

AP[®] EUROPEAN HISTORY

Study Guide Pack





THE ITALIAN RENAISSANCE

The Renaissance (or “rebirth”) was inspired by a revival of interest in **classical** texts from ancient Greece and Rome, as well as a shift toward a more secular and individualistic way of thinking. Renaissance education was defined by **humanism**, which emphasized the study of classical history and literature as the foundation for education. **Civic humanism**, as seen in the writings of Machiavelli and Castiglione, specifically prepared young men for careers in public service. Increased trade and advancements in banking and bookkeeping created wealth, and new commercial elites, such as the **Medici**, became patrons of the great Renaissance artists.

Francesco Petrarca, known as **Petrarch**, was a fourteenth-century Italian poet who developed an interest in classical text from ancient Rome. He journeyed through Italy in search of lost classical texts, and was able to recover many of the writings of the ancient Roman philosopher Cicero. Petrarch is known as the “Father of Humanism” for his role in reviving scholarly interest in classical studies.

RENAISSANCE ART

Renaissance art focused on naturalistic portrayals of human subjects in imitation of the classical art of ancient Greece and Rome. Renaissance paintings placed great emphasis on balance, the use of linear perspective to give a three-dimensional appearance, and bright colors. Scenes from classical literature were favorite subjects of Renaissance artists, showing the influence of humanistic studies on Renaissance art. This humanistic influence is especially evident in Raphael's famous painting, *The School of Athens*, which has the famous Greek philosophers, Plato and Aristotle, in the center of a congregation of philosophers from classical antiquity.



THE NORTHERN RENAISSANCE

Following the invention of the printing press, interest in humanistic studies spread to Northern Europe. Northern Renaissance writers, such as **Erasmus** and **Thomas More**, began producing their own printed works that were inspired by classical authors. Northern Renaissance writers were heavily influenced by **Christian humanism**, producing works that were more focused on Christian principles and social reform than Italian Renaissance authors, who were more individualistic and secular in their approach.

Erasmus of Rotterdam, a Dutch humanist scholar, was one of the best-known proponents of Christian humanism. In his book, *The Praise of Folly*, Erasmus used the Gospels to criticize several Catholic Church practices, such as the wealth of the bishops. In the Gospels, the Apostles were poor. If the bishops sought to be like the Apostles (as they claimed to be their successors), they should be poor as well. In this way, Erasmus used a classical text in order to advocate for social reform.





NEW MONARCHIES

During the Middle Ages, monarchs were not very powerful and often had to defer to the power of the Church and the nobility. In the fifteenth century, monarchs in England, France, and Spain began to centralize power by collecting taxes directly and exercising more influence on the religious life of their subjects. These **new monarchs** set the stage for absolute monarchies that rule much of Europe two centuries later.

The marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella unified the Christian kingdoms of Aragon and Castile in Spain. They styled themselves as the “Catholic monarchs.” In 1492, Ferdinand and Isabella completed the Spanish Reconquista when they conquered Granada, the last Muslim kingdom in Spain. They financed the war partly through a “crusade tax,” which brought more money into the royal treasury. After conquering Granada, the Catholic monarchs proclaimed that all of their subjects would be Catholic and that Muslims and Jews would be expelled from the country if they refused to convert. They authorized and supported the Spanish Inquisition partly to make sure that these **conversos** did not lapse into heresy.

TIMELINE

- **1341** Petrarch is crowned as poet laureate in Rome in recognition for writing *Africa*, an epic poem about the Roman general Scipio Africanus.
- **1450** A vernacular German poem is printed on Johannes Gutenberg’s printing press.
- **1453** The Byzantine capital of Constantinople falls to the Ottoman Turks, impacting trade routes and leading Greek scholars to flee to Italy with classical texts.
- **1492** The Kingdom of Granada falls to Spanish forces, completing the Spanish *Reconquista*. In the same year, Ferdinand and Isabella expelled Muslims and Jews from their kingdom and commissioned Columbus’ first voyage.
- **1511** *The Praise of Folly*, Erasmus’ popular satirical essay, is printed for the first time.

