EUROPEAN HISTORY



CITY-STATES & DYNASTIES

1450-1550

Europe sees greater centralized monarchical control over taxes, law, armies; increased sense of belonging to a **nation**

Italian city-states: Hundreds of cities (e.g., Florence, Venice, Milan, Genoa, Naples, Papal States) are ruled independently along with surrounding countryside, resulting in political and social instability Cities slowly consolidate into larger city-states ruled by pow-erful, ruthless families, such as the **Medici** of Florence

- Many city-states become constitutional oligarchies ruled by small numbers of people; others ruled by despots
- Papal States are ruled by the pope, like other city-states France invades Italian states three times (1494, 1499, 1515)
- 1527: Spanish soldiers sack Rome

Spain: Reaches height of power during 1500s via marriage, inheritance, luck, exploration

- 1469: Marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella leads to united Spain 1492: Spain expels Jews; exiles Muslims in 1502
- Charles V (r. 1519-1556) rules Habsburg Empire (Spain, Netherlands, areas of Italy, central Europe), Holy Roman Empire, and empire in New World
- After Charles, Habsburg Empire splits between Spanish and Austrian branches

Holy Roman Empire: Continues divide into small independent states ruled by princes, archbishops; population mostly German

Empire as a whole ruled by an elected **emperor** (usually an Austrian Habsburg) who negotiates powers with princes France: Centralizes under powerful Valois dynasty but faces

constant warfare, religious conflict 1453: France defeats England, ending Hundred Years' War

- 1477: Burgundy divided between France, Holy Roman Empire
- 1500s: Series of wars against Spanish Habsburgs end in defeat 1515-1547: Francis I rules with cooperation of nobles

England: New Tudor dynasty ends decades of civil war

- 1455-1485: War of the Roses between House of Lancaster
- 1485: Lancastrian Henry Tudor defeats ill-reputed Richard III at Bosworth Field; as Henry VII, he strengthens royal authority

Byzantine Empire: Constantinople falls to Ottoman Turks in 1453; Islamic, religiously tolerant **Ottoman Empire** spreads into Balkans Russia: Princes, united under Ivan III of Moscow, end Mongol rule of Russian cities in 1480

RENAISSANCE THOUGHT & CULTURE

Italian Renaissance: Exploration of the secular world (nature, humanity) through painting, poetry, sculpture, philosophy

- Humanism: Poets Dante Alighieri (1265–1321) and Petrarch (1304–1374) and other thinkers pursue scholarship in the humanities, inspired by ancient Greeks and Romans Wealthy nobles and merchants support the arts
- Techniques of symmetry, proportionality, **chiaroscuro** (light-dark contrast), **perspective** make art more realistic
- 1440: Donatello finishes sculpture David, first Western freestanding nude since antiquity

 1507: Leonardo da Vinci (1452–1519), artist, engineer, scien-
- tist, inventor, ultimate "Renaissance Man" finishes Mona Lisa

 1508: Michelangelo begins work on the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel in Rome; beautiful frescoes depict biblical passages
- 1513: Niccolò Machiavelli's The Prince: Leaders should inspire fear to end political instability, cause moral regeneration
- Mannerism: New expressive style rejects symmetry of earlier Renaissance art (c. 1520-1600)

Northern Renaissance: Begins c. 1460s; humanists pursue intellectual activity, making religious reform possible

- Spurred by invention of movable-type printing press (Johann Gutenberg, c. 1450) and rising number of schools, universities Literacy leads to challenges to rule, religion; greater individual
- knowledge; propaganda; censorship; new trades; copyright law **Desiderius Erasmus** (Dutch, c. 1469–1536) promotes intellec-
- tual inquiry, piety, use of Latin as common scholarly language Albrecht Dürer (German, 1471-1528) paints, engraves re
- Thomas More critiques society in Utopia (England, 1516)



THE AGE OF EXPLORATION

Spanish and Portuguese explore coast of Africa and the Atlantic in the late 1400s and 1500

1492: Spanish monarchs fund Christopher Columbus's voyage; aims to find spices and gold in Asia, but actually lands in Caribbean

1498: Portuguese explorer Vasco da Gama reaches India by going around Africa; spice trade to the east by sea begins

Spain claims most of Central, South America; Portugal claims Brazil, African coast; conquer via small armies, advanced weapons

- 1493: Pope divides New World between Spain, Portugal
- 1521: Hernán Cortés (Spain) conquers Aztec in Mexico 1531-1534: Francisco Pizarro (Spain) conquers Inca in Peru

1519-1522: Ferdinand Magellan (Portugal) circumnavigates world Indigenous people face disease, enslavement; loss of land, culture Africans sent to New World as **slaves** in mines, on plantations Catholic priests, notably Bartolomé de Las Casas (1474–1566).

THE REFORMATIONS 1500–1600

Calls for Church reform to end abuses and give lay authorities more power set the stage for **Reformations**

protest against Spanish treatment of Native Americans

- Sale of indulgences (in which anxious individuals pay Church money in hopes of spending less time in purgatory after death) comes under attack
- Corrupt, immoral popes, bishops, priests tarnish Church image

Great Schism (1378-1417): Period of several rival popes; undermines papal authority

- Calls for reform by **John Wycliffe** (English, c. 1328–1384) and Jan Hus (Czech, c. 1369–1415) German cities, desiring more wealth and power, try to end
- Church's financial privileges and abuses

Protestant Reformation: German priest Martin Luther challenges Church doctrine, rejects pope as head of Christian church

Argues against monastic life; believes that faith alone leads

- to salvation (not good works, not indulgences) Acknowledges two holy sacraments rather than seven
- Promotes personal religion, individual Bible study, Bible and
- Mass in vernacular (not Latin)
- 1517: Luther posts his ninety-five theses (complaints about Church's sale of indulgences) on door of church at Wittenberg
- 1521: Pope excommunicates Luther: H.R.F. Charles V signs Edict of Worms condemning Luther's ideas; Church reform
- becomes political issue that divides German princes 1530: Augsburg Confession makes Luther's break with Church permanent, founds Lutheran Church

Protestant movement spreads piecemeal through Holy Roman Empire's individual states and cities

- . Urban reformers, pamphlets, preachers spread Luther's ideas Crowds attack churches: wars distract Charles V from resist-
- ing Reformation actively Radical reformers in the Holy Roman Empire splinter into Anabaptists, Mennonites, Anti-Trinitarians

1522: Ulrich Zwingli leads Reformation in Switzerland based on literal reading of scripture

John Calvin (French, 1509–1564) believes salvation comes only through predestination but also that living a strictly godly life is a sign of being chosen to be saved

- 1540s: Calvin leads moral reform in Geneva, Switzerland. haven for persecuted Protestants
- Calvinism spreads to Netherlands, France

1555: Peace of Augsburg lets German princes decide on religion of their states; Holy Roman Empire thus divides between Lutherans, Catholics; Calvinists, Anabaptists not recognized

1530s: England's Henry VIII (r. 1509-1547) founds Anglican **Church** in order to divorce his wife, breaks from Catholic daughter Mary returns to Catholicism

- Other daughter, **Elizabeth I** (r. 1558–1603), enforces Protestantism through Acts of Uniformity and Supremacy (1559) but tolerates Catholicism; seeks pragmatic solution to end violence **Puritans** press for further reform of Anglican Church; advocate
- simplified, fervent Protestantism

Catholic Reformation (Counter-Reformation): Defends against Protestantism, makes reforms within Catholicism

- 1540: Ignatius of Loyola founds Society of Jesus (Jesuits), who preach and teach worldwide to promote Catholicism
- 1545-1563: Council of Trent reforms bishop and priest conduct; reaffirms Catholic doctrine; papal authority, seven sacraments. Christ's presence in Eucharist (communion), power of indulgences (but not sale), power of good works, celibacy of clergy
- 1555: Pope Paul IV orders Jews to live in ghettos 1559: Pope Paul IV establishes Index (list of forbidden books)

1600: Pattern of Christianity in Europe set, but minorities exist

- Catholic majority: Ireland, Spain, France, Italian states, Austria. Poland, southern German states
- Protestant majority: England, Switzerland, Netherlands, Scandinavia, northern German states
- Orthodox majority: Russia, Balkans, parts of Poland-Lithuania

FAMILIES & CHILDREN 1450-1600

European population in 1400s still recovering from Black Death (bubonic plague) of 1300s

- Life expectancy short; 40 considered old age
- Couples marry late
- High infant mortality; poor have few surviving children
- Wives legally subservient to husbands but contribute to household economy

Changes in marriage and families in the 1500s:

- Marriages occur at later ages; women considered partners in marriage; divorce still difficult but more acceptable under Protestantism
- Some use of birth control: high infant mortality continues: many children placed in foundling homes; spreading practice of wet-nursing

Until late 17th century, plague sweeps through Europe every 10-15 years, spread by armies

