Increased the volume of production, allowing manufacturers to sell products for less and still increase profits
 - Drew more women and children into workforce
 - Machines decreased the number of workers needed, creating unemployment and competition for jobs
- New Sources of Power
 - Coal- increase in demand as steam engines devour the resource
 - Steam- replaced human muscle and hydropower; perfect by Thomas Newcomen and James Watt

- Electricity- end of 19th century in 2nd industrial revolution; more versatile and easily transported than steam engines.
- Petroleum and Internal Combustion engine- 1886 by Gottlieb Daimler and Karl Benz
- The Railway Boom
 - In the 1820s, the British inventor George Stephenson developed railway line with trains powered by steam. Boom occurred 1830s-1840s
- The Reciprocal Nature of Heavy Industry
 - 4 Major components of 2nd Ind. Rev.
 - The iron and steel industry required improvements in the steam engine to run its blast furnaces, greater amounts of coal to fuel the engines, and railways to transport both the coal and smelted iron and steel.
 - The coal industry required more and improved steam engines to pump water out of the mines and to power digging machinery; it also required the railways to transport coal.
 - The steam power industry required iron and steel to forge the engines, coal to run them, and railways to transport them.
 - The railways required huge amounts of steel and iron for the construction of the engines, cars, and tracks; steam engines to drive the locomotives; and coal to fuel the engine.
- The Spread of Industrialization
 - Great Britain Industrialized First
 - Well-developed commercial economy that created merchant class with capital to invest.
 - Extensive river system ideal for transportation
 - Rich in coal and iron deposits
 - Had no internal tariffs to inhibit trade
 - Had a uniform and stable monetary system and a national banking system
 - Industrialization Spread Eastward Across Europe
 - The farther East, The later the process began. (France later than GB, Germany later than France, and Russia last.)
 - The farther east, the faster the process occurred b/c innovations could be copied or purchased rather than invented and developed. (France faster than GB, Germany faster than France, and Russia fastest of all.)
 - The farther east, the more the government was involved b/c governments feared the political and military effects of falling behind their rivals, they invested heavily. NO gov involvement in GB, some in France, more in Germany, and in Russia almost totally gov. driven.
 - Uneven Development
 - The (S), (C), and (E), areas of Europe lagged behind due to insufficient natural resources, lack of commercialized agricultural sys. And retained their rural character.

- Russia lagged behind until two successive Tsars- Alexander III (1881-1894) and Nicholas II (1894-1917). Alexander III appointed Serge Witte as financial minister and Russia became an iron- and steel- producing nation.
- Social Effects of Industrialization
 - Urbanization increased rapidly as population moved into cities to be closer to factories
 - Families were separated, as place of work shift from home to factory
 - Work lost its seasonal nature
 - Pace of work increased dramatically
 - Overall health of workforce declined b/c of harsh/unhealthy conditions
 - Availability of work became unpredictable
 - Gradually, women lost their manufacturing jobs as machines decreased the demand for labor; cut off from families, had no other option than prostitution.
 - Artisans and craftsmen lost their livelihoods
 - Traditional impediment to marriage disappeared and ppl began to marry younger
 - Much greater portion of population could afford factory-made goods
 - Further change in class structure, as new wealthy industrialist class and lower-middle class of managers/clerks emerged
 - Close working/ living conditions produced a new sense of class consciousness among working class.
- Science in Industrial Age
 - German physicist Rudolf Clausius & Scottish physicist James Maxwell developed kinetic theory of gases
 - Robert Mayer, Hermann von Helmholtz, and William Thompson pursued laws of thermodynamics
 - Movement of materialism soon became foundational assumption of scientific view of the world
 - Charles Darwin's *On the Origin of Species by Means of Natural Selection* w/ "struggle for existence"

CULTURAL RESPONSES TO REVOLUTION AND INDUSTRIALIZATION

- Key Terms:
 - Conservatism- A 19th c. ideology that held that tradition was the only trustworthy guide to social and political action.
 - Liberalism- An 18th and 19th c. ideology that asserted that the task of government was to promote individual liberty.
 - Socialism- An ideology that sought to reorder society in ways that would end or minimize competition, foster cooperation, and allow the working classes to share in the wealth being produced by industrialization.