With the wealth that new monarchs gained from centralizing tax collection, they were able to finance voyages of exploration and the development of new navigational technologies.

CAUSATION

The voyages of exploration generated wealth through colonization and trade, which increased the power of Western European monarchs.

THE AGE OF EXPLORATION

In the fifteenth century, new navigational technologies, such as the magnetic compass and Mercator projection maps, made it possible for Europeans to sail beyond the Mediterranean Sea and the coastline of Europe. After the Fall of Constantinople, European monarchs desired to find a nautical trade route to Asia. The Portuguese sought to sail east around Africa, while Ferdinand and Isabella financed Christopher Columbus’ voyage to find a westerly route to the Indies. Upon discovering the New World, Europeans conquered native populations using new weapons technologies, such as firearms.

The **Columbian Exchange** is the most important legacy of the Age of Exploration. While Columbus was not the first European to find the New World, his voyages began a permanent exchange of people, goods, food, animals, ideas, and diseases between the Old and New Worlds. Europeans introduced livestock in the Americas and returned to Europe with tomatoes, potatoes, and tobacco. A lack of immunity to European diseases had a devastating effect on native populations. Spanish and French missionaries spread the Christian religion throughout North and South America.





THE REFORMATION

The Reformation was inspired by a desire to rectify the problems in the late medieval Catholic Church, as well as the desire to reinterpret Christian doctrines. The Catholic Church was criticized for its accumulation of wealth from practices such as simony, which was the purchase of church offices, and the sale of **indulgences**, which were papal pardons intended to reduce or even eliminate punishment in the afterlife for sins committed while alive.

Martin Luther was a sixteenth-century Augustinian monk who challenged the Catholic Church, beginning with **The 95 Theses**, which were a list of reasons why indulgences should not be sold. His challenge to Church practices led him to dispute the very doctrines that guided the sixteenth-century Catholic Church, especially those that restricted ordinary people's access to sacred scripture or to God. He developed the idea of **sola scriptura**, which means "only scripture" as a way to argue that people only needed the Bible, not Catholic religious figures or practices.

BAROQUE ART

Baroque art, which used a highly ornate and extravagant style, was encouraged by the Catholic Church in order to oppose the austerity of Protestant art and architecture. Baroque art placed great emphasis on grandeur, sharp contrasts, and detail in order to inspire an emotional response in the viewer of awe and religious devotion. Baroque artists mostly painted religious subjects, which contrasted with the radical reformation's support of iconoclasm. The influence of emotion and the desire to depict religious figures is especially evident in Bernini's *The Ecstasy of Saint Teresa*, which dramatizes St. Teresa's account of a highly emotional visit from an angel.



WARS OF RELIGION

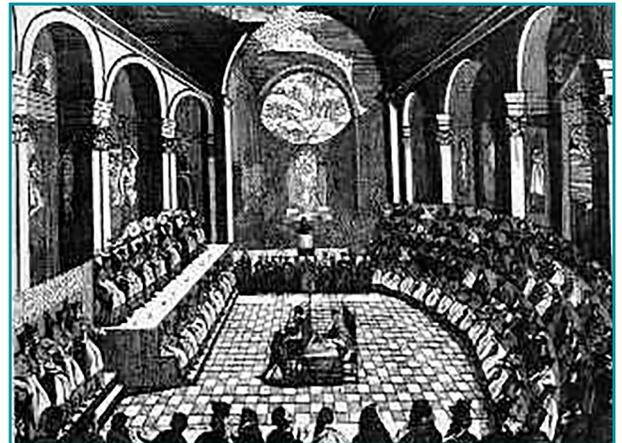
Interest in reforming the Catholic Church spread rapidly after Martin Luther's initial challenge, due largely to the ability to disseminate ideas with the **printing press**. **John Calvin** wrote the **Institutes of the Christian Religion**, which rejected Luther's approach of incremental reform in favor of an entirely new system of systematic theology. His approach gained followers among the Huguenots in France, the separatists in England, the Presbyterians in Scotland, and most of the inhabitants of the Netherlands.