ECONOMIES 1450-1600

1300s-1400s: Europe more united economically than ever before

- **Italian cities** Genoa and Venice trade European wool and metal for silk, cotton, and spices from China, India, and Persia
- **Textile** production and **surplus agriculture** provide goods for urban centers, fueling the Italian Renaissance
- Banking, borrowing, raising capital through mining monopolies fuels expanding economies
- Italian city Florence's gold florin becomes the standard currency for many European traders

1500s: Population and wealth of Europe increase, benefiting wealthy landowners but leading to inflation, less food, fewer jobs, higher taxes, wider gap between rich and poor

Age of Exploration leads to new maritime spice, silk, slave trade, sea powers Spain and Portugal grow rich importing silver and gold from the New World; Italian states decline from competition

- New wealth allows western Europe to buy grain from eastern Europe; land values in Poland rise, rents increase, leading small holders to reenter serfdom (losing freedom, gaining security)
- 1524–1525: Peasants' War in Holy Roman Empire calls for end to serfdom, unfair taxation; based partly on Luther's Reformation teachings but condemned by Luther; revolt is suppressed

Townspeople in western Europe gain freedoms from lords; generally could not be serfs

- Largest European cities in 1500: Constantinople, Naples, Milan, Paris, Venice
- Only about 15% of population lives in towns
- Small number of merchants, nobles, manufacturers dominate urban society; next are artisans; most in cities are laborers
- Guilds regulate artisan training, production, goods distribution

WARS OF RELIGION 1560-1650

France: Dynastic conflict intensifies wars of religion between Huguenots (French Protestants) and Catholics (1562-1598)

- Three successive weak kings and their mother, Catherine de Medici, try to maintain their independence between Catholic and Protestant competing factions
- 1572: In St. Bartholomew's Day Massacre, thousands of Huguenots killed in Paris and throughout France; Protestants increase resistance to Catholic rule
- 1598: Bourbon king Henry IV declares Edict of Nantes, a religious truce; official religion is Catholicism, but Protestants are granted freedoms

Netherlands: Dutch Protestants begin revolt against Catholic Spanish Habsburgs (1572)

- 1581: Calvinist United Provinces (northern Netherlands) declare independence; southern Netherlands remain Catholic, loval to Spain (Belgium and Luxembourg today)
- 1609: Truce declared

Thirty Years' War (1618-1648): Most destructive war of religion

- Despite Peace of Augsburg, tensions rise in Holy Roman Empire between Catholics and Protestants, Calvinists and Lutherans
- 1618: War begins in Bohemia (Czech region in Holy Roman Empire); dynastic conflicts draw in nearly all European countries (Denmark, Sweden, France, Spain, Netherlands)
- Armies grow large, cruel, undisciplined, live off the land; destructive war becomes the norm

1648: Treaty of Westphalia brings lasting peace, ends wars of religion, establishes many of today's European borders

- Calvinists gain legal recognition; German rulers still allowed to determine religion of their own territories
- Independence of Swiss Confederation and United Provinces (Netherlands) recognized
- Holy Roman Empire weakened; German states greatly damaged by war but maintain relative independence within Empire; German states **Austria** and **Brandenburg-Prussia** gain power
- France and Spain continue at war until 1659
- In 1650, 20% of Europeans are Protestant (decline from 1600)

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JROPEAN HISTOR



SCIENTIFIC IDEAS 1500-1700

"Scientific Revolution" actually slow, uneven development in thought and approaches to the study of the universe, often following false leads or experiencing setbacks

Astronomy: Mathematical formulas developed to describe earthly and planetary motion; observation places the Sun rather than Earth at the center of the planets

- Ancient, medieval science (based on Greeks Aristotle and my) placed Earth at the center of the univer-
- 1543: Nicolaus Copernicus (Polish, 1473-1543) publishes argument for heliocentric (sun-centered) universe, based on his own observations
- Tycho Brahe (Danish, 1546-1601) collects observations of planets and stars; his assistant, Johannes Kepler (German, 1571–1630), develops laws of planetary motion
- Galileo Galilei (Italian, 1564-1642) uses telescope to observe sun's rotation, moon's craters; argues that universe follows laws of mathematics

Math and physics: Discoveries of gravity, mathematical laws Isaac Newton (English, 1642-1727) argues that light can be

- described mathematically (1671), publishes laws of gravity
- Newton and Gottfried Leibnitz (German, 1646-1716) independently develop calculus, which describes motion, surface area, and change in volume via mathematical formulas

Anatomy: Andreas Vesalius (Flemish, 1514-1564) and William Harvey (English, 1578-1657) explore workings of the human body, including the skeletal and circulatory systems

Some scientists come into conflict with the Catholic Church for disagreeing with the Bible and emphasizing material world rather than the spiritual world

- 1633: Pope prosecutes Galileo for promoting Copernican system
- However, most scientists view their work as glorifying and understanding God's creation, not as a challenge to religion
- Blaise Pascal (French, 1623-1662) attempts to reconcile science with religion

Scientific reasoning: Scientists and philosophers begin to view the universe as governed by universal laws that can be discovered and tested using rational inquiry and experiment

- Francis Bacon (English, 1561-1626) uses inductive reasoning (gathering small pieces of information via experiments drawing larger conclusions from them)
- René Descartes (French, 1596-1650) uses deductive reasoning (beginning with general principles such as "I think, therefore I am," and using reason to derive knowledge from them)
- Newton combines experimentation with theory

Scientific knowledge spreads through letters, publications, private and public demonstrations; Royal Society of London becomes the most prominent scientific society

Women prevented from participating in scientific societies and universities, vet some make scientific contributions, such as English noblewoman Margaret Cavendish (1623–1673)

EARLY MODERN THOUGHT & CULTURE

Reformation leads to fewer monasteries, fewer religious holidays: encourages spread of humanist education and reading, including **literacy for women**

Baroque style of art and architecture embraced in Catholic countries; heavily ornamented, monumental, emotional religious art

Baroque music flourishes c. 1600-1750, distinguished by bass continuo (sustained note) and ornamentation heard in compositions of Johann Sebastian Bach (German, 1685-1750) and **Antonio Vivaldi** (Italian, 1678–1741)

1600s Dutch artists paint secular scenes of daily life, still lifes, families eating, drinking, enjoying wealth; emerging middle class can afford to buy and commission paintings

Rembrandt von Rijn (Dutch, 1606-1669) paints townspeople in rich color, shadow

Mid-1700s rococo style features flowing curves like Baroque, but smaller-scale, less ornate

Jean-Antoine Watteau (French, 1684-1721) paints elegant, smaller, secular themes

Literature: Plays and novels examine human nature and morality in changing society
• 1605: Miguel de Cervantes (Spanish, 1547–1616) publishes

- first part of *Don Quixote*, a sympathetic satire of chivalry **William Shakespeare** (English, 1564–1616) dramatizes human
- nature, English history in plays including *Hamlet* and *Macbeth* **1667**: English Puritan **John Milton**'s *Paradise Lost* explores the sin of pride

1651: English philosopher Thomas Hobbes's Leviathan sees humanity as naturally materialistic and selfish, argues that absolutism is necessary to prevent conflict

1690: English philosopher John Locke's Two Treatises of Government argue that humanity is naturally peaceful, call for moderate rule, rights, liberty, and protection of property

Continued superstition despite new philosophies and scientific ideas; most Europeans of the period believe in demons; thousands accused of witchcraft are sentenced to death from 1400–1700

- Women targeted as witches due to misogyny, dependency of older single women, women's disproportionate claims to have magical powers, suspicions against midwives
- Witch hunts end due to spread of scientific ideas, increasing fear of anarchy, decreasing fear of devil, increasing belief in

REPUBLICAN STATES 1550–1700

In republican states, **legislatures** hold some power over taxation and law- but states not necessarily democratic as legislatures may represent only nobles and wealthy

England: Despite kings' attempts at Catholicism and absolutism, England remains Protestant and maintains strong parliamentary monarchy led by landed gentry

- Elizabeth I (r. 1558-1603) establishes tolerant religious settlement, increases royal bureaucracy and efficiency
- 1588: English fleet defeats the Spanish Armado
- James I (r. 1603-1625; a.k.a. James VI of Scotland) unites rule of Scotland and England, believes in divine right of kings, alienating Puritans
- Charles I (r. 1625–1649) and Parliament (led by Puritan John Pym) guarrel over Charles I's taxation without Parliament's consent, his refusal to call Parliament, and centralized structure of church governance
 - 1642-1646: Civil war between Charles I's royalists ("Cavaliers") and Parliament ("Roundheads," favored by religious outsiders the Puritans)
- 1649: Victory of Parliament's New Model Army, commanded by Oliver Cromwell leads to Charles I's execution
- 1653-1658: Cromwell rules England, enforces Puritan ideals, subdues Ireland and Scotland
- Charles II (r. 1660-1685) given throne in Restoration, as English desire end to Puritan republic
- James II (r. 1685-1688) renews fears of Catholic, absolutist monarch
- 1688: Peaceful Glorious Revolution brings moderate monarchs William and Mary to England, assuring Protestant rule and Bill of Rights
- 1707: Union of Scotland with England and Wales creates United Kingdom
- 18th-century Hanoverian monarchs rule with Parliament dominated by wealthy property owners, but sometimes responsive to public pressure
- British sense of **national identity** emerges: Protestant, wealthy, loyal to monarchy, sense of rivalry with France
- Political parties emerge: Whigs. Tories vie for House of Commons (lower house of Parliament)