- Utopian Socialism- A form of socialism that envisioned, and sometimes tried to establish, ideal communities (or utopias) where work and its fruit were shared equally.
 - Psychological socialism- A variety of 19th c. utopian socialism that saw a conflict between the structure of society and the natural needs and tendencies of human beings. Its leading advocate was Charles Fourier, who argued that the ideal society was one organized on a smaller, more human scale.
 - Technocratic socialism- A variety of 19th c. utopian socialism that envisioned a society run by technical experts who managed resources efficiently and in a way that was best for all. The most prominent was the French aristocrat Henri Comte de Saint-Simon.
 - Scientific socialism/communism- An ideology dedicated to the creation of a class-free society through the abolition of private property.
 - Anarchism- A 19th c. ideology that saw the modern state and its institutions as the enemy of individual freedom and recommended terrorism as a way to disrupt the machinery of government.
 - Romanticism- A 19th c. ideology that urged the cultivation of sentiment and emotion by reconnecting with nature and the past.
 - Nationalism- a 19th c. ideology that asserted that a nation was a natural, organic entity whose people shared a cultural identity and a historical destiny.
 - Social Darwinism- A 19th c. ideology that asserted competition was natural and necessary for the evolutionary progress of a society.
- Political Ideologies in the 19th Century
 - Conservatism
 - It asserted that tradition was the only trustworthy guide to social and political action; arguing that traditions were time-tested, organic solutions to social and political problems.
 - Supported monarchy, hierarchical class system dominated by aristocracy, and the Church.
 - Opposed innovation and reforms, arguing French Rev. demonstrated that reform led to devastation and chaos.
 - Supporters normally from traditional elites of Europe and landed aristocracy.
 - Edmund Burke = “Father of Conservatism” – *Reflections on the Revolution in France* (1790)
 - Joseph de Maistre – *Essay on the General Principle of Political Constitutions* (1814)
 - Liberalism
 - Asserted that the task of government was to promote individual liberty
 - Look to accomplishments of Scientific Revolution – asserted that there were God-given, natural rights and laws that individuals could discern through use of reason.

- Supported innovation and reform, promoted constitutional monarchy over absolutism, favor meritocracy and middle-class participation in government
- John Locke – *The Second Treatise of Government* (1690)
- Adam Smith – *Wealth of Nations* (1776); Smith promoted laissez-faire governance stated that governments should not interfere with natural workings of an economy.
- Thomas Malthus- *An Essay on the Principle of Population* (1798)
- Ferdinand Lassalle – “Iron law of Wages”- proposed law of economic that asserts that real wages always tend, in the long run, toward the minimum wage necessary to sustain the life of the worker.
- Jeremy Bentham espoused utilitarianism, which argued that all human laws and institutions ought to be judged by their usefulness in promoting “the greatest good for the greatest number” of people.
- By mid-century, liberals began to advocated democracy; best ex. Of utilitarian thought is John Stuart Mill’s *On the Liberty* (1859) which argued freedom of thought and democracy but also warned against tyranny of a majority.
- Utopian Socialism
 - Envisioned and sometimes tried to est. ideal communities where work and its fruits were shared equally.
 - 3 distinct forms:
 - Technocratic: envisioned a society run by technical experts who managed resources efficiently and in a way that was best for all. Most prominent advocate, French aristocrat Henri Comte de Saint-Simon (Technocrats)
 - Psychological: this type saw a conflict between the structure if society and the natural needs and tendencies of humans. Its leading advocate was Charles Fourier, who argued that the ideal society was one organized on a smaller scale (phalansteries)
 - Industrial: argued that it was possible to have a productive, profitable, industrial enterprise without exploiting workers. Leading advocate = Robert Owen, who set up “New Lanark”, “New Harmony” in Indiana
- Scientific Socialism and Communism
 - As utopian socialists seemed less plausible, scientific socialism grew in its place.
 - Most famous= Karl Marx –*The Communist Manifesto* (1848) w/ collaborator Friedrich Engels. In this, Marx argued that a human being’s relationship to the means of production gave him a social identity. He argued only 2 classes existed: bourgeoisie (who controlled means of production) and Proletariat (who sold their labor for wages).

