Mass Society and Democracy
1870–1914

Key Events
As you read this chapter, look for the key events in the development of mass society.
• The Second Industrial Revolution resulted in changes in political, economic, and social systems.
• After 1870, higher wages and improved conditions in cities raised the standard of living for urban workers.
• The late 1800s and early 1900s were a time of political conflict that led to the Balkan crises and, eventually, World War I.
• New discoveries radically changed scientific thought, art, architecture, and social consciousness between 1870 and 1914.

The Impact Today
The events that occurred during this time period still impact our lives today.
• Because of poor working conditions, labor unions were organized to fight for improvements. Millions of workers are members of various unions today.
• Many of the inventions produced during this time, such as telephones and automobiles, are still used today.

The Gare Saint-Lazare: Arrival of a Train by Claude Monet, 1877  This painting illustrates Monet’s fascination with light as it is reflected and absorbed by the sky, clouds, windows, and trains.

1888  Eastman creates the Kodak camera

1889  Daimler and Maybach build gasoline-powered car

1901  Marconi sends radio waves across the Atlantic

1905  A revolution in Russia produces limited reforms

1914  World War I begins

Early German automobile, Daimler-Stahlradwagen, 1889

World War I recruitment poster

Chapter Overview
Visit the Glencoe World History Web site at wh.glencoe.com and click on Chapter 20–Chapter Overview to preview chapter information.
By the second half of the nineteenth century, new work patterns had established the concept of the weekend as a distinct time of recreation and fun. New forms of transportation—railroads and streetcars—enabled workers to make brief trips to amusement parks. Coney Island was only eight miles from central New York City; Blackpool, in England, was a short train ride from nearby industrial towns.

With their Ferris wheels and other daring rides that threw young men and women together, amusement parks offered a whole new world of entertainment. Before leaving, people purchased picture postcards to remember the day’s fun.

Thanks to the railroad, seaside resorts—one visited only by the wealthy—became accessible to more people for weekend visits. One upper-class seaside resort regular expressed his disgust with the new “day-trippers”:

“They swarm upon the beach, wandering about with apparently no other aim than to get a mouthful of fresh air. You may see them in groups of three or four—the husband, a pale man, dressed in black coat, carries the baby; the wife, equally pale and thin, decked out in her best, labors after with a basket of food. And then there is generally another child . . . wandering behind.”

Businessmen in resorts like Blackpool, however, welcomed the crowds of new visitors and built for them boardwalks laden with food, drink, and entertainment.

Why It Matters

A new leisure was one part of the mass society that emerged in the late nineteenth century. The development of this new mass society helped improve the lives of the lower classes, who benefited from extended voting rights, a better standard of living, and public education. In addition, the European nation-states now fostered national loyalty and created mass armies. Political democracy grew as the right to vote was extended to all adult males.

History and You

In 1850, a person born in the West could expect to live about 40 years. By 1910, life expectancy had increased to 54 years. Using a recent almanac, compare the life expectancy rates of people in the United States, United Kingdom, and Russia today with the rates in 1910. Create a bar graph with the data you find.
The Growth of Industrial Prosperity

Main Ideas
• New sources of energy and consumer products transformed the standard of living for all social classes in many European countries.
• Working-class leaders used Marx’s ideas to form socialist parties and unions.

Key Terms
bourgeoisie, proletariat, dictatorship, revisionist

People to Identify
Thomas Edison, Alexander Graham Bell, Guglielmo Marconi, Karl Marx

Places to Locate
Netherlands, Austria-Hungary, Spain, Portugal, Russia

Preview Questions
1. What was the Second Industrial Revolution?
2. What were the chief ideas of Karl Marx?

Preview of Events
1848 Marx and Engels publish The Communist Manifesto
1875 Creation of German Social Democratic Party
1879 Thomas Edison invents the light bulb
1889 The Second International socialist association forms
1903 Wright brothers make first flight

The Second Industrial Revolution

Westerners in the late 1800s worshiped progress. At the heart of this belief in progress was the stunning material growth produced by what is called the Second Industrial Revolution. The first Industrial Revolution had given rise to textiles, railroads, iron, and coal. In the Second Industrial Revolution, steel, chemicals, electricity, and petroleum led the way to new industrial frontiers.
New Products The first major change in industry between 1870 and 1914 was the substitution of steel for iron. New methods for shaping steel made it useful in the building of lighter, smaller, and faster machines and engines, as well as railways, ships, and weapons. In 1860, Great Britain, France, Germany, and Belgium produced 125,000 tons (112,500 t) of steel. By 1913, the total was an astounding 32 million tons (29 million t).

Electricity was a major new form of energy that proved to be of great value. It could be easily converted into other forms of energy, such as heat, light, and motion, and moved easily through space by means of wires. In the 1870s, the first practical generators of electrical current were developed. By 1910, hydroelectric power stations and coal-fired steam-generating plants enabled homes and factories to be tied to a single, common source of power.

Electricity gave birth to a series of inventions. The creation of the light bulb by Thomas Edison in the United States and Joseph Swan in Great Britain opened homes and cities to electric lights. A revolution in communications began when Alexander Graham Bell invented the telephone in 1876 and Guglielmo Marconi sent the first radio waves across the Atlantic in 1901.

By the 1880s, streetcars and subways powered by electricity had appeared in major European cities. Electricity transformed the factory as well. Conveyor belts, cranes, and machines could all be powered by electricity. With electric lights, factories could remain open 24 hours a day.

The development of the internal-combustion engine, fired by oil and gasoline, provided a new source of power in transportation. This engine gave rise to ocean liners with oil-fired engines, as well as automobiles. It was the invention of the internal-combustion engine that made the automobile possible.

A German engineer, Gottlieb Daimler, invented a light, portable internal-combustion engine in 1885. In 1889, Daimler and Wilhelm Maybach produced an automobile powered by a gasoline engine that reached a speed of 10 miles [16 km] per hour. In 1926, Daimler and Karl Benz, another German, merged to form Daimler-Benz, an automotive company that would later manufacture the Mercedes-Benz.

Early cars were handmade and expensive. Only several hundred were sold between 1893 and 1901. Their slow speed, 14 miles [22.5 km] per hour, was a problem, too. Early models were not able to climb steep hills.

An American, Henry Ford, revolutionized the car industry in 1908 by using an assembly line to mass-produce his Model T. Before, it had taken a group of workers 12 hours to build a single car. Now, the same number of workers could build a car in an hour and a half. By cutting production costs, Ford lowered the price of the automobile. A Model T cost $850 in 1908 but only $360 by 1916. By 1916, Ford’s factories were producing 735,000 cars a year. By 1925, Ford’s Model T cars would make up half of the automobiles in the world.

Analyzing Why were early cars expensive?
as to the airplane and the automobile. In 1903, Orville and Wilbur Wright made the first flight in a fixed-wing plane at Kitty Hawk, North Carolina. In 1919, the first regular passenger air service was established.

**New Patterns** Industrial production grew at a rapid pace because of greatly increased sales of manufactured goods. Europeans could afford to buy more consumer products for several reasons. Wages for workers increased after 1870. In addition, prices for manufactured goods were lower because of reduced transportation costs.

In the cities, the first department stores began to sell a new range of consumer goods made possible by the development of the steel and electrical industries. Clocks, bicycles, electric lights, and typewriters were sold in great quantities.

Not all nations benefited from the Second Industrial Revolution. By 1900, Europe was divided into two economic zones. Great Britain, Belgium, France, the Netherlands, Germany, the western part of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, and northern Italy made up an advanced industrialized core. These nations had a high standard of living and decent systems of transportation.