In some cases, the conflict between Reformers and the followers of the Catholic Church led to armed conflict. In France, a dynastic power struggle among several noble families with different religious allegiances led to the **French Wars of Religion**. During the **St. Bartholomew's Day** massacre, Catholic mobs killed thousands of Protestants over a period of weeks. The conflict ended when **Henry IV of France**, a former Huguenot, converted to Catholicism and was crowned king. He issued the **Edict of Nantes**, which allowed religious pluralism.



THE CATHOLIC REFORMATION

The ideas of the Protestant Reformation prompted the Catholic Church to begin an internal process of reform that culminated in the **Council of Trent**. In the **Catholic Reformation**, also called the **Counter Reformation**, the Church implemented new practices meant to curb the worst excesses of the medieval church, while reaffirming its theological interpretation of scripture. Influenced by the **humanist movement**, the Church began to require a higher level of literacy among priests. The Church also placed limits on the sale of indulgences, eliminated the chronic “absenteeism” of medieval bishops, and stopped the sale of church offices.



Despite these practical and procedural reforms, the Catholic Church did not fundamentally alter its interpretation of Christian doctrine. It explicitly rejected Luther’s idea of **salvation by faith alone**, reaffirming its doctrinal position that salvation was achieved through a combination of **faith and good works**. It also reaffirmed the importance of the church hierarchy for Catholic believers, especially the ultimate authority of the Pope. The **Jesuit** order, founded by **Ignatius of Loyola**, was developed in order to support the Catholic Church in spiritual warfare against the Protestant reformers.

TIMELINE

- **1517** Martin Luther posts The 95 Theses on the door of Wittenberg Cathedral.
- **1521** Pope Leo X excommunicates Martin Luther when he refuses to recant. He is protected from punishment by members of the Germany nobility.
- **1534** Ignatius of Loyola founds the Society of Jesus in order to revive and spread Catholic teachings.
- **1566** The Council of Trent issues a Catechism that repudiates the theology of Protestantism while reforming some of its more controversial practices.
- **1598** The Edict of Nantes allows French Protestants to have legal, social, and economic protection with the Catholic nation.

The Reformation challenged Catholic Church's practices and interpretation of religious doctrine, which reduced the authority of the Catholic church throughout Europe.

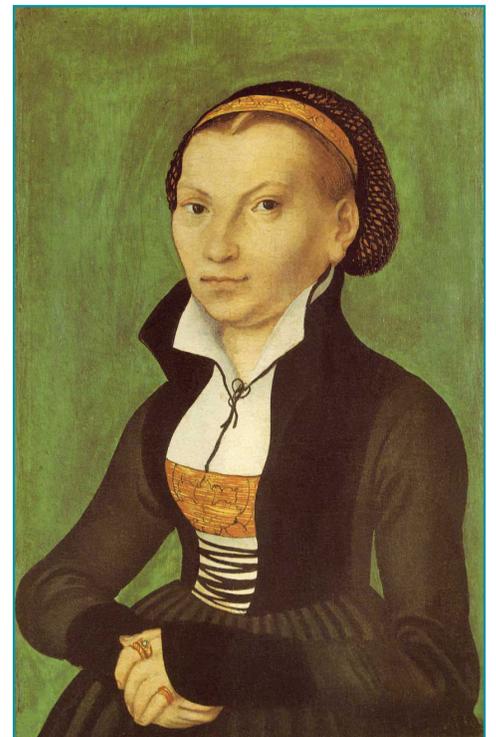
CAUSATION

Guided by new ideas of the Protestant Reformation, nations throughout Europe began to reevaluate their civic governments and challenge the power of monarchs.