Netherlands: Newly independent northern United Provinces (or Dutch Republic) thrives in 1600s; expands middle class through trade and industry, via growing global economy Draining and filling in of land from sea creates fertile soil for

- increased agricultural production
- Resists authoritarian government; maintains federalist republic led by wealthy families
- Slight majority of Dutch are Calvinist, but country is known for religious toleration

Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth: Created by Lublin Union (1569), which unites northeastern Europe under one king; golden age of Poland

- Nobles of the Seim (the parliament) have customary veto power, which weakens central authority
- Religious toleration as Catholics, Orthodox, Lutherans, Calvinists, Anabaptists, Jews live together
- 1648: Ukrainian peasants revolt against cultural, religious and economic domination of Polish-Lithuanian nobles: tur-

THE GLOBAL ECONOMY 1600-1800

Global **trade** brings spices, tea, sugar, cotton from Asia and Americas to Europe; England and Netherlands especially benefit, while Italian states and Spain decline

Dutch and English shipbuilding, large middle class, urban population contribute to economy based on trade

Commercial innovations: Banks, credit, bills of exchange, jointstock companies (long-term investments by many) spark trade

- Dutch East Indies Company trades spices, tulips from Indonesian colonies; though independent of the government, it represents the government's interests
- British East India Company establishes trade in India, operates its own administration and military

Slaves from central west Africa provide labor in American economies from North America to Brazil

- Millions of Africans forced to migrate across the ocean, bringing languages, culture to American colonies
- Prosperity of colonial traders, merchants, and manufacturers of consumer goods comes to depend on slavery

Mercantile system: Belief that there is a limited amount of wealth in the world and that each nation must seek a favorable trade balance; expansion only through conquest

Dutch economy declines in late 1600s due to series of wars with England and France, lack of strong leadership

Port cities and capitals expand; medieval trade and ecclesiastical centers decline

Largest European cities in 1800: London, Paris, Naples, Constantinople, Moscow

ABSOLUTISM 1550–1770

Monarchs throughout Europe establish **absolute rule** based on claims of **divine right**, personal loyalties; increase control over taxation, growing armies, religion

Smaller princes and noble aristocracies agree to absolutism to minimize warfare and gain land and local authority

Absolutist rule limited by custom and law; not arbitrary

France: Monarchs establish rule by divine right, though parlements retain the rights to register royal decrees and oversee local administration and taxation

- Louis XIII advisor Richelieu increases royal administration Louis XIV, the "Sun King" (r. 1643–1715), lives at Versailles
- Palace, leads France into several dynastic wars 1648-1653: Nobles revolt against royal authority in conflict called the Fronde
- 1685: Louis XIV revokes Edict of Nantes
- Louis XV (r. 1715–1774) ineffective, less popular; monarchy no longer considered sacred

Holy Roman Empire: Austria-based Habsburg family rules Holy Roman Empire through negotiation with Germanic princes; also rules non-Germanic Croatia, Hungary, Bohemia

 Late 17th-century territorial gains from Ottoman Empire add to multiethnic empire

Prussia: Ambitious Hohenzollern family turns small, disconnected German territories of Brandenburg-Prussia into strong military power with agreement of loyal landowning nobles (Junkers) during 17th and 18th centuries

 Hohenzollern family challenges Habsburgs for dominance over Central Europe

Russia: Develops into powerful, Orthodox, multiethnic empire

Cruel Ivan IV "the Terrible" (r. 1533–1584) enlarges rule of tsars

- 1584-1613: Time of Troubles: Many contenders claim throne 1613: Michael Romanov selected as tsar, establishing new Romanov ruling dynasty
- Serfdom increases due to economic crisis, labor shortages; no representative institutions and few towns to resist
- Peter I "the Great" (r. 1682-1725) expands Russia: struggles against nobles (**boyars**); controls Orthodox Church; encourages service to state with **Table of Ranks**; builds new capital, St. Petersburg: introduces Western ideas, dress, culture

Sweden: Protestant monarchy plays important role in Thirty Years' War, fights Great Northern War against Russia (1700-1721) under leadership of **Charles XII** (r. 1697–1718)

Ottoman Empire: Spans North Africa, Middle East, Balkans; ethnically, religiously diverse territories become difficult to rule

- Governed through millets (recognized religious communities)
- Land belongs to sultan, so no hereditary nobility forms
- Sultan heads Islamic theocracy but tolerates other religions 1571: Wealthy, powerful Spanish Philip II (r. 1556–1598)
- defeats Ottoman Turks at sea battle of Lepanto 1683: King John III Sobieski of Poland prevents Ottoman
- Empire from capturing Habsburg capital, Vienno Ottoman Empire suffers long decline due to military defeats, renegotiations of rule with local elites, less vigorous industry and trade compared to Western Europe, isolation from

European military and scientific advances

THE ENLIGHTENMENT 1700-1800

18th-century intellectual and philosophical movement with origins in scientific ideas, Renaissance, print culture

Philosophers share ideas in woman-led salons

- 1751: First volume of The Encyclopedia by Denis Diderot and others shares knowledge of science, crafts, idea
- 1781: Immanuel Kant's Critique of Pure Reason promotes rational inquiry

Philosophers criticize religious institutions, promote religious

- toleration; themselves range from Christians to atheists
 1696: John Toland (English, 1670–1722) sets forth deist outlook of God as divine watchmaker
- 1748: David Hume (Scottish, 1711-1776) claims miracles cannot be proven in An Enquiry Concerning Human Understanding 1759: Voltaire (French, 1694-1778) criticizes Catholicism
- 1779: Gotthold Lessing (German, 1729–1781) calls for tolerance of non-Christian faiths in Nathan the Wise

Theorists desire government reform but disagree over best form of government

- 1748: Charles de Montesquieu (French, 1689–1755) promotes constitutional limits on monarchs in The Spirit of the Laws
- 1762: Jean-Jacques Rousseau (Swiss-French, 1712–1778) promotes democracy, personal freedom under the law in

Philosophers seek universal standards of justice, uniform law, but few promote extending equal rights to we 1763: Voltaire defends persecuted French Protestants

- 1764: Cesare Beccaria (Italian, 1738-1794) espouses justice,
- protests against torture in On Crimes and Punishments 1792: Mary Wollstonecraft (English, 1759-1797) argues for women's rights in A Vindication of the Rights of Woman

Enlightenment thinkers view mankind as changeable, not locked into social categories

- 1690: John Locke (English, 1632-1704) calls the mind a blank slate in An Essay Concerning Human Understanding, believes man can learn, improve
- 1762: Rousseau suggests in Émile that men can be molded with education, women should be subordinate to men

Enlightened economists oppose mercantilism

- 1755: Rousseau blames world's problems on uneven property distribution in Discourse on the Origin of Inequality
- 1776: Adam Smith (Scottish, 1723–1790) promotes free markets, specialization of labor in *The Wealth of Nations*

Enlightenment influences enlightened absolutism, is blamed for causing French Revolution (right)

ENLIGHTENED ABSOLUTISM

Absolute rulers adopt some Enlightenment ideas correspond with Enlightenment philosophers; however, rulers do not fundamentally change absolutist rule

Rational reforms strengthen state and military power but do not greatly improve lives of subjects Russia: Catherine II "the Great" (r. 1762-1796) establishes

schools for nobles, printing presses, clarifies nobility's rights; but also imprisons opponents, maintains censorship and serfdom 1773-1775: Puggchev Rebellion of peasants suppressed

· Russian westward expansion continues

Austria: Maria-Theresa (r. 1740-1780) works to end mis-

- 1781: Joseph II (r. 1765-1790: co-reigns with Maria-Theresa 1765-1780) abolishes serfdom, promotes religious toleration
- · Joseph II imposes more taxes on peasants

Prussia: Frederick II "the Great" (r. 1740–1786) supports arts and education, admires Voltaire, reforms justice system, improves agriculture, writes law code

- Reforms ultimately strengthen and streamline Prussian state
- Tax burden still falls on peasants and townspeople

1772, 1793, 1795: In three steps, Russia, Austria, Prussia partition Poland-Lithuania among themselves until it is no longer an independent nation

- Unlike Russia, Austria, and Prussia, Poland does not develop strong central institutions
- 1780s-1790s: Polish King Stanislaw promotes military. economic, educational, constitutional reforms
- Reform undermined by Polish counterrevolutionaries, making partitions by powerful neighbors possible