- Marx's analysis gave way to communism= which declared that the only way to end social exploitation was to abolish private ownership of the means of production and create classless society.
 - Anarchism
 - 19th c. ideology that saw state & its governing institutions as the ultimate enemy of individual freedom
 - Dew inspiration from Pierre Joseph Proudhon
 - Had greatest appeal in areas where government was most oppressive... RUSSIA.
 - Mikhail Bakunin, son of Russian noble, organized secret societies whose goal was to destroy Russian state forever.
- Cultural Ideologies in the 19th Century
 - Romanticism
 - A reaction to the enlightenment and industrialization
 - Rebelled against emphasis on reason and urged a sense of sentiment and emotion; tended to avoid political tracts and expressed themselves through art and literature.
 - Roots trace back to Jean-Jacques Rousseau, b/c *Emil* (1762), argued that humans were born good/virtuous but corrupted by society
 - Another source- German *Sturm und Drang* (storm and stress) mov. Exemplified by Wolfgang von Goethe's *The Sorrows of Young Werther* (1774), which glorified the inner experience of the sensitive individual.
 - Ex. Of poets =William Woodsworth, Taylor Coleridge
 - Painters= John Constable, Karl Friedrich Schinkel ,
 - Music= Beethoven, Chopin, and Wagner
 - Nationalism
 - Asserted that a nation was a natural, organic entity whose people were bound together by shared language, customs, and history.
 - Argued that each nation had national boundaries, shared cultural traits, and a historical destiny to fulfill.
 - In early 19th c., nationalism was allied w/ liberalism
 - Johann Gotlieb Fichte- *Addresses to the German Nation* (1808) r=urging German people to unite
 - Georg Willhelm Friedrich Hegel- argued every nation had a historical role to play in the unfolding of the universe and that Germany's time to take center stage arrived.
 - Like Romantics, nationalists emphasized role that the environment played in shaping the character of a nation and sentimentalized the past.
 - Social Darwinism
 - Socialist notion that competition was unnatural was countered by social Darwinism!
 - (1859) *On the Origin of Species* by Charles Darwin argued all living things had descended from simpler forms.

- Philosopher Herbert Spencer argued that Darwin's theory proved that competition was not only natural but necessary for the progress of society. Spencer coined the term "survival of the fittest" and argued along liberal lines that government intervention in social issues interfered with natural selection and, therefore, with progress.
- Eugenics, the notion that a progressive, scientific nation should plan and manage the biological reproduction of its population as carefully as it planned and managed its economy, also flourished in the last decades of the 19th c.

MASS POLITICS AND NATIONALISM

- Key Terms
 - Carbonari- Secret groups of Italian nationalists active in the early part of the 19th c. In the 1820s, the *carbonari* had briefly succeeded in organizing an uprising that forced King Ferdinand I of the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies to grant a constitution and a new parliament.
 - Risorgimento- The mid-19th c. Italian nationalist movement, composed mostly of intellectuals and university students. From 1834 to 1848, the *Risorgimento* attempted a series of popular insurrections and briefly established a Roman Republic in 1848.
 - Junkers- A powerful class of landed aristocrats in 19th c. Prussia who supported Bismarck's plan for the unification of Germany
 - Realpolitik- A political theory, made fashionable by Bismarck in the 19th c., which asserted that the aim of any political policy should be to increase the power of a nation by whatever means and strategies were necessary and useful.
 - The Nationalities Problem- The name given to the conflict between the 10 distinct linguistic and ethnic groups that lived within the borders of Austrian-Hungary and their German-speaking rulers
 - Russianization- Alexander III's attempt, in the 1880s, to make Russian the standard language and the Russian Orthodox Church the standard religion throughout the Russian Empire.
 - Chartism- A movement in Britain (1837-1842) in support of the People's Charter, a petition that called for universal manhood suffrage, annual Parliaments, voting by secret ballot, equal electoral districts, the abolition of property qualifications for Members of Parliament, and the payment of Members of Parliament.
- Nationalism and State- Building
 - IN areas where people lived under foreign domination, nationalism was used by conservative statesmen to bring about the unification of Italy and Germany.
 - In the Hapsburg Empire, the nationalist aspirations of ethnic minorities worked to undermine Austrian domination.
 - In France and Russia, the force of nationalism was used to end the remaining dreams of liberals and to strengthen the hold of autocratic rulers.