REFORMATION SOCIETY

The Reformation’s challenge to existing norms that started as a debate over religious doctrine led to a broader reorganization of society. Both the Reformation, and the **Renaissance** prior, had challenged women’s roles in the family, church, and society. Martin Luther married **Katherine Von Bora**, an educated former nun, in opposition to the Catholic idea of a celibate clergy. His marriage provided a model for a **Protestant family** in which the men and women engaged in separate, but complementary tasks, in order to serve God. Some radical reformers, such as the **Quakers**, argued that women should be ordained and occupy positions of religious authorities.

The Reformation also changed the scope of authority for many **civic governments** because challenges to the Catholic hierarchy shifted the task of regulating public morals from Church to state. Many cities responded by developing policies regarding prostitution, begging, public drunkenness, and other offenses that were considered immoral. Offenders were punished through rituals of public humiliation, including the use of stocks, public whipping, or branding.





ABSOLUTISM

When **Louis XIV of France** ascended to the throne at the age of four, the French nobles immediately began to plot how to overthrow him during the **Fronde**, a series of civil wars in France. When Louis XIV began actively ruling as an adult, he launched a concerted program to limit the power of the nobility. He moved the capital to **Versailles**, diluted the ranks of the nobility by selling **titles of nobility**, and ensured that the military answered directly to the king. In doing so, he undermined the actual power of the nobility by making political and social privileges dependent on the will of the king.

The example of the French led other European monarchs, especially in Prussia and Russia, to begin to consolidate power and rule as unquestionable **absolute monarchs**. These rulers typically justified their claim to supreme power by **divine right** and argued that any attempt by their subjects to limit their power, through a **parliament** or a **constitution**, could be interpreted as a challenge against God.

DUTCH GOLDEN AGE PAINTING

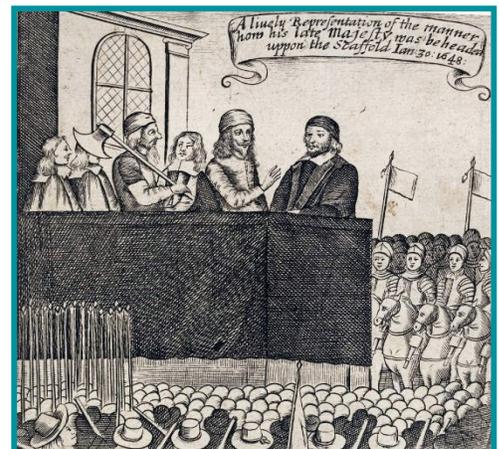
The art of the Dutch Golden Age was dominated by genre paintings focused on either depictions of real life scenes or illustrations of Dutch adages and moral lessons. Dutch Golden Age painters often depicted individual components realistically, but combined the different elements to make a scene that could not have reflected an actual moment. One of the strongest examples of this combination of naturalism and moralizing is Jan Steen's painting, *The World Turned Upside*, which includes realistic portrayals of a Dutch home and the material goods of a wealthy Dutch family in order to provide a moralistic treatment on the danger of wealth.



CONSTITUTIONALISM

Charles I of England attempted to begin his reign in 1625 as an absolute monarch, which led to a contentious relationship with Parliament as well as conflict throughout the country. The Parliament was supported by the **gentry**, who were large landowners, and religious dissenters like the **Puritans** and the **English Calvinists**. The political ideas of **John Locke**, who argued that government should be based on a social contract between the people and the government, were popular among the Parliamentarians.

These conflicts escalated into the **English Civil War**. Following a short interregnum period after Charles I was beheaded and a series of short-ruling monarchs, **William III and Mary II** in the Netherlands were invited to rule as joint monarchs in the **Glorious Revolution**. In order to take the throne, they signed a **Bill of Rights** that limited the power of the monarchs by establishing the Parliament as the governing body of England that was not subject to undue influence by the monarchy.



THE DUTCH GOLDEN AGE

During the seventeenth century, the Netherlands rapidly rose to a position of economic, political, and technological prominence. Under the **Dutch Republic**, which began as a revolt against the Catholic **Habsburg** ruler **Philip II of Spain**, various counties came together to form an independent nation. The resulting **oligarchy** was united by a shared language and some shared economic interests, especially as related to trade and the maritime economy.