WAR & COLONIES 1600-1789

Spanish empire: South America (except Portuguese Brazil), Central America, southern North America, Caribbean islands French empire: Ouébec, Louisiana, Caribbean, Ohio and Mississippi River valleys, Indian territories, Caribbean islands Dutch empire: South Africa, Indonesia, territories in South America and India

British empire: North American east coast, India, Caribbean British, French, Spanish, Dutch battle over global economy; navies grow to defend colonial empires, with Britain's particularly strong

18th-century nations seek balance of power: if one grows too strong, others unite in war and diplomacy to limit it

- 1740-1748: War of Austrian Succession: Austria, Russia, Britain fear expansion of Prussia (aided by France), prevent disintegration of Habsburg empire
- 1756-1763: Seven Years' War: First global war pits Austria and France against Prussia and Britain
- Fighting occurs in Europe, North America, India
- War of nations, not just monarchs
- Britain ends France's North American America, war is known as the French and Indian War)
- Wars are expensive and cause domestic instability

1783: British recognize independence of United States of America; American Revolution inspires many Europeans to question traditional government

Armies of conscripts and mercenaries use bayonets, muskets, line formations, cavalry charges, defensive tactics

Battles usually only limited engagements, as armies are too expensive to risk destroying in entirety Dynastic wars led by chivalrous aristocratic officers inflict

er civilian casualties than 17th-century v SOCIAL CLASSES & FAMILIES 1600-1789 Social classes given by birth, sometimes called estates;

define legal rights and privileges Nobles: Dominate political life, but increasing wealth of nonnobles causes anxiety

- Nobles own large estates, are exempt from taxes Large nobility in Poland, Russia, Hungary, and Spain; small nobility in Britain
- Tension grows between old nobility, newly ennobled families Nobles try to hold onto traditional privileges

Clergy: Hold legal privileges but are divided between wealthy bishops and impoverished village priests and ministers

- Urban middle classes: Artisans, merchants, manufacturers Some members of middle class acquire sizable fortunes
- Middle classes resent persisting privileges of nobility
- Social life of cities thrives in cafés, theaters, private clubs
- Peasants: Make up majority of European population Russia 90% peasants; Prussia, France 75%; Britain very few
- Peasants owe taxes, work duties; some peasants own land, others work on large estates for wages and food
- Landowners use legal measures to prevent poor peasants from hunting, chopping down trees, gathering wood on their property
- Eastern European peasants live in worse conditions, often as serfs, under noble authority

Urban and rural poor: Struggle to survive despite starvation, disease, social control

- · Many turn to begging, smuggling, prostitution, crime Towns imprison beggars, increase punishments for crimes
- to maintain order Bands of thieves threaten travelers, traders on highways
- Unwanted children are increasingly left at foundling homes, where many die quickly

Jews: Required to live in separate communities called ahettos; have few rights, experience legal discrimination based on their religion, live mostly in poverty

Gender difference continues to determine social lives of men and women, regardless of class, from time of birth; opportunities, expectations, economic and cultural roles generally more limited for women

Families, not individuals, are the primary economic unit

- Family members work together in agriculture, artisanal crafts, small industries to provide for each other
- Households in western Europe include married couple, children, servants Older children move away, establish their own house-
- holds, marry late
- Women leave home to earn money for dowry, with goal of establishing a household with a husband
- Households in eastern Europe include several generations under one roof; children marry young, stay with parents after marriage

AGRICULTURE, CONSUMPTION, & INDUSTRY 1700-1800

Population explosion across Europe in 1700s: less devastating warfare, more children, better nourishment, fewer epidemics

Agricultural revolution in western Europe in 1700s: new crops, enclosure of open fields, commercialization of agriculture increase food production and distribution

Britain industrializes first (late 1700s) due to free trade, consumer demand, social mobility

Rising demand for convenient, inexpensive consumer goods (furniture, clothing, housewares) prompts industrial innovation Wealthy willing to risk money, or capital, to start an industry

Government laws protect and promote industry, trade; money from global economy invested in manufacturing in Europe

New technologies invented in Britain make industrial production faster, separate production into many steps

- 1765: Spinning jenny allows fast thread production in home
- 1776: Steam engine first used commercially 1769: Water frame allows small-factory thread production

Most weaving still done by hand until 19th century

- Families in rural areas and small villages do textile work at home to earn extra money
- Merchant entrepreneurs supply raw materials to workers in their homes, then sell textiles

Villages in contact with cities sell their agricultural products in exchange for manufactured and imported goods

Women's role in agricultural production and in large-scale mechanized industry declines

- Women continue to earn money in **cottage industries** or as domestics, but they have fewer options
- Women's work increasingly associated with the home, tradition, viewed as supplemental to a husband's income

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

Unrest stems from population increase, famine, popular Enlightenment ideas that promote democracy and lower prestige of monarchy, monarchy's financial crisis, and increasing view that the **parlements** and **the public** represent the French nation more than the monarch does

1787-1788: Government's attempts at reform fail

1789: King Louis XVI (r. 1774–1792) opens meeting of Estates-General to resolve financial problems (Estates-General is a

- meeting of **three estates**—clergy, nobles, and all others)

 1789: Priest **Emmanuel-Joseph Sieyès** says the Third Estate (non-clergy, non-nobles) is the true French nation and should have political power
- Estates-General goes further than expected, renames itself National Assembly, turns absolute monarchy into constitutional monarchy (king answerable to an elected legislature) abolishes noble privilege
- Parisians storm Bastille (old prison seen as symbol of injustice)
- Women of Paris force king to come to Paris from Versailles

1791: Louis XVI tries to flee France, denounces Revolution

1792: France becomes a republic, promoting "liberty, equality,

- and fraternity," but women lack right to vote or participate Government creates new calendar, metric system
- Republic takes control of Catholic Church; move is divisive Sans-culottes ("those wearing long pants") and tricolor (red, white, blue) flag symbolize republican support

1792: France wars against antirevolution European powers War continues sporadically for 23 years, spreading nation alism, democracy, and suffering across the continent

1793-1794: Reign of Terror: Government in hands of a few

- radicals (Jacobins) led by Maximilien Robespierre Aristocrats and some peasants start counterrevolution
- Federalists want decentralized revolution: crushed by Jacobins Over 20,000 people guillotined, including King Louis XVI and wife, Marie-Antoinette

1794: Robespierre's regime falls; replaced by unstable government called the Directory (lasts until 1799

THE NAPOLEONIC ERA

General Napoleon Bonaparte takes control of French government in 1799, declares himself emperor in 1804

Napoleon brings domestic order to France

- 1801: Makes peace with Pope in the Concordat
 1804: Napoleonic Code reforms, codifies French law; promotes traditional ideas about family and wome Napoleon uses **plebiscite** (yes or no vote) to gain popular
- approval of himself and his policies Strengthens **centralized administration**, social hierarchy
- based on service to the state rather than noble birth Censorship, arrest for those who disagree

Europe in almost constant war during Napoleon's reign

- Napoleon a genius at military organization, strate
- 1805: British confirm naval superiority at Battle of Trafalgar 1805: France defeats Austria and Russia at Austerli
- 1806: Napoleon blockades British trade with rest of Europe
- 1806: Holy Roman Empire dissolves
- 1808: Spanish resist French invasion
- 1812: French invade Russia

1815: Coalition of Austrian, British, Prussian, and Russian forces defeat Napoleon at Waterloo

French army spreads ideas about democracy, stirs nationalism throughout Europe 1814–1815: Congress of Vienna establishes a conservative

order in Europe Austrian Chancellor Klemens von Metternich dominates

- meeting of major European powers Pre-Napoleon national boundaries restored
- Legitimate **Bourbon monarchy** restored to France England, Austria, Prussia, Russia, France form the **Concert** of Europe
- Agreement to maintain a balance of power under which no one nation can become too strong
- Agreement to squash revolutions, maintain order

CONTINUED ON OTHER SIDE



NEOCLASSICISM & ROMANTICISM

emerge during French Revolution and Napoleonic era

Neoclassicism: Admiration for ancient Greek and Roman culture, architecture

- · Painting: Geometric lines, large spaces, often portraying a
- 1789: Jacques-Louis David's Lictors Bringing to Brutus the Bodies of His Sons illustrates republican virtue
- Music (c. 1750-1820); Court patronage, first public concerts; precise melodies, symmetrical, orderly but complex 1786: Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart (Austrian, 1756-1791)

composes The Marriage of Figaro

Romanticism: Belief that the artist creates art from within: not necessarily concerned with pursuing truth; characterized by admiration of Gothic architecture, questioning of value of reason, belief that world is mysterious