Another part of Europe was still largely agricultural. This was the little-industrialized area to the south and east, consisting of southern Italy, most of Austria-Hungary, Spain, Portugal, the Balkan kingdoms, and Russia. These countries provided food and raw materials for the industrial countries.
**Toward a World Economy** The Second Industrial Revolution, combined with the growth of transportation by steamship and railroad, fostered a true world economy. By 1900, Europeans were receiving beef and wool from Argentina and Australia, coffee from Brazil, iron ore from Algeria, and sugar from Java.

European capital was also invested abroad to develop railways, mines, electrical power plants, and banks. Of course, foreign countries also provided markets for the manufactured goods of Europe. With its capital, industries, and military might, Europe dominated the world economy by the beginning of the twentieth century.

**Reading Check** Explaining Why did Europe dominate the world economy by the beginning of the twentieth century?

**Organizing the Working Classes**

The desire to improve their working and living conditions led many industrial workers to form socialist political parties and socialist trade unions. These organizations emerged after 1870, but the theory on which they were based had been developed earlier by Karl Marx.

**Marx’s Theory** In 1848, *The Communist Manifesto* was published. It was written by two Germans, Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels, who were appalled at the horrible conditions in factories. They blamed the system of industrial capitalism for these conditions. Their solution was a new social system. One form of Marxist socialism was eventually called communism (see Chapter 23).

Marx believed that all of world history was a “history of class struggles.” According to Marx, oppressor and oppressed have “stood in constant opposition to one another” throughout history.

One group of people—the oppressors—owned the means of production (land, raw materials, money, and so forth) and thus had the power to control government and society. Indeed, government itself was an instrument of this ruling class. The other group, which depended on the owners of the means of production, were the oppressed.

In the industrialized societies of Marx’s day, the class struggle continued. According to Marx, “society as a streets of San Salvador to demand that the government pass laws to benefit the workers of El Salvador.

Why did these marches and demonstrations occur around the world on May 1? In the nineteenth century, the rise of socialist parties in Europe led to a movement to form an international organization. The purpose of this organization was to strengthen the position of socialist parties against international capitalism.

In 1889, leaders of various socialist parties formed the Second International, a loose association of national groups. Its first action was to declare May 1 as May Day, an international labor day to be marked by strikes and mass labor demonstrations. Although the Second International no longer exists, workers around the world still observe May Day.
whole is more and more splitting up into two great hostile camps, into two great classes directly facing each other: Bourgeoisie and Proletariat.” The bourgeoisie—the middle class—were the oppressors. The proletariat—the working class—were the oppressed.

Marx predicted that the struggle between the two groups would finally lead to an open revolution where the proletariat would violently overthrow the bourgeoisie. After their victory, the proletariat would form a dictatorship (government in which a person or group has absolute power) to organize the means of production. However, since the proletariat victory would essentially abolish the economic differences that create separate social classes, Marx believed that the final revolution would ultimately produce a classless society. The state—which had been an instrument of the bourgeois interests—would wither away.

Socialist Parties In time, working-class leaders formed socialist parties based on Marx’s ideas. Most important was the German Social Democratic Party (SPD), which emerged in 1875. Under the direction of its Marxist leaders, the SPD advocated revolution while organizing itself into a mass political party that competed in elections for the German parliament. Once in the parliament, SPD delegates worked to pass laws that would improve conditions for the working class.

Despite government efforts to destroy it, the German Social Democratic Party grew. When it received four million votes in the 1912 elections, it became the largest single party in Germany.

Socialist parties also emerged in other European states. In 1889, leaders of the various socialist parties joined together and formed the Second International, an association of national socialist groups that would fight against capitalism worldwide. (The First International had failed in 1872.)

Marxist parties were divided over their goals. Pure Marxists thought that capitalism would be overthrown in a violent revolution. Other Marxists, called revisionists, rejected the revolutionary approach and argued that workers must continue to organize in mass political parties and even work with other parties to gain reforms. As workers received the right to vote, they could achieve their aims by working within democratic systems.

Trade Unions Another force working for evolutionary rather than revolutionary socialism was the trade union. In Great Britain, unions won the right to strike in the 1870s. (A strike is a work stoppage called by members of a union to pressure an employer into meeting their demands.) Soon after, workers in factories were organized into trade unions so they could use strikes to achieve reforms.

By 1900, there were two million workers in British trade unions. By 1914, there were almost four million. Trade unions in the rest of Europe had varying degrees of success. By 1914, however, they had made considerable progress in bettering both the living and the working conditions of the working classes.

Summarizing How would you summarize Marx’s theory as expressed in The Communist Manifesto?
IN THE COMMUNIST MANIFESTO, Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels expressed their view that a classless society would be the end product of the struggle between the bourgeoisie and the proletariat.

“We have seen above, that the first step in the revolution by the working class, is to raise the proletariat to the position of ruling class... The proletariat will use its political supremacy to wrest, by degrees, all capital from the bourgeoisie, to centralize all instruments of production in the hands of the State, i.e., of the proletariat organized as the ruling class; and to increase the total of productive forces as rapidly as possible. ...

When, in the course of development, class distinctions have disappeared, and all production has been concentrated in the whole nation, the public power will lose its political character. Political power, properly so called, is merely the organized power of one class for oppressing another. If the proletariat during its contest with the bourgeoisie is compelled, by the force of circumstances, to organize itself as a class, if, by means of a revolution, it makes itself the ruling class, and, as such, sweeps away by force the old conditions of production, then it will, along with these conditions, have swept away the conditions for the existence of class antagonisms and of classes generally, and will thereby have abolished its own supremacy as a class.

In place of the old bourgeois society, with its classes and class antagonisms, we shall have an association, in which the free development of each is the condition for the free development of all. ...

The Communists disdain to conceal their views and aims. They openly declare that their ends can be attained only by the forcible overthrow of all existing social conditions. Let the ruling classes tremble at a Communist revolution. The proletarians have nothing to lose but their chains. They have a world to win. Workingmen of all countries, unite!"

—Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels, The Communist Manifesto

Analyzing Primary Sources

1. Do you agree with Marx’s definition of political power? Why or why not?

2. Do you think Marx’s idea of a classless society is realistic? Why or why not?
The Emergence of Mass Society

Main Ideas
• A varied middle class in Victorian Britain believed in the principles of hard work and good conduct.
• New opportunities for women and the working class improved their lives.

Key Terms
feminism, literacy

Preview of Events
1870
British wives gain greater property rights

1881
First publication of London’s Evening News

1885
10,000 people watch British Soccer Cup finals

1903
Women’s Social and Political Union established

People to Identify
Amalie Sieveking, Florence Nightingale, Clara Barton, Emmeline Pankhurst

Places to Locate
London, Frankfurt

Preview Questions
1. What were the chief characteristics of the middle class in the nineteenth century?
2. How did the position of women change between 1870 and 1914?

Reading Strategy
Summarizing Information
As you read this section, complete a graphic organizer like the one below summarizing the divisions among the social classes.

<table>
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<th>Social Classes</th>
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<th>Middle</th>
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Voices from the Past

In *History of the Suffrage Movement*, Sylvia Pankhurst described the efforts of women to enter the House of Commons to petition for the right to vote:

“Those of us who took refuge in doorways were dragged roughly down the steps and hurled back in front of the horses. When even this failed to banish us, the foot constables rushed at us and, catching us fiercely by the shoulders, turned us round again and then seizing us by the back of the neck and thumping us cruelly between the shoulders forced us at a running pace along the streets until we were far from the House of Commons. They had been told to drive us away and to make as few arrests as possible. Still we returned, until at last sixty-five women, all of them bruised, had been taken to the police station.”

— *Sources of the West*, Mark A. Kishlansky, ed., 1998

The movement for women’s rights was one aspect of the new mass society.