The Dutch Golden Age was fueled by a combination of the **Protestant work ethic**, cheap energy sources in the form of windmills

and peat, and the birth of corporate finance in the Netherlands. In 1602 the **Dutch East India Company** became the first multinational corporation that was financed by the purchase of shares on a stock market. Selling stock allowed for Dutch trading companies to raise capital and minimize the financial risk involved in trade with the Far East. The Dutch East India Company dominated European trade in spice, importing spices in bulk and reaping tremendous profits for its shareholders.



TIMELINE

- **1648** The Dutch Republic gains its independence from Spanish rule.
- **1649** Charles I of England is found guilty of treason as a result of failing to heed Parliament, and is beheaded.
- **1682** Louis XIV of France moves the seat of government from Paris to his palace at Versailles in order to exercise total control over the lives of the nobles.
- **1688** The new English monarchs William and Mary agree to be bound by a Bill of Rights that limits their power before taking the throne.
- **1776** Adam Smith publishes *Wealth of Nations* to criticize the economic philosophy of mercantilism.

COMPARISON

Absolute monarchs and constitutional monarchs approached the question of sovereignty differently.

In absolutist states, the sovereignty resides with the monarch.

VS.

In constitutional states, the sovereignty resides with the parliament.

MERCANTILISM

From the sixteenth to the eighteenth century, European nations followed an economic philosophy called **mercantilism**, which was based on the idea that a nation should produce as much of its own goods as possible and limit **imports** from other countries. By doing so, mercantilist countries attempted to increase the wealth of their own nations by preserving their national revenue in the form of **bullion**. Despite the objections of economists like **Adam Smith**, European nations expanded their colonial empires and developed **plantations** in their **colonies** in order to cultivate raw materials. These materials were developed into finished goods in the manufacturing sectors of European nations.

Mercantilism could serve the interest of absolute monarchs. In France, **Louis XIV** and his finance minister **Jean-Baptiste Colbert** turned the country into a manufacturing power by employing a mercantilist economic approach. Through effective use of the **putting out system**, Louis XIV and Jean-Baptiste Colbert were able to establish the reputation of France as a manufacturer of luxury goods. They were also able to fund Louis XIV's extravagant expenditures, such as **Versailles**, that enhanced his reputation as an absolute monarch.



THE SCIENTIFIC REVOLUTION

After 1648, Scientists began to challenge the teachings of the Church, as well as the ideas of **Ptolemy**, **Aristotle**, **Galen**, and other ancient authorities that had gained prominence during **Renaissance Humanism**. Participants in the **Scientific Revolution** used **empiricism**, the idea that truth should be based on observation and experimentation, and **rationalism**, the idea that any scientific ideas should be based on reason rather than emotion, to form their conclusions using the **Scientific Method**.

Galileo used the observational techniques of the Scientific Method, in combination with the **Renaissance** era ideas of **Copernicus**, to argue for **heliocentrism**. His ideas led to immediate conflict with the Catholic Church and the **Inquisition**, which accused him of **heresy**. He was forced to recant before spending the rest of his life under house arrest.

Other scientific thinkers during the Scientific Revolution also faced challenges from the Catholic Church, including **William Harvey**, who broke the Church's ban on autopsies to study the human body, and **René Descartes**, whose defense of deductive reasoning landed his book on the Church's **Index of Prohibited Books**.