- Painting: Depicts power of nature, storms, internal turmoil
 1818–1819: Théodore Géricault (French, 1791–1824)
- portrays human tragedy in The Raft of the Medusa
- John Constable (English, 1776-1837) paints clouds, landscapes, rural scenes, as in The Haywain
- Literature: Emphasis on imagination, interior character development, rebellion against Enlightenment thought
 - 1798: Samuel Taylor Coleridge (English, 1772–1834) and William Wordsworth (English, 1770–1850) explore the development of the poet in Lyrical Ballads
- German Sturm und Drang ("storm and stress") movement includes **Johann Wolfgang von Goethe** (Sorrows of Young Werther, 1774; Faust Part I, 1808)
- Lord Byron (English, 1788–1824) writes rebellious and revolutionary poetry
- 1831: Stendhal (French, 1783-1842) depicts antihero's journey through love, ambition in The Red and the Black
- Music: Belief that music should evoke an emotional response Ludwig van Beethoven (German, 1770-1827) bridges classicism and romanticism
- 1738: English clergyman John Wesley founds Methodism religious faith to come from within oneself, not from books, priests or tradition
- 1802: François-René de Chateaubriand (French, 1768-1848) encourages post-revolutionary return to Catholicism in Genius of Christianity

19TH-CENTURY POLITICAL IDEAS

Conservatism: Belief that stability should be maintained through alliance of hereditary monarchy, landed aristocracy,

- 1790: Edmund Burke (English, 1729–1797) cautions against overthrowing national traditions in Reflections on the Revolution in France
- Joseph de Maistre (French, 1753-1821) believes social order stems from Church; blames Voltaire for French Revolution

Nationalism: Belief that the political boundaries of countries should coincide with the ethnicity of their inhabitants (for instance, a single Italian state for all Italian people) so each nation has its own ethnic identity

- Nationalist ideal encourages some ethnic groups to try to create their own nations through revolution, unification
- Johann Herder (German, 1744-1803) encourages study of folk culture; believes each nation has its own spirit
- G. W. F. Hegel (German, 1770-1831) promotes idea of strong state leading its people; believes ideas evolve through conflict with each other
- Nationalism often becomes aggressive, militaristic

Liberalism: Belief in free press, expansion of electoral franchise, legal equality, religious toleration, unregulated economy Not necessarily democratic; liberals fear revolution by masses

- Associated with the middle class
- 1859: John Stuart Mill (English, 1806–1873) promotes freedom of conscience in On Liberty

Classical economics: Promotion of free enterprise and capitalism regulated by the market, not the government (laissezfaire); inspired by Enlightenment economist Adam Smith

- my Bentham (English, 1748–1832) promotes utilitarianism, belief that law and society should be organized to
- bring the most happiness to the greatest number of people 1798: Thomas Malthus (English, 1766–1834) predicts that population growth will outstrip agricultural production
- 1817: David Ricardo (English, 1772-1823) believes "iron law of wages" means wages will always stay low

Socialism: Desire for equal distribution of money, property

Utopian socialists Henri de Saint-Simon (French, 1760-1825), Robert Owen (English, 1771–1858), Charles Fourier (French, 1772-1837) and Etienne Cabet (French, 1788-1856) advocate ideal communities based on equality, freedom

Marxism: Revolutionary branch of socialism: claims overthrow of capitalism inevitable; urges workers in all countries to unite
• 1848: German philosophers Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels

publish The Communist Manifesto

Anarchism: Belief that society works best without government 1840: Pierre-Joseph Proudhon (French, 1809–1865) declares that all property is theft

- Russian activists Mikhail Bakunin (1814-1876) and Peter Kropotkin (1842-1921) promote anarchism
- 1880s-1890s Some anarchists use violent terrorism to assassinate government leaders

THE 19TH-CENTURY MIDDLE CLASS

Increasing prominence of merchants, bankers, lawyers, doctors, clerks, shopkeepers, etc. known collectively as the middle class or bourgeoisie

- Social mobility (moving up and down from one class to another) both an ambition and a source of anxiety
- Size and influence of bourgeoisie varies by country: larger and more powerful in western Europe than in eastern Europe and the Balkans; only 2% of population in Russia
- Earn money through **work** but not manual labor **Not noble**, but would like to have privileges and political power; often support liberalism
 Desire for comfort, consumer goods to be enjoyed in **privacy**
- Emphasis on family: education, religion, advan marriages for children
- Belief in appropriate roles, or spheres, for men and women . Men work, earn money, deal with the outside world, provide food and shelter for family: women raise children. maintain the home, provide moral guidance for family
- Poorer women, however, must work and earn wages to survive; often work as domestics for the middle class
- Long-reigning Oueen Victoria (r. 1837-1901) embodies British middle-class values

WAR & REVOLUTION 1815–1890

1815-1848: Several revolutions challenge Concert of Europe 1821: Greece revolts against Ottomans: independent in 1830

- 1804-1824: Latin American colonies overthrow Spanish, Portuguese, and French rule
- 1820: Liberal revolts in Spain and Portugal
- 1825: Russia sees failed Decembrist Revolution against new conservative Tsar Nicholas I
- 1830: Belgium becomes independent of Netherlands 1830: Serbia wins autonomy from Ottoman Empire
- 1830-1831: Polish uprising against Russian rule suppressed

1848 Revolutions: In France, Austria, German states, and Italian states; have quick results but ultimately are crushed Students, urban workers, middle-class liberals participate

- Revolutionaries have different goals, which are not always compatible: national unification (German, Italian states) national independence (Hungarians, Czechs in Austria); social change; liberalization of law
- Counterrevolutionary armies defeat divided revolutionaries

Armies modernize: conscription, rifles, rapid mobilization 1853-1856: Crimean War: France, Britain fear Russian strength, join Ottoman Empire to defeat Russia; Concert of Europe broken

- Secret republican society (Carbonari) plots unification Giuseppe Mazzini and Giuseppe Garibaldi promote romanticized republican nationalism
- 1859–1860: Prime minister of Piedmont-Sardinia Camillo Cayour uses arms, diplomacy, Garibaldi's army to create Kingdom of Italy under King Victor Emmanuel I
- Italy adds Venetia (1866) and Papal states (1870) to kingdom

- German unification

 1815–1848: Inspired by Johann Herder, German student clubs agitate for German unification
- 1834: Zollverein (free trade union) draws German states closer 1848-1849: Frankfurt Parliament tries to unite German states; disagreement over whether Austria or Prussia should dominate unified Germany; Prussian King **Frederick William**V rejects plan for liberal, constitutional unified Germany
- Prussian prime minister **Otto von Bismarck** works to unify German states through "iron and blood"; conservative rather than liberal aim
- Prussia fights three wars to gain military, diplomatic power: defeats Denmark (1864), Austria (1866), France (1870-1871) 1871: German Empire declared under Emperor William I

French revolutions

- 1830: Conservative Bourbon king overthrown in favor of constitutional monarchy under Orleanist King Louis-Philippe
- 1848: Revolution establishes Second Republic
- 1851: President Louis-Napoleon Bonaparte overthrows
- republic, becomes emperor Napoleon III 1860s: Napoleon III allows liberal reforms
- 1870: Napoleon III overthrown after defeat against Prussia;
- Third Republic declared 1871: Paris Commune: Leftist revolt against French gov-
- ernment crushed 1889: General Boulanger threatens to overthrow republic

INDUSTRIAL EXPANSION

- Germany: Industrializes quickly after unification (1871)
- Russia: Industrializes slowly at first, but rapidly in 1930s

Rural, non-mechanized production still very importan

- Often long hours, unsafe conditions, low wages
- Entire families often work together in factories, with
- Single female industrial workers face poverty, exploitation

Decline in wages for skilled workers (glassblowers, tailors, furniture makers, etc.) as machines allow semiskilled and unskilled workers to do the same job

better pay, working conditions; often influenced by socialism

1820s-1830s: Steamboats first used to transport materials

1840s-1870s: Railway boom moves raw materials to factories and finished products to markets

Forests cut down: coal mining accelerated to power factories

- Urbanization: Increasing percentage of population lives in cities

 Poor living quarters, lack of sewer systems make cities unhealthy
- Cities annex suburban areas as they grow **Urban planners** build wide streets, sewers to improve city life

Second Industrial Revolution (late 1800s) brings expansion of steel, heavy industry, chemical industry

1881: First public electric plant opens, in Britain

THE AGE OF REFORM

1833: Slavery abolished in British colonies; Portuguese, Swedish, Danish, French, Dutch colonies follow 1836-1863

British reformers call for greater participation in government; conservative governments permit reforms mainly to keep peace

- 1819: Demonstrators for Parliamentary reform massacred at "Peterloo"
- 1829: Catholics allowed to be elected to Parliament
- 1832: First Reform Bill expands right to vote, but voting is still based on property
- 1846: Corn Laws (tariffs favoring wealthy landowners) repealed
- Peaceful, working-class Chartist movement calls for democd by Parliament in 1839 and 1842
- 1867: Second Reform Bill expands franchise further
- 1884: Third Reform Bill gives vote to most male farm workers