- The Triumph of Conservative Nationalism
 - In the 1st half of the 19th c., liberals and nationalist tended to ally themselves against the forces of conservatism. Campaign for liberal reform tended to merge with the struggle for national rights (self-determination)
 - When liberals won temporary victories over conservative aristocrats between 1830 and 1838, fundamental differences between the agendas of liberal and nationalists began to emerge. The emphasis on individual liberty and limited gov. didn't mesh well with the nationalist emphasis on the collective national tribe or w/ the desire of nationalists for a strong nat'l gov.
 - IN SHORT= liberals believed in promoting the rights of *all people*; nationalists cared only about their *own* rights.
 - In 1848, nationalists began to share the same beliefs as conservatives, tending to mythologize the past.
- The Unification of Italy
 - Forces Against Italian Unification
 - The Hapsburg Dynasty of Austria controlled, either directly or through its vassals, Lombardy and Venetia in the north, and the duchies of Tuscany, Parma, and Moderna.
 - The pope governed an area known as the Papal States in central Italy.
 - A branch of the Bourbon dynasty (which ruled France) controlled the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies in the south.
 - An Italian dynasty, the House of Savoy, controlled both the island of Sardinia in the south and Piedmont in the northwest.
 - In addition to political divisions and foreign interests, the Italian peninsula was also divided by economic and cultural differences:
 - The (N) areas of the peninsula were well developed economically and more sophisticated culturally than the still largely rural and agricultural areas of the south.
 - Culturally, the people of the more developed northern region felt little connection to the poor peasants in the south, who often spoke an entirely different dialect.
 - Socially and politically, the middle class merchants and manufacturers, located mostly in the north, wanted a greater degree of unity for easier trade and tended to support liberal reforms; they were opposed by the staunchly conservative, traditional landed elites.
 - Italian Nationalism to 1850
 - Forged in opposition to Napoleon III's rule after 1815s, In the 1840s, Giuseppe Mazzini's Young Italy carried the banner of nationalism.
 - By mid-century, Mazzini forged movement known as *Risorgimento*, which composed mostly of intellectuals and university students who shared his idealism.

Commented [HMJ1]:

- Cavour and Victory over Austria
 - At mid-century, a new leader of Italian nationalist hopes emerged = Count Camillo Benso di Cavour, the chief minister of King Emmanuel II of the Kingdom of Piedmont-Sardinia.
 - Cavour differed from Mazzini and other Nationalist leaders in:
 - Cavour was a conservative aristocrat w/ ties to most powerful Italian ruler on peninsula
 - He advocated constitutional monarchy, rather than a republic
 - A cautious and practical statesmen, rather than an idealist.
 - His strategy → sought to increase amount of territory and weaken opponents of Italian unification by playing them against each other.
 - In 1855, Cavour brought Piedmont and its army into Crimean war on the side of England and France, who were fighting Russia; resulting in no immediate gains, but the peace conference afforded Cavour the opportunity to denounce Austrian lands
 - IN 1858, Cavour reached secret agreement with Napoleon III of France, gaining promise of French support if war with Austria occurred.
 - In 1859, Cavour goaded Austrian into attacking Piedmont by refusing to disarm ultimatum. French and Piedmontese troops defeat Austrians at Battle of Magenta and Solferino, driving Austrians further rout of Lombardy.
 - By 1860, inspired by the Piedmontese victory over Austria, majority of Northern and north-central duchies shook off their Austria rulers and voluntarily united with Piedmont.
- Garibaldi and Victory in the South
 - A series of peasant revolts, tinged with anti-Bourbon sentiment, arose in the south.
 - In 1860, Giuseppe Garibaldi launched series of popular uprisings, placing all of southern Italy under his control.
 - The (S) nationalist mov. Differed from (N) in several significant ways:
 - Garibaldi was a Romantic nationalist who had been an early supporter of Mazzini
 - The southern mov. Was a genuine revolt of the masses, rather than the political maneuverings of a single kingdom
 - Garibaldi hoped to est. an Italian republic that would respect the rights of individuals and improve the lot of the peasants and workers
 - The Kingdom of Italy and Completion of Italian Unification
 - Cavour publicly condemned Garibaldi's conquests, but secretly aided them. Cavour persuaded Napoleon III to allow Piedmontese army to invade Papal States before Garibaldi reached them; by