The New Urban Environment

By the end of the nineteenth century, the new industrial world had led to the emergence of a mass society in which the concerns of the majority of the population—the lower classes—were central. More and more people lived in cities. In the early 1850s, urban dwellers made up about 40 percent of the English population, 15 percent of the French, 10 percent of the population in Prussia (the largest...
German state), and 5 percent in Russia. By 1890, urban dwellers had increased to some 60 percent in England, 25 percent in France, 30 percent in Prussia, and 10 percent in Russia. The size of cities also grew, especially in industrialized countries. Between 1800 and 1900, the population in London grew from 960,000 to 6,500,000.

Urban populations grew quickly because of the vast migration to cities from rural areas. Lack of jobs and lack of land drove people from the countryside to the city. There, they found jobs in factories and, later, in service trades and professions.

Cities also grew faster in the second half of the nineteenth century because living conditions improved so much that more people could survive there longer. In the 1840s, a number of urban reformers had pointed to filthy living conditions as the chief cause of deadly epidemic diseases in the cities. Cholera, for example, had ravaged Europe in the early 1830s and 1840s, especially in the overcrowded cities.

Following the advice of reformers, city governments created boards of health to improve the quality of housing. City medical officers and building inspectors now inspected dwellings for public health hazards. New building regulations required running water and internal drainage systems for all new buildings.

Essential to the public health of the modern European city was the ability to bring in clean water and to expel sewage. The need for fresh water was met by a system of dams and reservoirs that stored the water and by aqueducts and tunnels that carried it from the countryside to the city and into individual dwellings. Gas heaters in the 1860s, and later electric heaters, made regular hot baths available to many people.

The treatment of sewage was improved by building mammoth underground pipes that carried raw sewage far from the city for disposal. The city of Frankfurt, Germany, began its program for sewers with a lengthy public campaign featuring the slogan “from the toilet to the river in half an hour.”

**Reading Check**

**Explaining** Why did cities grow so quickly in the nineteenth century?

#### Social Structure of Mass Society

After 1871, most people enjoyed an improved standard of living. Even so, great poverty remained a part of Western society. Between the few who were rich and the many who were very poor existed several middle-class groups.
The New Elite  At the top of European society stood a wealthy elite. This group made up only 5 percent of the population but controlled between 30 and 40 percent of the wealth. During the nineteenth century, landed aristocrats had joined with the most successful industrialists, bankers, and merchants—the wealthy upper middle class—to form this new elite. Members of the elite, whether aristocratic or upper middle class in background, became leaders in the government and military.

Marriage also served to unite the two groups. Daughters of business tycoons gained aristocratic titles and aristocratic heirs gained new sources of cash. For example, when wealthy American Consuelo Vanderbilt married the British duke of Marlborough, the new duchess brought approximately $10 million to her husband.

The Middle Classes  The middle classes consisted of a variety of groups. Below the upper middle class, which formed part of the new elite, was a middle group that included lawyers, doctors, members of the civil service, business managers, engineers, architects, accountants, and chemists. Beneath this solid and comfortable middle group was a lower middle class of small shopkeepers, traders, and prosperous peasants. The members of this group provided goods and services for the classes above them.

The Second Industrial Revolution produced a new group of white-collar workers between the lower middle class and the lower classes. This group included traveling salespeople, bookkeepers, telephone operators, department store salespeople, and secretaries. Although not highly paid, these white-collar workers were often committed to middle-class ideals.

The middle classes shared a certain lifestyle with values that tended to dominate much of nineteenth-century society. The members of the middle class liked to preach their worldview both to their children and to the upper and lower classes of their society. This was especially evident in Victorian Britain, often considered a model of middle-class society.

The European middle classes believed in hard work, which was open to everyone and guaranteed to have positive results. They were also regular churchgoers who believed in the good conduct associated with Christian morality. The middle class was concerned with the right way of doing things, which gave rise to such best-selling manners and etiquette books as The Habits of Good Society.
The Working Classes

Below the middle classes on the social scale were the working classes, which made up almost 80 percent of the European population. Many of the members of these classes were landholding peasants, farm laborers, and sharecroppers, especially in eastern Europe.

The urban working class consisted of many different groups, including skilled artisans and semi-skilled laborers. At the bottom of the urban working class were the unskilled laborers. They were the largest group of workers and included day laborers and large numbers of domestic servants. One out of every seven employed persons in Great Britain in 1900 was a domestic servant. Most domestic servants were women.

Urban workers experienced an improvement in the material conditions of their lives after 1870. Reforms created better living conditions in cities. In addition, a rise in wages, along with a decline in many consumer costs, made it possible for workers to buy more than just food and housing. Workers now had money for more clothes and even leisure activities. At the same time, strikes were leading to 10-hour workdays and Saturday afternoons off.

Reading Check

Identifying Name the major groups in the social structure of the late nineteenth century.

The Experiences of Women

In 1800, women were mainly defined by family and household roles. They remained legally inferior and economically dependent upon men. In the course of the nineteenth century, women struggled to change their status.

New Job Opportunities

During much of the nineteenth century, working-class groups maintained the belief that women should remain at home to bear and nurture children and should not be allowed in the industrial workforce. Working-class men argued that keeping women out of industrial work would ensure the moral and physical well-being of families.

The Second Industrial Revolution, however, opened the door to new jobs for women. A high demand for relatively low paid white-collar workers, coupled with a shortage of male workers, led many employers to hire women. Both industrial plants and retail shops needed clerks, typists, secretaries, file clerks, and salesclerks.

The expansion of government services created opportunities for women to be secretaries and telephone operators, and to take jobs in the fields of education, health, and social services. While some middle-class women held these jobs, they were mainly filled by the working class who aspired to a better quality of life.

Marriage and the Family

Many people in the nineteenth century believed in the ideal expressed in Lord Tennyson’s The Princess, published in 1847:

"Man for the field and woman for the hearth:
Man for the sword and for the needle she:
Man with the head and woman with the heart:
Man to command and woman to obey. . . ."

This view of the sexes was strengthened during the Industrial Revolution. As the chief family wage earners, men worked outside the home. Women were left with the care of the family.

Throughout the 1800s, marriage remained the only honorable and available career for most women. There was also one important change. The number of children born to the average woman began to decline—the most significant development in the modern family. This decline in the birthrate was tied to improved economic conditions, as well as increased use of birth control. In 1882, Europe’s first birth control clinic was founded in Amsterdam.
The family was the central institution of middle-class life. With fewer children in the family, mothers could devote more time to child care and domestic leisure.

The middle-class family fostered an ideal of togetherness. The Victorians created the family Christmas with its Yule log, tree, songs, and exchange of gifts. By the 1850s, Fourth of July celebrations in the United States had changed from wild celebrations to family picnics.

The lives of working-class women were different from those of their middle-class counterparts. While they may have aspired to middle-class ideals, most working-class women had to earn money to help support their families. Daughters in working-class families were expected to work until they married. After marriage, they often did small jobs at home to support the family. For the children of the working classes, childhood was over by the age of nine or ten, when children became apprentices or were employed in odd jobs. (See page 997 to read excerpts from L’Atelier’s The Unfortunate Situation of Working Women in the Primary Sources Library.)

Between 1890 and 1914, however, family patterns among the working class began to change. Higher-paying jobs in heavy industry and improvements in the standard of living made it possible for working-class families to depend on the income of husbands alone.

By the early twentieth century, some working-class mothers could afford to stay at home, following the pattern of middle-class women. At the same time, working-class families aspired to buy new consumer products, such as sewing machines and cast-iron stoves.

**The Movement for Women’s Rights** Modern feminism, or the movement for women’s rights, had its beginnings during the Enlightenment, when some women advocated equality for women based on the doctrine of natural rights. In the 1830s, a number of women in the United States and Europe argued for the right of women to divorce and own property. (By law, a husband had almost complete control over his wife’s property.) These early efforts were not very successful, and married women in Britain did not win the right to own some property until 1870.