1861: Tsar Alexander II abolishes serfdom in Russia; former serfs owe payments for their freedom

Censorship relaxes in some nations

- 1881: France establishes freedom of the press
- National governments expand primary education
- 1870: British government takes over elementary schools

1880s: France makes education free, obligatory, nonreligious Women's movements argue for female access to education,

- professional work, electoral franchise Women less educated, barred from owning property, subject-
- ed to husband's authority; change occurs slowly in late 1800s 1869: British thinkers John Stuart Mill and Harriet Taylor argue for women's freedom in The Subjection of Wome
- British activists Millicent Fawcett (1847–1929) and Emmeline Pankhurst (1858-1928) lead branches of the women's suffrage movement: women receive the vote in 1918
- Women's movements outside of Britain much less active

Jews given citizenship and nearly equal social status at different times in different countries throughout the 19th century

States provide a degree of workers' protection against unemployment, injury, poor working conditions, long working hours

• 1883: Germany passes Sickness Insurance Law

- · Britain's new Labour Party (founded 1900) accepts government responsibility to reform

First laws imposing limits on working hours in France aimed at protecting women and children

International agreements try to alleviate wartime suffering 1864: First Geneva Convention protects wounded soldiers

1899, 1907: International conferences held at The Hague, Netherlands, attempt to limit warfare 1870s-1910s: Britain divided over question of Irish Home Rule Late 1800s: Transportation, overcrowding, hope for better life

encourage record emigration from Europe, despite reforms ART & CULTURE 1815-1914

Photography: Allows rapid, easy production and reproduction of images

- 1839: Louis Daguerre publicizes the daguerreotype, the first form of photography
- 1890s: Half-tone printing makes it easy for newspapers, books to publish photographs

n: Realistic portrayal of the world in literature, painting Émile Zola (French, 1840–1902) writes novels including Nana.

- about a prostitute, and Germinal, about a miners' strike Henrik Ibsen (Norwegian, 1828-1906) incorporates psycho-
- ogical, realistic drama in plays such as A Doll's Hous Playwright George Bernard Shaw (Irish, 1856-1950)
- causes riots with social critiques 1849: Gustave Courbet (French, 1819–1877) paints bored funeral-goers in Burial at Ornans

1857: Jean-Francois Millet (French, 1814-1875) portrays peasants at work in The Gleaners

Impressionism: Painting with small strokes of color, painting outdoors, to explore modern life and leisure activities
• 1865: Edouard Manet (France) exhibits shocking nude Olympia

1890-1891: Claude Monet (France) paints several paintings of haystacks in different seasons, types of light Expressionism: Use of hold colors and odd juxtanositions to elicit emotional responses, exemplified in The Scream (1893)

by Edvard Munch (Norwegian, 1863-1944) Cubism: Pablo Picasso (Spanish, 1881–1973) pioneers use of geometric forms in Les Demoiselles d'Avignon (1907)

Music: Russian composer Igor Stravinsky's ballet Rite of Spring (1913) debuts in France, challenging rationality, convention

1851-1900: Universal exhibitions in London, Paris impress tourists with displays of national industry, culture, imperial possessions

Industrialization occurs at different times, at different paces: usually a long, slow process with the exception of:

women and children paid less than men

Workers (or proletariat) form unions, go on strike, bargain for

vations in transportation facilitate travel for work and leisure

- 1830: First passenger railway opens, in Britain
- 1863: London underground railway opens
- 1880s-1890s: Bicycles become popular and liberating mode of transportation, especially for women
- 1880s: German engineers Carl Benz and Gottlieb Daimler build first automobile

Faster **communication** improves access to news, culture

• Cheap printing processes, higher literacy, and liberal press

- laws make **newspapers** widely accessible

 1876: American Alexander Graham Bell invents the **telephone**1890s: Italian Guglielmo Marconi sends **radio** communication
- 1895: First silent films, in France, depict modern life in motion

MULTIETHNIC STATES

Austria: Agrees to give Magyar (Hungarian) minority control over its own interior government; empire renamed Austria-Hungary
• Slavic minorities (Czechs, Serbs, Croats, Slovenes) within

Austria-Hungary also demand their own control

Ottoman Empire: Splits apart despite efforts for reform Independence/autonomy of Greece (1830), Serbia (1830), Romania

- (1862), Bulgaria (1878), Montenegro (1878), Albania (1913) 1839–1876: Tanzimat (reorganization): Economic liberalization,
- equality for Muslims, Jews, Christians: difficult to put in practice 1908: Young Turks, a group of reformist officers attempt modernization, become radically nationalist
- 1915: Turkish genocide of Armenians during World War I

Russia: Helps Balkan states win independence in 1878, gains more territory for itself south and east in Russo-Turkish War

1878: Berlin Congress: Germany tries to limit Russian land gains Russification: Policy attempt to make non-Russians speak Russian, adopt Russian culture, religion

Balkan states: Fight each other for more territory; majority of population is rural, poor, illiterate

- 908: Austria-Hungary annexes Bosnia-Herzegovi ly part of the Ottoman Empire, causing tensions with Serbia
- 1912: First Balkan War: Balkan states (Bulgaria, Serbia, Greece, Montenegro) ally successfully against Ottoman Empire
- 1913: Second Balkan War: Serbia, Greece, others defeat Bulgaria, angered by its acquisitions during First Balkan War
- Serbs living in Austria-Hungary want to join Serbia

19TH-CENTURY CHRISTIANITY

States more tolerant of minority Christian faiths during 1800s States and churches become separate

1870s: Cultural struggle against Catholic Church in Germany

1905: French state no longer governs religion

Scholars begin to study the Bible as historical text, not literal truth

Education secularized as fewer students taught by Church Pope loses temporal power in Italian unification but gains spiritual

authority with 1870 decree of papal infallibility on faith, morals Women more likely than men to practice their religion

IMPERIALISM 1800–1914

European nations gain territory or domination in Asia and **Africa** through piece-by-piece conquest

- 1700s-1800s: Britain slowly acquires India
- 1830: France conquers Algeria
 1857: Sepoy mutiny: Indian soldiers revolt against British
- 1869: Suez Canal connects Mediterranean Sea, Indian Ocean 1870s-1880s: Britain controls much of Africa
- 1898: British, French armies meet in a standoff at Fashoda
- Sudan; war averted when French back down
 1899–1902: Boer War: British defeat Boers (farmers of Dutch descent) in South Africa
- 1900: Boxer Rebellion: Chinese revolt against European presence: China remains independent, but European powers carve it into different spheres of influence

Reasons for imperialism:

- **Economic:** Colonies provide new markets, raw materials; colonies are rarely profitable, however
- Religious: Christian missionaries convert indigenous peoples
- Nationalistic: New territories bring glory to the nation; empire becomes part of national identity
- Racial: European powers view indigenous peoples as inferior, in need of civilization

Empires inspire European cult of masculinity celebrating rug gedness, bravery, the outdoors; Boy Scouts founded in Britain to train young men to fulfill this ideal



ALLIANCES 1873-1914

- 1873: Germany, Austria, Russia form Three Emperor's Leggue
- 1878: Berlin Congress puts Russia at odds with Germany, Austria 1879: Germany and Austria form Dual Alliance
- 1882: Italy join's Germany and Austria in Triple Alliance
- 1890: German King William II dismisses Bismarck, architect of peace and alliances
- 1894: France and Russia agree to defend each other, facing
- Germany with possibility of two-front war
- 1890s-1900s: German and British naval arms race 1904: Britain and France sign agreements
- 1907: Britain and Russia sign agreements

SCIENTIFIC REASON & IRRATIONALITY 1815–1914

Scientists make great discoveries in the 1800s, but these are often applied to serve irrational, hostile purposes

Positivism: Belief that world is improving through science; most associated with French philosopher Auguste Comte (1798-1857)

1859: Charles Darwin's (English, 1809–1882) On the Origin of Species argues that organisms fittest for a given environment survive

Social Darwinism: Modification of Darwin's theory to belief that individuals, societies, nations become dominant through strug gle to be the fittest; argument against helping poor or weak

Scientific racism: Belief that races have biological, intellectual, moral characteristics that make white races superior to others; race also defined by nationality (e.g., French race vs. German race)

1899: Englishman H. S. Chamberlain's Foundations of the 19th Century advocates racial purity

Anti-Semitism: Belief that Jewish people are inferior due to race, not just religion (change from previous prejudice)

- 1894-1899: Dreyfus Affair: French Jewish officer Alfred Dreyfus wrongly jailed for treason; legal battle for retrial divides society
- 1896: Austro-Hungarian Theodor Herzl publishes The Jewish State, launching Zionist movement for separate Jewish nation
- 1905: Pogroms (violent attacks on Russian Jews) intensify German philosopher Friedrich Nietzsche (1844–1900) praises irra-

tionality, criticizes morality and scientists, awaits heroic Overman Austrian theorist Sigmund Freud (1856-1939) probes dreams, childhood, unconscious through psychoanalysis