1860, Piedmont controlled the Papal States and set up a ring around Rome

- Garibaldi continued by presenting King Emmanuel all of (S) Italy. In March 1861, Italy proclaimed est. as a constitutional Monarchy under Emmanuel with a parliament elected by limited suffrage.

- The Unification of Germany

- Forces Against Unity in Germany

- Cultural Differences between rural, conservative, Protestant North and the urban, liberal, Catholic south.
- A long history of proud independence on the part of the individual German states.
- The powerful influence of Hapsburg Austria, which controlled/ influenced a large portion of the German Confederation.

- Prussian Leadership

- W/ failure of Frankfurt Assembly in 1848, leadership in Germany passed to Prussia (ruled by Hohenzollern dynasty & supported by Junker-powerful landed aristocrats)
- In 1845, Prussia led the way in est. *Zollverein*, a large free trade zone.

- Bismarck and War with Denmark and Austria

- In 1861, Prussia's new monarch, William I, appointed conservative *Junker* Otto van Bismarck as prime minister. (Think REALPOLITIK when you hear Bismarck and his policies)
- Bismarck engineered the *Schleswig-Holstein Affair* in which he enlisted Austria as an ally in a war with Denmark, and once gaining the duchies Schleswig and Holstein he provoked an argument with Austria over control and next→
 - 1st = Bismarck obtained Italian support for war w/ Austria by promising Italy the province of Venetia
 - 2nd = he ensured Russian neutrality by supporting Russia's actions against its rebellious Polish subjects
 - 3rd = he met secretly w/ Napoleon III of France and persuaded him that a weakening of Austrian power was in the best interests of France
 - Finally= after those preparations were in place, he carried out a series of diplomatic and military maneuvers that provoked Austria into declaring war.
- Resulting in the Austro-Prussian War of 1866 → victory for Prussia → and the expulsion of Austria from the old German Confederation and creation of a new Northern German Confederation that was completely under Prussian control.

- War with France

- In aims of drawing in a catholic, liberal south, Bismarck desired a war with a powerful foreign enemy; thus, France and Prussia got into a dispute over the ascension of the throne in Spain.
 - Bismarck tempered with communication between Napoleon III and William I (Ems Telegram) causing France to declare war. Bismarck quickly took Paris in 1871.
- The Second Reich
 - Jan. 18, 1871, unification of Germany was complete; all German states proclaimed William I Kaiser of German Empire; took Alsace and Lorraine from France and billed French 5 billion francs as war indemnity.
- Mass Politics and Nationalism in the Hapsburg Empire
 - In the dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary, mass politics continued to mean competition between nationalities for greater autonomy and relative supremacy w/n the empire.
 - The introduction of universal manhood suffrage in 1907 made Austria-Hungary so difficult to govern that the emperor and his advisors began bypassing the parliament and ruling by decree.
- Mass Politics and Nationalism in France
 - When the elections of 1871 resulted in a victory for the monarchists, the people of Paris refused to accept the results and set up their own democratic government, which became known as the Paris Commune, which ruled for a month in 1871 until crushed by the French army
 - Monarchists initially controlled the government of the new Third Republic, but they remained divided between factions.
 - By the end of 1870s, France was governed by a liberal government elected by universal manhood suffrage; however, in the late 1880s, conservative nationalists supported an attempted coup by General George Boulanger (the Boulanger Affair) which underscored the fragility of French democracy and the volatility of mass politics in France.
- Mass Politics and Nationalism in Russia
 - At mid-century, Russia's government was the most conservative and autocratic in Europe.
 - The peasants were still bound to the land through serfdom
 - The Crimean War (1853-1856), in which Russia essentially battled Great Britain and France for control of parts of the crumbling Ottoman Empire, damaged the reputation of both the tsar and the military.
 - Alexander II ascended the throne 1855 determined to strengthen Russia through reform and modernization.
 - HE ABOLISHED SERFDOM
 - Made judiciary more independent
 - Created local political assemblies