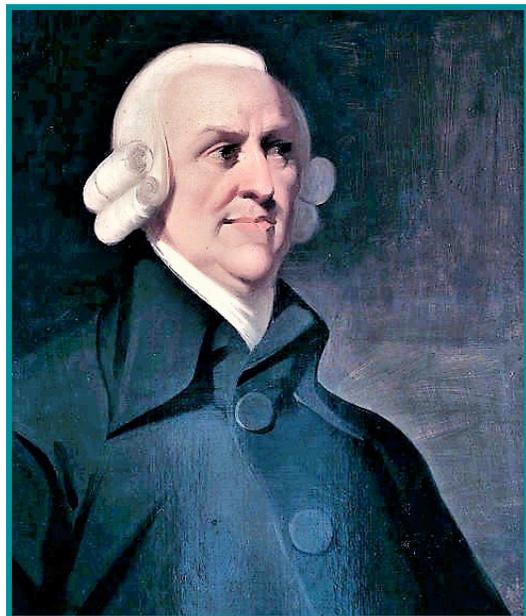
NEOCLASSICISM

Enlightenment ideas about rationality and seriousness influenced the development of Neoclassicism in art and architecture. Both art and architecture drew inspiration from the art of classical antiquity. The visual arts were distinguished through the use of clean lines, strong shading, and the absence of brush strokes in paintings. Neoclassical architecture, such as the Church of La Madeleine in Paris, France, featured columns and friezes that emphasized classical themes, symmetry, and decorative garlands.

THE ENLIGHTENMENT

Inspired by new innovations in astronomy, anatomy, and mathematics, many intellectuals in the eighteenth century started to apply the guiding principles of the Scientific Revolution to questions about society and human institutions. Many Enlightenment **philosophes**, such as **John Locke** and **Jean-Jacques Rousseau**, focused on the idea of the **social contract**. This was a way of thinking about the relationship between political leaders and the people they ruled that posited that rational governments should respect the will of the people as a political force, rather than simply allowing the ruler to have unchecked power by claiming the **divine right of kings**.

Adam Smith, another Enlightenment thinker, challenged the idea of **mercantilism** by suggesting that a more rational way of promoting the economy of nations would be to foster free trade. He argued that **economic liberalism**, defined as a free market economy, would ultimately promote economic growth if each participant in the system was allowed to act in their own **self-interest**.



THE ENLIGHTENMENT AND GOVERNMENT



Government institutions were not immune from the intellectual challenges of the Enlightenment. Many states, especially those in the eastern and central Europe began to explore ways of combining some Enlightenment ideas with hereditary monarchy. **Enlightened absolutist monarchs**, such as **Frederick the Great of Prussia** developed policies that reflected Enlightenment ideas, such as his decision to allow **religious tolerance** towards minorities in his territory. As a result of the power vacuum that resulted after the **Holy Roman Empire** declined after the **Peace of Westphalia**, Prussia with its enlightened monarchy took a more active role in European affairs.

In western Europe, the ideas of the Enlightenment led to more direct challenges to the structure of national governments and concepts of hereditary social authority. Resentment against hereditary monarchy began to lead to increasing **secularization** and a gradual loss of authority for the Church and the hereditary nobility. In France, this discontent over hereditary authority would become a long term cause of the **French Revolution**.

TIMELINE

- **1632** Galileo publishes "Dialogue on the Two Chief Systems of the World," which used scientific observation to argue that the earth rotated around the sun.
- **1648** The Peace of Westphalia ends the Thirty Years War and leads to the rise of Prussia in European politics.
- **1689** Locke publishes his "Second Treatise on Government," which argues that governments derive their power through the consent of the governed.
- **1740** Frederick the Great begins his reign in the Kingdom of Prussia. He attempts to implement many Enlightenment ideas while ruling as an absolute monarch.
- **1776** Adam Smith challenges the principles of mercantilism in "The Wealth of Nations."

The Scientific Revolution developed a new way of understanding the world by placing an emphasis on observation and rationality, which led to advances in astronomy, anatomy, mathematics, and philosophy.

CAUSATION

Guided by new methods of the Scientific Revolution, Enlightenment philosophes began to reevaluate the political structures and social values of European nations.

18th-CENTURY SOCIETY AND CULTURE

In the **British Agricultural Revolution**, new agricultural technologies meant that more food could be produced with less effort. This led to a chain reaction where the population expanded, and the new availability of healthy food, in conjunction with the development of the inoculation against **smallpox**, led to overall higher levels of health and higher life expectancies. The British Agricultural Revolution also displaced many people from rural areas who were forced to seek increased economic opportunity in urban settings. Cities offered economic opportunities for the people displaced



by agricultural technology, but also created social challenges for new urbanites and city governments that needed to address challenges of communal living and urban health and sanitation. Intellectual life in the cities centered around the **coffeehouses**, where people gathered together to discuss Enlightenment ideas.