Many male scientists believe that new ideas about evolution and psychology confirm that women are inferior, irrational, domestic Women often still excluded from scientific discussion

1890s-1900s: Scientists Pierre Curie (French) and Marie Curie (Polish-French) discover radioactivity and x-rays

1900s: German physicist Max Planck describes quantum theory 1905: German physicist Albert Einstein publishes special the ory of relativity



THE GREAT WAR 1914-1918

Assassination of Austrian Archduke Franz Ferdinand by Serbian nationalists in 1914 triggers war between Serbia and Austria-Hungary; escalates to the **Great War (World War I)**

War spreads rapidly due to aggressive nationalism, complicated alliance system, German desire to avoid strategic encircle
Austria-Hungary, Germany, Ottoman Empire against

Russia (Serbian supporter), France, Britain

in moving war, devastating countryside

Western Front: French and British soldiers face Germans in

- unmoving line across northern France Germany invades France through Belgium, following **Schlieffen Plan**; German attempt at quick victory fails Fighting settles into muddy, demoralizing trench warfare

1916: Battles at Verdun and the Somme but no decisive victories Eastern Front: Germans and Austro-Hungarians fight Russians

Balkans: British invasion of Ottoman Empire repelled at Gallipoli War technology: Gas, machine guns, barbed wire, artillery, submarines, airplanes; both sides use propaganda, industry, work-

ers (including women) to bolster war effort, mobilize home front 1917: Russia withdraws from war after losing ground and undergoing Russian Revolution; United States joins side of France and Britain, angered by Germany's unrestricted submarine warfare

1918: Germany admits defeat due to domestic upheaval, dwindling supplies; war leaves Europe economically ruined, disillusioned

Treaty of Versailles fails to resolve nationalist and ethnic problems in much of Europe, causes widespread discontentment; War Guilt Clause forces Germany to accept blame and payment for war

RUSSIAN REVOLUTION & USSR

1904-1905: Japan defeats Russia in Russo-Japanese War

- First modern victory of Asian country over European power
- Major Japanese naval victory at Tsushima Straits

1905 Revolution: Promises to reform absolutist government but makes no lasting changes

- Russians upset at loss to Japan Workers and peasants hungry, paid low wages
- **Bloody Sunday:** Soldiers shoot peaceful demonstrators Strikes, protests threaten revolution
- Tsar **Nicholas II** agrees to reforms in **October Manifesto**, but new legislative assembly (**Duma**) proves powerless
- Attempts at agricultural reform are slow

February Revolution (1917): Overthrows tsar, installs moderate provisional government under Aleksandr Kerensky

- World War I going poorly for Russia; food shortages rampant
- Nicholas II seen as inept, swayed by fraud Grigory Rasputin Provisional government stays in war

October Revolution (1917): Sees Communist Bolsheviks overthrow provisional government

- Bolsheviks ("majority") actually minority party
- Bolsheviks promote Marxist revolution led by a small vanguard party; state control of property; peasants, not workers, key to success
- Germany sends exiled Bolshevik leader V. I. Lenin to Russia Russian workers form organizations called soviets (councils), who initiate October Revolution
- 1918: Treaty of Brest-Litovsk: Bolshevik peace with Germany

Civil War (1918–1920): Pits Reds (Bolshevik Communists) against Whites (tsar's supporters)

- U.S., Britain, France, Canada send soldiers against Reds Bolshevik Leon Trotsky organizes Red victory
- 1921: New Economic Policy (NEP) allows some private property

1922: Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) founded

1924: Lenin dies with no clear successor

1927: Joseph Stalin emerges as brutal new Bolshevik leader

- End of NEP; Five-Year Plans focus on building heavy industry Forced farm collectivization creates famine, targets kulaks
- Stalin's rivals exiled, put through rigged show trials, imprisoned
- killed; millions suspected of opposition killed or sent to Siberia Women allowed to become political, economic leaders, but bear family responsibilities

INTERWAR POLITICS

Post-World War I treaties leave problems unsettled

- Four empires collapse: German, Austro-Hungarian, Russian, Ottoman; new countries established from old empires:
- Hungary, Austria, Czechoslovakia, Poland Creation of Yugoslavia combines Serbia with former Austro-Hungarian territories of Croatia, Slovenia, and others
- Border wars continue in eastern Europe New countries supposedly created along ethnic lines, but many contain discontented ethnic minorities
- Eastern European countries try to modernize, educate, collect taxes, but are hampered by political division
- 1920s-1930s: Poland, Hungary, Yugoslavia, Romania become dictatorships; Czechoslovakia remains democratio

Economic problems make capitalism appear weak

- Industry, productivity, and consumption down due to war
- 1923: France occupies Ruhr region of Germany demanding reparations payments; causes rampant inflation

1929: Great Depression begins League of Nations: International organization meant to arbi-

- trate between nations to prevent future war Given no military power to enforce decisions
- Germany initially not allowed to participate 1922: Germany and USSR meet at Rapallo, make economic and strategic agreements
- 1925: Locarno Agreements: Spirit of reconciliation among Germany, Britain, France; all want fresh start
- 1928: Kellogg-Briand Pact: European powers, Japan, and U.S. renounce war

France: Conservatism in 1920s, political instability in 1930s 1934: Right-wing anti-parliamentary riots 1936: Leftist Popular Front government under Léon Blum

gives first paid vacations

Britain: Class tension and troubled victory

- 1916: Irish nationalist uprising
 1921: Creation of Irish Free State leads to two-year civil war
- 1924: First Labour Party government forms
- 1926: Two-week general strike fails 1931: National Government, a coalition of parties, tries to deal with economic depression

FASCISM

Fascism encompasses anti-democratic, anti-communist,

- anti-parliamentary nationalistic political movements Use propaganda, rallies, intimidation, beatings, paramilitary
- groups to gain power and popular support Cult of personality around charismatic leader
- Promise better times, national alory
- Blame outsider groups for problems
- Encourage traditional roles for women, family led by father Nazism (National Socialism): German variant of fasci

ly anti-Semitic and racist; blamed Jews, liberals for WWI loss

- 1922: Mussolini takes power after fascist march on Rome
- 1929: Vatican and Italy make peace in Lateran Accord
- 1935: Italy invades Ethiopia; France, Britain do not act

Germany: Adolf Hitler leads Nazi Party into power

- 1919: Weimar Republic is liberal but weak
- 1925: Hitler's Mein Kampf (My Struggle) outlines Nazi plans
- 1933: Hitler becomes chancellor
- S.S. (protective force) police surveillance expands
- 1935: Nuremberg Laws revoke Jewish citizenship 1938: Kristallnacht: Nazis destroy Jewish stores, synagogues

Spain: Fascist Francisco Franco conquers Spain

1936-1939: Spanish Civil War between fascists and republicans (supported by Communists); USSR aids republicans Germany and Italy aid fascists: Britain, France remain neutral

France and Britain hope appeasement will avoid another war despite fascist aggression; believe Hitler's goals to be limited

WORLD WAR II 1939–1945

Germany acquires territory, claims right to Germanic ethnic lands

- 1935: Hitler rearms, rejecting Treaty of Versailles 1938: Anschluss ("connection"): Germany incorporates Austria
- 1938: Munich Conference: Britain, France allow German occupation of part of Czechoslovakia, hope to prevent war 1939: Molotov-Ribbentrop Pact: Surprise Germany-USSR alliance
- 1939: Germany invades Poland: USSR invades Poland soon afterward, beginning World War II in Europe

1939: Britain and France declare war on Germany but do not fight immediately; so-called Phony War

1940: Germany invades Norway, Denmark; USSR invades Finland

1940: Germany invades France through Low Countries

- France falls quickly, is split in two parts: northern **occupied zone**, southern unoccupied zone under **Vichy** government
- Vichy government collaborates with Germans, sends Jews to concentration camps

1940: Battle of Britain: Germany bombs U.K. but does not invade 1941: Germany invades Greece, Yugoslavia

German allies include Italy, Romania, Hungary, Bulgaria, Japan

1941: Germany breaks pact with USSR, invades by surprise Fighting especially brutal as Germany tries to kill, capture or force out Slavic people to make room for Germans

sistance movements in occupied countries hampered by supply shortages, internal rivalry, German retaliation against civilians; most successful in Yugoslavia under Communist **Josip Tito**

Holocaust: Nazis kill millions of Jews in concentration camps and in mass slaughter; Nazis aim to exterminate all Jews

- Nazis also target gays, Romanies (Gypsies), Slays, dissenters
- Many occupied nations help Germany gather Jews to be killed
- Concentration camps at Auschwitz, Dachau, Bergen-Belsen

1941: Japan bombs Pearl Harbor, Hawaii; U.S. enters war

Allied leaders: U.S. President Franklin D. Roosevelt, U.K. Prime Minister Winston Churchill, unequal partner French General Charles de Gaulle work uneasily with USSR's Stalin