The fight for property rights was only the beginning of the women’s movement. Some middle- and upper-middle-class women fought for and gained access to universities, and others sought entry into occupations dominated by men.

Though training to become doctors was largely closed to women, some entered the medical field by becoming nurses. In Germany, Amalie Sieveking was a nursing pioneer who founded the Female Association for the Care of the Poor and Sick in Hamburg. More famous is the British nurse Florence Nightingale. Her efforts during the Crimean War (1853–1856), combined with those of Clara Barton in the U.S. Civil War (1861–1865), transformed nursing into a profession of trained, middle-class “women in white.”

By the 1840s and 1850s, the movement for women’s rights expanded as women called for equal political rights. Many feminists believed that the right to vote was the key to improving the overall position of women.

The British women’s movement was the most active in Europe. The Women’s Social and Political Union, founded in 1903 by Emmeline Pankhurst and her daughters, used unusual publicity stunts to call attention to its demands. Its members pelted...
government officials with eggs, chained themselves to lampposts, burned railroad cars, and smashed the windows of department stores on fashionable shopping streets. These suffragists (people who advocate the extension of political rights, such as voting rights) had one basic aim: the right of women to full citizenship in the nation-state.

Before World War I, demands for women’s rights were being heard throughout Europe and the United States. Before 1914, however, women had the right to vote in only a few nations like Norway and Finland, along with some American states. It would take the dramatic upheaval of World War I to make male-dominated governments give in on this basic issue of the rights of women.

**Universal Education**

Universal education was a product of the mass society of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Education in the early nineteenth century was primarily for the elite and the wealthier middle class. However, between 1870 and 1914, most Western governments began to set up state-financed primary schools. Both boys and girls between the ages of 6 and 12 were required to attend these schools. States also took responsibility for training teachers by setting up teacher-training schools.

Why did Western nations make this commitment to public education? One reason was industrialization. In the first Industrial Revolution, unskilled labor (workers without training or experience) was able to meet factory needs. The new firms of the Second Industrial Revolution, however, needed trained,
skilled labor. Both boys and girls with an elementary education now had new job possibilities beyond their villages or small towns. These included white-collar jobs in railways, post offices, and the teaching and nursing fields.

The chief motive for public education, however, was political. Giving more people the right to vote created a need for better-educated voters. Even more important was the fact that primary schools instilled patriotism. As people lost their ties to local regions and even to religion, nationalism gave them a new faith.

Compulsory elementary education created a demand for teachers, and most of them were women. Many men saw teaching as a part of women’s “natural role” as nurturers of children. Females were also paid lower salaries, which in itself was a strong incentive for states to set up teacher-training schools for women. The first female colleges were really teacher-training schools.

The most immediate result of public education was an increase in literacy, or the ability to read. In western and central Europe, most adults could read by 1900. Where there was less schooling, the story was very different. Nearly 79 percent of adults in Serbia and Russia still could not read by 1900.

With the increase in literacy after 1870 came the rise of mass newspapers, such as the Evening News (1881) and the Daily Mail (1896) in London. Millions of copies were sold each day. These newspapers were all written in an easily understood style. They were also sensationalistic—that is, they provided gossip and gruesome details of crimes.

**Connecting to the Past**

1. **Describing** What did sports offer middle-class men of the late nineteenth century?
2. **Evaluating** Why do you think spectator sports became such a big business?
3. **Writing about History** Write a brief essay comparing the educational goals at your school with those at Loretto. What are the differences and similarities?

**Reading Check**

**Explaining** Why did states make a commitment to provide public education?
New Forms of Leisure

The Second Industrial Revolution allowed people to pursue new forms of leisure. The new forms of popular mass leisure both entertained large crowds and distracted them from the realities of their work lives. Leisure came to be viewed as what people do for fun after work. The industrial system gave people new times—evening hours, weekends, and a week or two in the summer—to indulge in leisure activities.

Amusement parks introduced people to exciting new experiences and technology. By the late nineteenth century, team sports had developed into yet another form of leisure. Subways and streetcars meant that even the working classes could make their way to athletic games, amusement parks, and dance halls.

The new mass leisure was quite different from earlier forms of popular culture. The earlier festivals and fairs had been based on community participation. The new forms of leisure were standardized for largely passive audiences. Amusement parks and professional sports teams were essentially big businesses organized to make profits.

**Reading Check**

How did innovations in transportation change leisure activities during the Second Industrial Revolution?

**Checking for Understanding**

1. Define feminism, literacy.
2. Identify Amalie Sieveking, Florence Nightingale, Clara Barton, Emmeline Pankhurst.
4. Explain what is meant by the term *universal education*. How did industrialization help propel the movement for universal education?
5. List the explanations given in this section for the decline in birthrate during the 1800s.

**Critical Thinking**

6. Explain Why have certain occupations such as elementary teaching and nursing historically been dominated by women?

7. **Summarizing Information** Use a graphic organizer like the one below to summarize the results of urban reforms.

**Analyzing Visuals**

8. **Examine** the clothing worn by the women in the photos on pages 624, 625, and 627. How have women’s fashions changed since the late nineteenth century? How have women’s political rights changed? In what ways might these changes be related?

**Writing About History**

9. **Persuasive Writing** The feminist movement changed the role of women. In an essay, argue whether these changes were positive or negative.
On January 22, 1905, a group of peaceful demonstrators tried to present a petition of grievances to Czar Nicholas II. One described the result:

"We were not more than thirty yards from the soldiers, being separated from them only by the bridge over the Tarakanovskii Canal, when suddenly, without any warning and without a moment’s delay, was heard the dry crack of many rifle-shots. . . . A little boy of ten years, who was carrying a church lantern, fell pierced by a bullet. Both the [black]smiths who guarded me were killed, as well as all those who were carrying the icons and banners; and all these emblems now lay scattered on the snow. The soldiers were actually shooting into the courtyards of the adjoining houses, where the crowd tried to find refuge."

—Eyewitness to History, John Carey, ed., 1987

As a result of the massacre of peaceful demonstrators, the czar faced a revolution. In Russia and other parts of central and eastern Europe, many groups struggled for independence. Throughout much of the western world, however, the national state had become the focus of people’s loyalties.

**Western Europe and Political Democracy**

By the late nineteenth century, progress had been made toward establishing constitutions, parliaments, and individual liberties in the major European states.
Political democracy, characterized by universal male suffrage and ministerial responsibility, expanded. As more and more men (and later, women) were able to vote, political parties needed to create larger organizations and to find ways to appeal to the masses of people who were now part of the political process.

**Great Britain** By 1871, Great Britain had long had a working two-party parliamentary system. For the next 50 years, these two parties—the Liberal Party and the Conservative Party—alternated in power at regular intervals. Both parties were led by a ruling class composed of aristocratic landowners and upper-middle-class businessmen.

The Liberals and Conservatives competed with each other in passing laws that expanded the right to vote. Reform acts in 1867 and 1884 increased the number of adult males who could vote. By the end of World War I (1918), all males over age 21 and women over age 30 could vote.

At the end of the nineteenth century, then, political democracy was becoming well established in Britain. Social reforms for the working class soon followed. The working class in Great Britain supported the Liberal Party. Two developments made Liberals fear that they would lose this support. First, trade unions grew, and they began to favor a more radical change of the economic system. Second, in 1900, a new party—the Labour Party, which dedicated itself to the interests of workers—emerged.

The Liberals held the government from 1906 to 1914. To retain the support of the workers, they voted for a series of social reforms. The National Insurance Act of 1911 provided benefits for workers in case of sickness and unemployment. Additional laws provided a small pension for those over 70 and compensation for those injured in accidents while at work.

**France** In France, the collapse of Louis-Napoleon’s Second Empire left the country in confusion. In 1875,
five years after it was proclaimed, the Third Republic gained a republican constitution. The new government had a president and a legislature made up of two houses. Members of the upper house, called the Senate, were elected indirectly. In the lower house, called the Chamber of Deputies, members were elected by universal male suffrage.