With Europeans living longer overall, and infant mortality decreasing as a result of new scientific innovations, Europeans began to dedicate more time and resources to domestic family life. **Jean-Jacques Rousseau**, notable for his Enlightenment ideas in political theory, also developed ideas about the education of children that encouraged free thinking and reduced rote memorization in the classroom.

EUROPEAN COMPETITION IN THE 18th CENTURY



In the 18th century, intellectual movements like **capitalism** helped European countries expand their commercial systems into a worldwide **network of trade**. Commercial rivalries developed among European states, with much of the conflict rooted in the question of who should control lucrative trade routes. After much diplomatic and economic maneuvering, the Dutch gained almost complete control of the East Indies and Britain extended its dominion into India.

France challenged the growing power of the British Empire in a series of conflicts fought both in Europe and in the Americas. The tension between France and England led to armed conflict in the **French and Indian War** and reached their height in the **Seven Years' War**. France also provided substantial financial and military aid to American colonists as they rebelled against British rule in the **American Revolution**. Even with the loss of its colonies in North America, Britain was able to maintain an empire so vast that it was said that “the sun never set on the British Empire.”

ROMANTICISM

The rise of Romanticism was a response to the emphasis on rationality in the Enlightenment. It glorified emotion and individualism by lifting up natural and aesthetic experiences. In literary arts, William Wordsworth and Samuel Coleridge's text *Lyrical Ballads* provides a clear expression of Romantic ideas by arguing that poetry was the “spontaneous overflow of powerful feelings.” A similar emphasis on emotion is also seen in Caspar David Friedrich's painting *Wanderer Above the Sea of Fog*, in which a man gazes down from a mountain top into a sea of fog, alone and lost in his feelings.



THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

The French Revolution exploded in the 18th century as a result of a combination of long-simmering tensions among the French social classes and short-term fiscal and economic crises that upset the delicate balance necessary to maintain peace among the population. **Enlightenment** ideas questioned the **ancien régime** that categorized society into three groups—clergy, nobility, and everyone else—that were all given equal political power despite their disparate populations. When France was forced to raise taxes to compensate for its expenditures helping American colonists, the additional taxes were too much for the population to bear. The **French Revolution** began when the bourgeoisie forced the French monarch to accept limitations and become a **constitutional monarchy**.

The initial liberal phase of the French Revolution established a constitution, abolished hereditary noble privilege, and nationalized the Catholic Church, but these attempts at reform were quickly supplanted by a more radical phase dominated by the **Jacobins** and the **sans-culottes**. The Jacobin leader **Maximilien Robespierre** led a government that used violence, especially through summary executions by **guillotine**, to eliminate any person associated with pre-Revolutionary French ideas. The “Reign of Terror” of Robespierre lasted approximately five years before it was replaced by the **Directory** and the subsequent rise of Napoleon Bonaparte.





NAPOLEON BONAPARTE

Napoleon Bonaparte emerged as leader of France out of the turmoil of the French Revolution, quickly rising from his role as a military leader in the **French Revolutionary Wars** to becoming **Emperor of the French** in 1804. The Revolution had broken down the traditional institutions of France, and in doing so it had destabilized the sense of what it meant to be part of the French nation. Napoleon rose to power by claiming that the new nation emerging from the revolution could live up to the revolution's ideas of equality, fraternity, and liberty.

As emperor, he used his unchallengeable authority to impose a series of social and cultural reforms. He aligned himself with the Catholic Church but followed the pattern of other **enlightened absolutist monarchs** by allowing **religious tolerance**. He implemented the **Napoleonic Codes**, which applied a single set of laws that applied to all members of society equality. Although Napoleon was almost universally opposed by the European aristocracy, he was able to use his popularity within France and the strength of the French military to dominate European politics.