1942: Allies (U.K., U.S.) land in North Africa, Italy

1943: Mussolini falls in Italy

1942–1943: Russians win Battle of Stalingrad; Germans retreat

1943: Allies begin strategic bombing of Germany

1944: D-Day: Allies invade France via Normandy beaches; Germans retreat east

1945: Germany surrenders after Soviet army captures Berlin; Japan surrenders after U.S. drops two atomic bombs

Results of war: Cities leveled, millions killed, millions of displaced people seek new homes, new fear of atomic wa

COLD WAR IN EUROPE

Cold War between U.S. and USSR creates "iron curtain" between Eastern, Western Europe, heightens fear of nuclear war but does not lead to combat in Europe

U.S. policy of containment aims to stop spread of communism; USSR wants buffer states to protect against invasion

1945: United Nations founded to settle international problems and watch over human rights, using military force if necessary

1947: U.S. Marshall Plan aids postwar recovery in Western Europe 1948-1949: USSR blocks roads through East Germany; U.S.

sends aid to West Berlin in Berlin airlift

1949: North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) formed: U.S. Canada, U.K., France, Italy, Portugal, Netherlands, Luxembourg, Denmark, Norway, Iceland

Germany split into Communist German Democratic Republic (east), capitalist German Federal Republic (west); Berlin (located in East Germany) also split into eastern, western zones

1953: Stalin dies: new Soviet leader Nikita Khrushchev denounces Stalin's crimes three years later

1955: Warsaw Pact (Communist East's counterpart to NATO): USSR, Poland, East Germany, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Romania Bulgaria; Communist Yugoslavia and Albania stay independent

Communist countries experience unrest as economies stagnate, political expression is limited, and West continues to er; USSR sends army to keep Eastern bloc under control

- 1956: USSR crushes Hungarian reform movement
- 1961: Concrete Berlin Wall divides city in two 1968: USSR suppresses Alexander Dubcek's Prague Spring
- reform movement in Czechoslovakia
- USSR proclaims right to intervene under Brezhnev Doctrine

DECOLONIZATION

Decline of imperialism due to nationalism, anger against oppression, military withdrawal during World War II, weakness of European nations after World War II

1947: Peaceful demonstrations led by Mohandas Gandhi lead to independence of India and Pakistan from U.K

1947-1954: France fights in vain to prevent independence of Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia

1948: Jews who had left Europe for British-controlled Palestine create Israel as Jewish homeland, excluding Arab Palestinians 1949: Dutch leave East Indies, now independent Indonesia

1954-1962: French war to hold onto Algeria fails

1950s-1970s: Countries in sub-Saharan Africa independent Immigrants from former colonies face racial, religious preju-

ART, IDEAS, & CULTURE 1914-PRESENT

Modernism: Writers challenge expectations, explore streamof-consciousness, change forms of novels

- 1913-1927: In Search of Lost Time by Marcel Proust (French, 1871-1922)
- 1922: Ulysses by James Joyce (Irish, 1882-1941)

 1927: To the Lighthouse by Virginia Woolf (English, 1882–1941) State-controlled socialist realism in USSR promotes Communism

Television provides news, sports, entertainment

Air travel for business and leisure increases

1957: USSR launches first satellite. Sputnik

Filmmakers challenge audiences with innovation: Italian Federica Fellini (La Dolce Vita, 1959), Swedish Ingmar Bergman (The Seventh Seal, 1956), French François Truffaut (400 Blows, 1959)

Existentialism: Writers Jean-Paul Sartre (Nausea, 1938), Albert Camus (The Stranger, 1942) explore absurdity of existence

Feminist and existentialist Simone de Beauvoir's The Second Sex (1949) questions the way gender shapes people's lives

Europeans import, create their own jazz, rock-and-roll, rap music, creating common European culture, use music to criticize society Sports, especially soccer, become international passion for players and spectators

American influence in film, music, clothing, commercialism, fast-food, soda companies, language causes cultural tension African, Asian cultures influence dress, food, music, literature Participation in organized religion, traditional faith drop sharply, but churches continue to influence society

- 1959-1965: Vatican II calls for more non-European, non-North American bishops, Mass in vernacular rather than Latin
- 1978: Election of first Polish pope, John Paul II

Postmodernism: Intellectuals like French Claude Lévi-Strauss argue that language and culture shape society

1990s-2000s: Personal computers and internet access has ten information revolution

SOCIETY & ECONOMY 1945-PRESENT

1946-1964: Baby boom after World War II; life expectancy rises

1964: Birth rate starts to fall, due partly to birth control pill 1945–1970s: Welfare state in U.K. provides health care, social security, better housing

Agricultural production doubles due to mechanization, new fertilizer: peasants nearly disappear

1950s-1960s: Mass production and industrial productivity rise all over Europe, especially in Germany Standard of living rises with sharp increase in indoor plumb-

ing, automobiles, refrigerators More Europeans use credit, banks to manage money, purchases 1970s: Economic growth slows; inflation, stagnation, unem-

ployment, hurt by Arab oil embargo (1973) Global economy spreads: International companies, outsource ing jobs, international economic cooperation and competition Europe tightens immigration policies after 9/11 attacks in U.S.

EUROPEAN UNION

After World War II, Europeans aim for economic power common defense, diplomatic leverage against U.S. and USSR through cooperation via European Union

1951: European Coal and Steel Community begins economic cooperation among Western European natio

1957: France, Italy, West Germany, Belgium, Luxembourg, Netherlands form European Economic Community (EEC)

- EEC member nations end tariffs and trade restrictions 1973–1986: U.K., Ireland, Denmark, Spain, Portugal, Greece join
- 1993: Maastricht Treaty plans for common currency, the Euro; EEC renamed European Union (EU)

1995: Austria, Finland, Sweden join EU

1999: Euro unites EU economies; goes into circulation in 2002

2002: EU begins work on constitution; member nations coop erate in economic planning and open border crossing but retain their boundaries, languages, culture, laws

2003: EU has no united foreign policy; U.K. joins U.S. in invasion of Iraq against protests of France, Germany, Russia

2004: Ten nations join EU, including Poland, Czech Republic

NEW POLITICAL MOVEMENTS

Christian Democratic parties promote social reform, democ racv. anti-communism

1968: Students worldwide protest against Vietnam War, overcrowded schools, so-called authoritarianism of older generation French students, workers cooperate briefly in 1968, causing

general strike, national standstill, leading to fall of de Gaulle 1968: Revived feminism encourages women to take control of lives, fight for equal pay, equal opportunities, reproductive rights 1970s-present: Separatists use terrorism in Northern Ireland

1975: Franco dies; King Juan Carlos I commits to democracy

(U.K.), Basque country (Spain), Chechnya (Russia)

1979: Conservative Margaret Thatcher, first female prime minister of U.K., cuts government spending

1980s-present: Green Parties promote environmental causes 1980s-present: Far-right nationalistic parties gain support by blaming immigrants for economic downturn

1999: Nazi sympathizer Jorg Heider elected Austrian P.M.

 2002: Anti-Muslim National Front party candidate Jean-Marie Le Pen finishes second in French presidential election

1990s-present: Protests against globalization (corporations, banks, environmental threats, unregulated labor) gain support

END OF THE COLD WAR

1979-1989: Invasion of Afghanistan demoralizes Soviet army 1980-1981: Polish trade union Solidarity, under Lech Walesa, becomes first non-Communist union; Communist Party allows

candidate choice in elections, but martial law ends experiment 1980s: Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev pushes reform through glasnost (openness), perestroika (economic restructuring)

Nationalist movements, economic crisis, calls for democracy, arms race with U.S. contribute to fall of Communism

1989: Solidarity gains support in Poland, wins elections: first non-Communist prime minister since 1945 1989: Thousands of East Germans emigrate, leading to fall of

Berlin Wall; Germany reunifies in 1990 Communist governments topple in Czechoslovakia, Romania,

Hungary, Poland, Bulgaria, Albania; USSR does not intervene 1990: Lithuania declares independence from USSR

1991: Attempted conservative coup in USSR fails: USSR breaks up: Gorbachev resigns; Boris Yeltsin becomes president of Russia

1993: Velvet Revolution: Czechoslovakia splits peacefully into Czech Republic, led by playwright Václav Havel, and Slovakia

- Yugoslavia splits, falls into chaotic civil war, ethnic cleansing 1991: Slovenia, Croatia, Macedonia declare independenc 1992–1995: Bosnia-Herzegovina declares independence;
- civil war follows; belated NATO intervention ends conflict 1998: Yugoslavian Serb majority forces ethnic Albanians from Kosovo province; NATO bombs Serb targets in 1999
- 2000: Serbian leader Slobodan Mild 2000: Serbian leader Slobodan Milosevic overthrown, turned over to International War Crimes Tribunal at The Hague

2003: Remaining Yugoslavian provinces renamed Serbia Montenegro



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