The powers of the president were not well defined in the constitution. A premier (or prime minister) actually led the government. The premier and his ministers were responsible to the Chamber of Deputies, not to the president. This principle of ministerial responsibility—the idea that the prime minister is responsible to the popularly elected legislative body and not to the executive officer—is crucial for democracy.

France failed to develop a strong parliamentary system. The existence of a dozen political parties forced the premier to depend on a coalition of parties to stay in power. Frequent changes of government leadership plagued the republic. Nevertheless, by 1914, the Third Republic commanded the loyalty of most French people.

**Italy** Italy had emerged by 1870 as a united national state. The nation had little sense of unity, however, because a great gulf separated the poverty-stricken south from the industrialized north. Constant turmoil between labor and industry weakened the social fabric of the nation. Widespread corruption among government officials prevented the government from dealing with these problems. Universal male suffrage was granted in 1912 but did little to stop corruption and weakness in the government.

**Central and Eastern Europe: The Old Order**

Germany, Austria-Hungary (or the Austro-Hungarian Empire), and Russia pursued policies that were quite different from those of some western European nations.

**Germany** The constitution of the new imperial Germany begun by Otto von Bismarck in 1871 provided for a two-house legislature. The lower house of the German parliament, the Reichstag, was elected on the basis of universal male suffrage.

Ministers of government, however, were responsible not to the parliament, but to the emperor. The emperor also controlled the armed forces, foreign policy, and the government bureaucracy. As chancellor (prime minister), Bismarck worked to keep Germany from becoming a democracy.

By the reign of William II, emperor from 1888 to 1918, Germany had become the strongest military and industrial power in Europe. With the expansion of industry and cities came demands for democracy.

Conservative forces—especially the landowning nobility and big industrialists, two powerful ruling groups in imperial Germany—tried to block the movement for democracy by supporting a strong...

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**Analyzing Political Cartoons**

In 1890, Emperor William II fired Otto von Bismarck and took control of Germany’s relations with other countries. In this scene, the emperor is shown relaxing on a throne made of cannonballs and artillery, while Bismarck bids him good-bye. The woman watching represents Germany. **What do you think the cartoonist is trying to say?**
foreign policy. They believed that expansion abroad would not only increase their profits, but would also divert people from pursuing democratic reforms.

Austria-Hungary After the creation of the dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary in 1867, Austria enacted a constitution that, in theory, set up a parliamentary system with ministerial responsibility. In reality, the emperor, Francis Joseph, largely ignored this system. He appointed and dismissed his own ministers and issued decrees, or laws, when the parliament was not in session.

Austria remained troubled by conflicts between the various nationalities in the state. The German minority that governed Austria felt increasingly threatened by Czechs, Poles, and other Slavic groups within the empire. Representatives of these groups in the parliament agitated for their freedom, which further encouraged the emperor to ignore the parliament and govern by imperial decrees.

Unlike Austria, Hungary had a parliament that worked. It was controlled by Magyar landowners who dominated the peasants and ethnic groups.

Russia In Russia, Nicholas II began his rule in 1894 believing that the absolute power of the czars should be preserved: “I shall maintain the principle of autocracy just as firmly and unflinchingly as did my unforgettable father.” Conditions were changing, however.

Industrialization began late in Russia but progressed rapidly after 1890. By 1900, Russia had become the fourth largest producer of steel behind the United States, Germany, and Great Britain. With industrialization came factories, an industrial working class, and pitiful working and living conditions. Socialist parties developed, including the Marxist Social Democratic Party and the Social Revolutionaries, but government repression forced both parties to go underground. Growing discontent and opposition to the czarist regime finally exploded into the Revolution of 1905.

On January 22, 1905, a massive procession of workers went to the Winter Palace in St. Petersburg to present a petition of grievances to the czar. Troops foolishly opened fire on the peaceful demonstration, killing hundreds. This “Bloody Sunday” caused workers throughout Russia to call strikes.

Nicholas II was eventually forced to grant civil liberties and create a legislative assembly, called the Duma. These reforms, however, proved short-lived. By 1907, the czar had already curtailed the power of the Duma, and again used the army and bureaucracy to rule Russia.

Reading Check Identifying
What was the role of the Duma in the Russian government?
The United States and Canada

Between 1870 and 1914, the United States became an industrial power with a foreign empire. Canada faced problems of national unity during this period.

Aftermath of the Civil War Four years of bloody civil war had preserved American national unity, but the old South had been destroyed. One-fifth of the adult white male population in the South had been killed, and four million African American slaves had been freed.

In 1865, the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution was passed, abolishing slavery. Later, the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments gave citizenship to African Americans and the right to vote to African American males. However, new state laws in southern states soon stripped African Americans of their right to vote. By 1880, supporters of white supremacy were in power everywhere in the South.

Economy Between 1860 and 1914, the United States shifted from an agrarian to an industrial nation. In 1860, 20 percent of Americans lived in cities, but by 1900, 40 percent lived in cities. American steel and iron production was the best in the world in 1900, with Carnegie Steel Company alone producing more steel than all of Great Britain.

Migration patterns were an important factor. Europeans migrated to both North and South America, but they migrated to the United States in massive numbers—almost 11 million did so between 1870 and 1900. Some left to escape European conditions. Others were drawn by new opportunities.

In 1900, the United States was the world’s richest nation, but the richest 9 percent of Americans owned 71 percent of the wealth. Many workers labored in unsafe factories, and devastating cycles of unemployment made them insecure. Many tried to organize unions, but the American Federation of Labor represented only 8.4 percent of the labor force.

Expansion From the mid-nineteenth century, the United States began to expand. First, it acquired the Alaska territory by buying it from Russia in 1867. The first important possession in the Pacific was the Samoan Islands, acquired at the end of the century.

Another Pacific colony was the Hawaiian Islands. By 1887, American settlers had already gained control of its sugar industry. As more Americans settled in Hawaii, they wanted political power. When Queen Liliuokalani (lee•lee•oo•oh•kah•LAH•nee) tried to strengthen the monarchy to keep the islands under her people’s control, the United States sent military forces to the islands. The queen was deposed and the United States annexed Hawaii in 1898. In 1898, the United States also defeated Spain in the Spanish-American War. As a result, the United States acquired the formerly Spanish possessions of Puerto Rico, Guam, and the Philippines.

The Filipino people hoped for independence, but the United States refused to grant it. It took the United States three years to pacify the Philippines and establish control. By the beginning of the twentieth century, the United States, the world’s richest nation, had an empire.

Canada At the beginning of 1870, the Dominion of Canada had four provinces: Quebec, Ontario, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick. With the addition in 1871 of two more provinces—Manitoba and British Columbia—the Dominion of Canada extended from the Atlantic to the Pacific.

Real unity was difficult to achieve, however, because of distrust between the English-speaking and French-speaking peoples of Canada. Wilfred Laurier, who became the first French-Canadian prime minister in 1896, was able to reconcile these two major groups. During his administration, industrialization boomed, and immigrants from Europe helped populate Canada’s vast territories.

International Rivalries

Otto von Bismarck realized that Germany’s emergence in 1871 as the most powerful state in continental Europe had upset the balance of power established at Vienna in 1815. Fearing that France intended to create an anti-German alliance, Bismarck made a defensive alliance with Austria-Hungary in 1879. In 1882, Italy joined this alliance.

The Triple Alliance of 1882 united the powers of Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy in a defensive alliance against France. At the same time, Bismarck maintained a separate treaty with Russia and tried to remain on good terms with Great Britain.

In 1890, Emperor William II fired Bismarck and took control of Germany’s foreign policy. The emperor embarked on an activist policy dedicated to enhancing German power. He wanted, as he put it, to find Germany’s rightful “place in the sun.”