- Alexander attempted to loosen restriction on Poland populations w/n Russia, but it only resulted in an attempted Polish Revolution in 1863 and led to increased repression
 - In 1866, Alexander gave up all notions of liberal reform and proceeded to turn Russia into a police state (b/c someone tried to kill him)
 - In 1881, the People's Will, a radical, violent group assassinated Alexander II. His successor Alexander III responded by waging war on liberalism and initiating "Russianization" by standardizing language and religion
- Mass Politics and Nationalism in Great Britain
 - Mass participation in politics in Great Britain in 19th c. provided the pressure that enabled liberals to force through the Great Reform Bill of 1832, enfranchising most adult, male middle-class.
 - The rise of Chartism (1837-1842) demonstrated the degree to which the lower-middle and working classes desired further reform. Chartists organized massive demonstrations in favor of the People's Charter, a petition that called for the following:
 - Universal Male Suffrage
 - Annual Parliaments
 - Voting by secret ballot
 - Equal electoral districts
 - Abolition of property qualifications for Members of Parliament
 - Payment of Members of Parliament
 - If enacted, it would have created a completely democratic House of Commons, but Parliament rejected the Charter.
 - In 1867, the new leader of the Conservative (Tory) Party, Benjamin Disraeli, convinced his party that further reform was inevitable and engineered the passage of the Reform Bill of 1867
 - The bill → doubled the # of people eligible to vote and extended a number of laws regulating working hours and conditions, and the sanitary conditions of working-class house.
 - In 1884, the Liberals, under William Gladstone, engineered the passage of the Reform Bill of 1884:
 - It extended the right to vote further down the social ladder, thereby enfranchising 2/3rds of all adult males
 - It made primary education available to all
 - It made military and civil service more democratic.
 - The most significant result of the advent of mass politics in G.Brit. was the competition between liberals and conservatives.
 - In 1879, Gladstone embarked on the 1st modern political campaign, known as the Midlothian Campaign, riding the railways to small towns throughout his districts

- Disraeli and the conservatives countered with a 3-pronged platform of “Church, Monarchy, and Empire”