One of the changes he made in Bismarck’s foreign policy was to drop the treaty with Russia. The ending
of that alliance brought France and Russia together. In 1894, these two powers formed a military alliance. Over the next 10 years, German policies abroad caused the British to draw closer to France. By 1907, an alliance of Great Britain, France, and Russia—known as the Triple Entente—stood opposed to the Triple Alliance of Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy.

Europe was now dangerously divided into two opposing camps that became more and more unwilling to compromise. A series of crises in the Balkans between 1908 and 1913 set the stage for World War I.

**Reading Check** Summarizing What countries formed the Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente?

### Crises in the Balkans

Over the course of the nineteenth century, the Balkan provinces of the Ottoman Empire had gradually gained their freedom, although regional rivalries between Austria-Hungary and Russia had complicated the process. By 1878, Greece, Serbia, Romania, and Montenegro had become independent states. Bulgaria did not become totally independent, but was allowed to operate under Russian protection. The Balkan territories of Bosnia and Herzegovina were placed under the protection of Austria-Hungary.

In 1908, Austria-Hungary took the drastic step of annexing Bosnia and Herzegovina. Serbia was outraged. The annexation of these two Slavic-speaking territories dashed the Serbians’ hopes of creating a large Serbian kingdom that would include most of the southern Slavs.

The Russians, as protectors of their fellow Slavs, supported the Serbs and opposed the annexation. Backed by the Russians, the Serbs prepared for war against Austria-Hungary. At this point, Emperor William II of Germany demanded that the Russians accept Austria-Hungary’s annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina or face war with Germany.

Weakened from their defeat in the Russo-Japanese War in 1905, the Russians backed down but vowed revenge. Two wars between Balkan states in 1912 and 1913 further embittered the inhabitants and created more tensions among the great powers.

The Serbians blamed Austria-Hungary for their failure to create a large Serbian kingdom. Austria-Hungary was convinced that Serbia was a mortal threat to its empire and must at some point be crushed. As Serbia’s chief supporters, the Russians were angry and determined not to back down again in the event of another confrontation with Austria-Hungary or Germany in the Balkans. The allies of Austria-Hungary and Russia were determined to support their respective allies more strongly in another crisis. By the beginning of 1914, these countries viewed each other with suspicion.

**Reading Check** Explaining Why were the Serbs outraged when Austria-Hungary annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina?
Detecting Bias

Why Learn This Skill?
Suppose you see an ad showing two happy customers shaking hands with a used-car salesman. The ad says, “Visit Honest Harry for the best deal on wheels.” That evening you see a television program that investigates used-car sales businesses. The report says that many of these businesses cheat their customers.

Each message expresses a bias—an inclination or prejudice that inhibits impartiality. Harry wants to sell cars; the television program wants to attract viewers. Most people have preconceived feelings, opinions, and attitudes that affect their judgment on many topics. Ideas stated as facts may be opinions. Detecting bias enables us to evaluate the accuracy of information.

Learning the Skill
In detecting bias:
• Identify the writer’s or speaker’s purpose.
• Watch for emotionally charged language such as exploit, terrorize, and cheat.
• Look for visual images that provoke a strong emotional response.
• Look for overgeneralizations such as unique, honest, and everybody.
• Notice italics, underlining, and punctuation that highlight particular ideas.
• Examine the material to determine whether it presents equal coverage of differing views.

Practicing the Skill
Industrialization produced widespread changes in society and widespread disagreement on its effects. Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels presented their viewpoint on industrialization in The Communist Manifesto in 1848. Read the following excerpt and then answer these questions.

“The bourgeoisie . . . has put an end to all feudal, patriarchal, idyllic relations. It has pitilessly torn asunder the motley feudal ties that bound man to his ‘natural superiors,’ and has left remaining no other nexus [link] between man and man than naked self-interest, than callous ‘cash payment.’ It has drowned the most heavenly of ecstasies of religious fervor, of chivalrous enthusiasm . . . in the icy water of egotistical calculation. . . . In one word, for exploitation, veiled by religious and political illusions, it has substituted naked, shameless, direct, brutal exploitation.”

1. What is the purpose of this quote?
2. What are three examples of emotionally charged language?
3. According to Marx and Engels, which is more inhumane—the exploitation by feudal lords or by the bourgeoisie? Why?
4. What bias about the bourgeoisie is expressed in this excerpt?

Applying the Skill
Find written material about a topic of interest in your community. Possible sources include editorials, letters to the editor, and political pamphlets. Write a short report analyzing the material for evidence of bias.

Glencoe’s Skillbuilder Interactive Workbook, Level 2, provides instruction and practice in key social studies skills.

FCAT LA.A.2.4.2, LA.A.2.4.7
Toward the Modern Consciousness

Guide to Reading

Main Ideas
• Innovative artistic movements during the late 1800s and early 1900s rejected traditional styles.
• Extreme nationalism and racism led to an increase in anti-Semitism.
• Developments in science changed how people saw themselves and their world.

Key Terms
psychoanalysis, pogrom, modernism

People to Identify
Marie Curie, Albert Einstein, Sigmund Freud, Claude Monet, Pablo Picasso

Places to Locate
Vienna, France

Preview Questions
1. How did Einstein and Freud challenge people’s views?
2. How did modernism revolutionize architecture?

Reading Strategy
Identifying Information As you read this section, complete a chart like the one below that lists an artist and a characteristic of the art movement indicated.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1896</td>
<td>Herzl publishes The Jewish State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1900</td>
<td>Freud publishes The Interpretation of Dreams</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>Einstein publishes his special theory of relativity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1913</td>
<td>Stravinsky’s The Rite of Spring performed in Paris</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following are the major Sunshine State Standards covered in this section.

SS.A.1.4.4: Use chronology, sequencing, patterns, and periodization to examine interpretations of an event.

SS.B.1.4.4: Understand how cultural and technological characteristics can link or divide regions.

SS.A.1.4.2: Identify and understand themes in history that cross scientific, economic, and cultural boundaries.

Voices from the Past

Camille Pissarro, a French artist, expressed his philosophy of painting in this way:

Do not define too closely the outlines of things; it is the brush stroke of the right value and color which should produce the drawing. . . . The eye should not be fixed on one point, but should take in everything, while observing the reflections which the colors produce on their surroundings. Work at the same time upon sky, water, branches, ground, keeping everything going on an equal basis. . . . Don’t proceed according to rules and principles, but paint what you observe and feel. Paint generously unhesitatingly, for it is best not to lose the first impression.

—History of Impressionism, John Rewald, 1961

Pissarro was part of a revolution in the arts. Between 1870 and 1914, radical ideas in the arts and sciences opened the way to a modern consciousness.

A New Physics

As you will learn, Albert Einstein challenged the Newtonian idea of a mechanical universe, thus introducing an element of uncertainty into humankind’s perception of space and time.

Before 1914, many people in the Western world continued to believe in the values and ideals that had been put forth by the Scientific Revolution and the Enlightenment. Reason, science, and progress were still important words to Europeans.
Science was one of the chief pillars supporting the optimistic view of the world that many Westerners shared in the nineteenth century. Science, which was supposedly based on hard facts and cold reason, offered a certainty of belief in the orderliness of nature. Many believed that by applying already known scientific laws, humans could arrive at a complete understanding of the physical world and an accurate picture of reality.

Throughout much of the nineteenth century, Westerners believed in a mechanical conception of the universe that was based on the ideas of Isaac Newton. In this perspective, the universe was viewed as a giant machine. Time, space, and matter were objective realities that existed independently of those observing them. Matter was thought to be composed of solid material bodies called atoms.

These views were seriously questioned at the end of the nineteenth century. The French scientist Marie Curie discovered that an element called radium gave off energy, or radiation, that apparently came from within the atom itself. Atoms were not simply hard material bodies but small, active worlds.