MASS POLITICS AND IMPERIALISM

- Key Terms:
 - New Imperialism- The expansion of European influence and control in the last decade of the 19th c. It was characterized by a shift from indirect commercial influence to active conquest and the est. of direct political control of foreign lands around the globe, particularly in Africa and Asia.
 - Scramble for Africa –The rush of European powers to claim interests in and around sovereignty over portions of Africa in the 1st half of the 1880s. It culminated in the Berlin Conference of 1885, at which European powers laid down rules for the official claiming of African Territories.
 - Suez Canal – A canal opened in 1869, built by a French company w/ Egyptian labor that connects the Mediterranean Sea through Egypt to the Red Sea and the Indian Ocean. In 1875, Great Britain took advantage of the Egyptian ruler’s financial distress and purchased a controlling interest in the canal. Control of the canal led to British occupation and the annexation of Egypt.
 - Sepoy Rebellion of 1857 (sometimes known as the Sepoy Mutiny) – A well-organized anti-British uprising led by military units of Indians who had formerly served the British. It resulted in the British government taking direct control of India and a restructuring of the Indian economy to produce and consume products in order to aid the British economy.
 - Taiiping Rebellion – An attempt to overthrow the Manchu rulers of China (1850-1864), whose authority had been undermined by Western interference. Defending their rule from the Rebellion made the Manchus even more dependent on Western support.
- Causes of the New Imperialism
 - Need for new raw materials in the expanding industrial economy of Europe
 - Need for new Markets to sell European manufactured goods and invest newly created capital
 - Technological innovations in weaponry and transportation that encouraged military adventurism
 - Rampant Nationalism that unified European nations and gave them a sense of historical destiny
 - Traditional identity of European political elites who competed for fame and glory through conquest.
 - Need for competing European political elites to win the support of the newly politicized and enfranchised masses.

- The Scramble for Africa
 - Imperialism spurred by the British takeover of the Suez Canal in Egypt and Belgium's aggressive expansion in the Congo
 - The Suez Canal: Built by French 1869, in 1875 Brit took advantage of Egypt's financial distress and purchased controlling interest in the canal; in 1880s, anti-British and anti-French sentiment built in Egyptian army → summer of 1882, British launch preemptive strike defeating Egyptian forces.
 - British control of the canal led to further European expansion into Africa in 2 ways:
 - In order to provide greater security for Egypt, Britain expanded further south and
 - In return for France's acceptance of the British occupation, Great Brit. Supported French expansion into NW Africa.
 - A new competition for imperial control in sub-Saharan Africa was initiated by Belgian interests in the Congo. In 1876, King Leopold II of Belgium sent Henry Stanley to Congo River Basin to est. trading posts. Alarmed, French expanded and Bismarck responded w/ claims in E Africa.
 - Berlin Conference 1885= representatives of the powers est. free-trade zones in the Congo River basin and est. guidelines for the partitioning of Africa
 - Guidelines:
 - A European nation needed to est. enough physical presence to control and develop a territory before it could gain it.
 - Claimants must treat the African population humanely
- Dominance in Asia
 - India: Ruled by Great Britain
 - Initially through the British East India Co., however after the Sepoy Mutiny of 1857, the British gov took direct control.
 - A sense of Indian nationalism began to developing as British became more intrusive → Indian National Congress 1885- an org. of Hindu elites who promote notion of free and independent India
 - Southeast Asia: Dominated by France
 - French emulated Brit. Strategy of ruling through local elites and fostering economic independence. During 1880s-1890s, France est. Union of Indochina (Vietnam, Laos, Cambodia)
 - China: Under Increasing European Control
 - Infiltrated as early as 1830s by British traders, British traded opium in India to Chinese dealers in exchange for tea, silk, and other goods that were highly prized in Britain.

- Opium War (1839-1842)- Chinese gov. attempted to end the trade, but British won and forced China to sign the Treaty of Nanking which ceded Hong Kong to G. Brit. And est. several tariff-free zones for trade, and exempted foreigners from Chinese law.

Resulted in→

- Taiping Rebellion (1850-1864) and the Manchu Dynasty attempting to defend from the rebellion made them even more dependent on Western support.
 - Chinese nationalism and resistance to foreign influence again manifested itself in the Boxer Rebellion (1899-1900)
 - In 1911, a revolution led by Sun Yat-sen succeeded in overthrowing Manchu Dynasty and a republic was est.
- Japan: Westernization
 - Forcibly opened to Western trade by American fleet led by Commodore Matthew J. Perry in 1853, the Japanese Gov. sign numerous treaties granting Western powers effective control of foreign trade.
 - Resulted in civil war→ Meiji Restoration where modernizers who were determined to preserve Japanese independence restored power to the emperor and reorganized society along Western lines.
 - By 1900, Japan was an industrial/military power.
 - IN 1904, the country quarreled w/ Russia over influence in China and stunned the world with its victory in the Russo-Japanese War.