At the beginning of the twentieth century, Albert Einstein, a German-born scientist working in Switzerland, provided a new view of the universe. In 1905, Einstein published his special theory of relativity, which stated that space and time are not absolute but are relative to the observer.

According to this theory, neither space nor time has an existence independent of human experience. As Einstein later explained to a journalist, “It was formerly believed that if all material things disappeared out of the universe, time and space would be left. According to the relativity theory, however, time and space disappear together with the things.”

Moreover, matter and energy reflect the relativity of time and space. Einstein concluded that matter is nothing but another form of energy. This idea led to an understanding of the vast energies contained within the atom and to the Atomic Age. To some, however, a relative universe—unlike Newton’s universe—was a universe without certainty.

ndefining

How did Marie Curie’s discovery change people’s ideas about the atom?

Freud and Psychoanalysis

At the turn of the century, Sigmund Freud (FROYD), a doctor from Vienna, proposed a series of theories that raised questions about the nature of the human mind. Freud’s ideas, like the new physics, added to the uncertainties of the age. His major theories were published in 1900 in The Interpretation of Dreams.

According to Freud, human behavior was strongly determined by past experiences and internal forces of which people were largely unaware. Freud argued that painful and unsettling experiences were repressed, or hidden from a person’s conscious awareness. Freud believed that these hidden feelings continued to influence behavior, however, because they were part of the unconscious.

According to Freud, repression of such experiences began in childhood, so he devised a method—known as psychoanalysis—by which a therapist and patient could probe deeply into the patient’s memory. In this way, they could retrace the chain of repressed thoughts all the way back to their childhood origins. If the patient’s conscious mind could be made aware of the unconscious and its repressed contents, the patient could be healed.

The full importance of Sigmund Freud’s thought was not felt until after World War I. In the 1920s, his ideas gained worldwide acceptance. Freudian terms, such as unconscious and repression, became standard vocabulary words. Psychoanalysis, pioneered by Freud, developed into a major profession.

What is Freud’s theory of the human unconscious?
Social Darwinism and Racism

In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, scientific theories were sometimes applied inappropriately to achieve desired results. For example, Charles Darwin’s theories were applied to human society in a radical way by nationalists and racists. Their ideas are known as Social Darwinism.

The most popular exponent of Social Darwinism was the British philosopher Herbert Spencer. He argued that social progress came from “the struggle for survival” as the “fit”—the strong—advanced while the weak declined. Some prominent businessmen used Social Darwinism to explain their success. To them, the strong and fit—the able and energetic—had risen to the top; the stupid and lazy had fallen by the wayside.

In their pursuit of national greatness, extreme nationalists often insisted that nations, too, were engaged in a “struggle for existence” in which only the fittest (the strongest) survived. The German general Friedrich von Bernhardi argued in 1907, “War is a biological necessity of the first importance, . . . since without it an unhealthy development will follow, which excludes every advancement of the race, and therefore all real civilization. War is the father of all things.”

Perhaps nowhere was the combination of extreme nationalism and racism more evident than in Germany. One of the chief exponents of German racism was Houston Stewart Chamberlain, a Briton who became a German citizen. He believed that modern-day Germans were the only pure successors of the Aryans, who were portrayed as the original creators of Western culture. Chamberlain singled out Jews as the racial enemy who wanted to destroy the Aryan race.

Anti-Semitism and Zionism

Anti-Semitism—hostility toward and discrimination against Jews—was not new to European civilization. Since the Middle Ages, the Jews had been portrayed as the murderers of Christ and subjected to mob violence. Their rights had been restricted, and they had been physically separated from Christians by being required to live in areas of cities known as ghettos.

In the nineteenth century, Jews were increasingly granted legal equality in many European countries. Many Jews now left the ghettos and became assimilated into the cultures around them. Many became successful as bankers, lawyers, scientists, scholars, and journalists.
These achievements were only one side of the picture, however, as is evident from the Dreyfus affair in France. Alfred Dreyfus, a Jew, was a captain in the French general staff. In 1894, a secret military court found him guilty of selling army secrets and condemned him to life imprisonment. During his trial, angry right-wing mobs yelled anti-Semitic sayings such as, “Death to the Jews.”

Soon after the trial, however, evidence emerged that pointed to Dreyfus’s innocence. Another officer, a Catholic aristocrat, was more obviously the traitor. The army refused a new trial. A wave of public outrage finally forced the government to pardon Dreyfus in 1899.

In Germany and Austria-Hungary during the 1880s and 1890s, new parties arose that used anti-Semitism to win the votes of people who felt threatened by the changing economic forces of the times. However, the worst treatment of Jews at the turn of the century occurred in eastern Europe, where a majority of the world Jewish population lived. Russian Jews were forced to live in certain regions of the country. Persecutions and pogroms (organized massacres) were widespread.

Hundreds of thousands of Jews decided to emigrate to escape the persecution. Many went to the United States. Some (probably about 25,000) moved to Palestine, which became home for a Jewish nationalist movement called Zionism.

For many Jews, Palestine, the land of ancient Israel, had long been the land of their dreams. A key figure in the growth of political Zionism was Theodor Herzl, who stated in his book The Jewish State (1896), “The Jews who wish it will have their state.”

Settlement in Palestine was difficult, however, because it was then part of the Ottoman Empire, which was opposed to Jewish immigration. Although three thousand Jews went annually to Palestine between 1904 and 1914, the Zionist desire for a homeland in Palestine remained only a dream on the eve of World War I.

**Reading Check**

Explaining Why did Jews begin to move to Palestine?

**The Culture of Modernity**

Between 1870 and 1914, many writers and artists rebelled against the traditional literary and artistic styles that had dominated European cultural life since the Renaissance. The changes that they produced have since been called modernism.

**Literature** Throughout much of the late nineteenth century, literature was dominated by naturalism. Naturalists felt that literature should be realistic and address social problems. These writers, such as Henrik Ibsen and Émile Zola, explored issues such as the role of women in society, alcoholism, and the problems of urban slums.

At the beginning of the twentieth century, a group of writers known as the symbolists caused a literary revolution. Primarily interested in writing poetry and strongly influenced by the ideas of Freud, the symbolists believed that objective knowledge of the world was impossible. The external world was only a collection of symbols that reflected the true reality—the individual human mind. Art, the symbolists believed, should function for its own sake instead of serving, criticizing, or seeking to understand society.

**Painting** The period from 1870 to 1914 was one of the most productive in the history of art. Since the Renaissance, the task of artists had been to represent reality as accurately as possible. By the late nineteenth century, artists were seeking new forms of expression to reflect their changing views of the world.
Impressionism was a movement that began in France in the 1870s, when a group of artists rejected the studios where artists had traditionally worked and went out into the countryside to paint nature directly. One important Impressionist is Claude Monet (moh•NAY), who painted pictures in which he sought to capture the interplay of light, water, and sky. Other Impressionist painters include Pierre-Auguste Renoir (REHN• WAHR) and Berthe Morisot.

In the 1880s, a new movement, known as Postimpressionism, arose in France and soon spread to other European countries. A famous Postimpressionist is Vincent van Gogh (GOH). For van Gogh, art was a spiritual experience. He was especially interested in color and believed that it could act as its own form of language. Van Gogh maintained that artists should paint what they feel.

By the beginning of the twentieth century, the belief that the goal of art was to represent reality had lost much of its meaning. This was especially true in the visual arts. Perhaps the most important factor in the decline of realism in painting was the spread of photography to the mass markets. Photography had been invented in the 1830s and became widespread after George Eastman created the first Kodak camera in 1888. Now, anyone could take a photograph that looked exactly like the subject.

Artists came to realize that their strength was not in mirroring reality, which the camera could do, but in creating reality. The visual artists, like the symbolist writers of the time, sought meaning in individual consciousness. Between 1905 and 1914, this search for individual expression created modern art. One of the most outstanding features of modern art is the attempt of the artist to avoid “visual reality.”

By 1905, one of the most important figures in modern art was beginning his career. Pablo Picasso was from Spain but settled in Paris in 1904. He painted in a remarkable variety of styles. He created a new style, called cubism, that used geometric designs to recreate reality in the viewer’s mind. In his paintings, Picasso attempted to view human form from many sides. In this aspect he seems to have been influenced by the increasingly popular theory of relativity.

**Starry Night by Vincent van Gogh, 1889**
During the last two years of his life, van Gogh painted many night scenes such as this one.

What adjectives would you use to describe the feelings van Gogh conveyed in this painting?
In 1910, abstract painting began. Wassily Kandinsky, a Russian who worked in Germany, was one of the founders of abstract expressionism. Kandinsky sought to avoid visual reality altogether. He believed that art should speak directly to the soul. To do so, it must use only line and color.

**Architecture** Modernism in the arts revolutionized architecture and gave rise to a new principle known as functionalism. Functionalism was the idea that buildings, like the products of machines, should be functional, or useful. They should fulfill the purpose for which they were built. All unnecessary ornamentation should be stripped away.

The United States was a leader in the new architecture. The country’s rapid urban growth and lack of any architectural tradition allowed for new building methods. The Chicago School of the 1890s, led by Louis H. Sullivan, used reinforced concrete, steel frames, and electric elevators to build skyscrapers virtually free of external ornamentation.

One of Sullivan’s most successful pupils was Frank Lloyd Wright. Wright’s private houses, built chiefly for wealthy patrons, were geometric structures with long lines and overhanging roofs. Wright pioneered the modern American house.

**Music** At the beginning of the twentieth century, developments in music paralleled those in painting. The music of the Russian composer Igor Stravinsky was the first to reflect expressionist theories.

Stravinsky’s ballet *The Rite of Spring* revolutionized music. When it was performed in Paris in 1913, the sounds and rhythms of the music and dance caused a near riot by an outraged audience.

**Explaining** How did the Impressionists radically change the art of painting in the 1870s?

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**History through Architecture**

**Fallingwater by Frank Lloyd Wright, 1936**

*Why do you think this Pennsylvania house is a good example of modern architecture?*

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You can prepare for the FCAT-assessed standards by completing the correlated item(s) below.

**SECTION 4 ASSESSMENT**

**Checking for Understanding**

1. Define psychoanalysis, pogrom, modernism.

2. Identify Marie Curie, Albert Einstein, Sigmund Freud, symbolists, Claude Monet, Pablo Picasso.

3. Locate Vienna, France.

4. Explain why photography caused some artists to reject realism.

5. List some of the modernist movements in art, music, and architecture and an individual associated with each of the movements.

**Critical Thinking**

6. Analyze Why are times of political and economic change often associated with times of artistic change?

7. Organizing Information Use a web diagram to summarize the problems the Jews faced during the time period discussed in this section.

**Analyzing Visuals**

8. Compare the painting by van Gogh on page 640 to other paintings of night scenes in art history books. Pick one such painting and tell why you enjoy that painting either more or less than the van Gogh painting.

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**Writing About History**

9. Expository Writing Research the symbolist writers. Who were they and what did they write about? Write a short biography about one of the symbolists. Include the titles of this symbolist’s best-known works. [FCAT LA.B.1.4.2]
Using Key Terms
1. The _______ were Marxists who rejected the revolutionary approach of pure Marxists.
2. According to Marx, the middle-class oppressors were the ________, and the working-class oppressed were the ________.
3. ________ is the movement for gaining women's rights.
4. The principle by which a prime minister is directly answerable to a popularly elected representative body is ________.
5. The ________ is the Russian legislative assembly.
6. ________ is a method by which a therapist and a patient probe for repressed experiences.
7. A literary and artistic style that rejected traditional styles was called ________.
8. ________ were organized massacres of helpless people, such as the acts against the Jews.
9. A ________ is a government in which a person or group has absolute power.
10. The introduction of universal education in the late nineteenth century led to an increase in ________.

Reviewing Key Facts
11. Science and Technology List one invention each of Guglielmo Marconi, Thomas Edison, and Alexander Graham Bell.
12. Government Who wrote The Communist Manifesto?
13. Culture How did Florence Nightingale and Clara Barton transform nursing?
14. Culture What purposes were served by compulsory education?
15. Government What was the name given to France's government after the adoption of a new constitution in 1875?
16. Government What was the result of “Bloody Sunday” in St. Petersburg in 1905?
17. Economics Why did American workers organize unions?
18. Culture What did Louis H. Sullivan contribute to the field of architecture?
19. Government Who was the emperor of Germany at the end of the nineteenth century?
20. Culture Who was Vincent van Gogh and why was he important?
21. Government What basic right were women denied until World War I?
22. Economics By 1900, Russia had become the fourth largest producer of what product?

Critical Thinking
23. Evaluating Why was revisionist socialism more powerful in western Europe than in eastern Europe?
24. Drawing Conclusions Was the Revolution of 1905 in Russia a success or a failure? Why?
25. Summarizing Identify changes that resulted from the Second Industrial Revolution.

Chapter Summary
Innovations in technology and production methods created great economic, political, social, and cultural changes between 1870 and 1914, as shown in the chart below. The development of a mass society led to labor reforms and the extension of voting rights. New scientific theories radically changed people's vision of the world. Change also brought conflict as tensions increased in Europe and new alliances were formed.

**Economics**
- Industrial growth and the development of new energy resources lead to increased production of consumer goods.

**Politics**
- Growth of mass politics leads to the development of new political parties.
- Labor leaders use ideas of socialism and Marxism to form unions.

**Society**
- Women fight for equal rights.
- Society adopts middle-class values.
- Unions fight for labor reforms.
- Mass leisure develops.

**Culture**
- Many artists reject traditional styles and develop new art movements.
- New scientific ideas radically change people's perception of the world.

**Conflict**
- Nationalism and imperialism create conflict in the Balkans and eventually lead to World War I.
- Growth of nationalism leads to increased anti-Semitism.
31. Reread the information in your text and do further research on similarities and differences among the British Conservative, Liberal, and Labour parties of 1914. Decide which of these three parties you would belong to if you lived in England at that time. Explain your choice of parties.

### Analyzing Maps and Charts

Use the chart above to answer the following questions.

32. According to the chart, what is the major difference between an autocratic and a democratic form of government?

33. How are a constitutional monarchy and a republic similar? How do they differ?

34. Where was direct democracy practiced in 1900? Which earlier civilizations also practiced direct democracy?

### Writing About History

26. **Expository Writing** Discuss how Einstein’s and Newton’s understandings of the universe differ and how they are related.

### Analyzing Sources

Read the following quote from a regular visitor to an upper-class seaside resort.

“They swarm upon the beach, wandering about with apparently no other aim than to get a mouthful of fresh air. You may see them in groups of three or four—the husband, a pale man, dressed in black coat, carries the baby; the wife, equally pale and thin, decked out in her best, labors after with a basket of food. And then there is generally another child . . . wandering behind.”

27. What can you infer about the husband and the wife from the way in which they are described?

28. In what way do the ideas expressed in this quote reflect the class-consciousness of this time period?

### Applying Technology Skills

29. **Using the Internet** Use the Internet to find examples of paintings by Monet and Picasso. Carefully examine the paintings, then describe their main differences and similarities. Some features to look for include each artist’s subject matter, use of color, and method of painting.

### Making Decisions

30. Assume the role of a working-class laborer at a newly unionized factory. What demands would you present to management? Do these demands cover everything that is wrong with the factory? If not, how did you decide what to present?