TIMELINE

- 1763** The Seven Years' War comes to an end, leading Britain to take on an increased role in European politics.
- 1789** The French Revolution begins. The initial liberal stages of the revolution are followed by more radical and violent stages.
- 1794** Maximilien Robespierre was executed, ending the "Reign of Terror" in the French Revolution.
- 1804** Napoleon Bonaparte declares himself Emperor of the French. He immediately establishes the Napoleonic Code.
- 1815** The Congress of Vienna concludes and imposes a conservative balance of power across Europe through the mutual agreement of the Great Powers of Austria, Britain, France, Russian, and Prussia.

Ideas about empire, rooted in competition over global markets, combined with long-term and short-term factors to destabilize France's role in Europe. Within France, Enlightenment ideas motivated the French Revolution, which included both liberal and radical phases.

CAUSATION

Napoleon Bonaparte imposed a sense of order on the French after the French Revolution, but he was seen as a threat by other European nations who conspired to overthrow him and develop a more favorable balance of power at the Congress of Vienna.

THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA

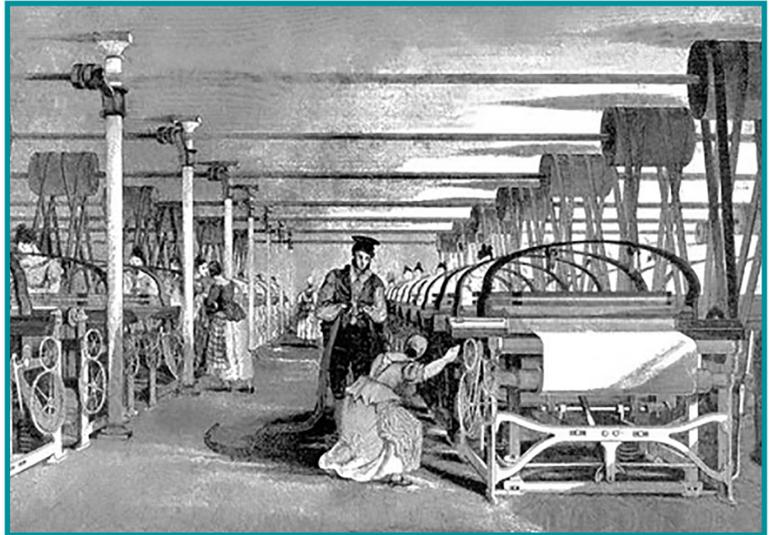
The political upheaval of the French Revolution, in combination with its ideas of social equality and the abolition of hereditary privilege, was incredibly threatening to surrounding European nations. Many European leaders felt that ideas of equality enshrined in French documents like the **Declaration of the Rights of Man** and the advocacy for women's rights by French revolutionaries like **Olympe de Gouges** could permanently upset established political institutions throughout Europe.

When Napoleon was finally defeated, the European aristocracy seized the opportunity to create a new European order at the **Congress of Vienna** under the conservative leadership of **Prince Metternich of Austria**. The **Age of Metternich**, which ran from the end of the Napoleonic Wars in 1815 to the start of the revolutions of 1848, saw the development of a conservative ethos across Europe that opposed revolutionary movements, attempted to weaken the forces of nationalism, and used the political authority of Prussia, Russia, Britain, France, and Austria to maintain the balance of power. The balance of power established at the Congress of Vienna led to an unprecedented stability in European politics for several decades.



THE FIRST INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

The Industrial Revolution developed in two stages: The First Industrial Revolution occurred from 1750 to 1830, and the Second Industrial Revolution covered the span from 1870 to 1914. The First Industrial Revolution began in Britain due to both natural factors, such as an availability of coal, iron, and rivers, and human factors, such as a political climate that was more favorable to **property rights** and the presence of surplus labor as a result of the **British Agricultural Revolution**. The First Industrial Revolution, which was primarily focused on textiles, began with the **cottage industry** before moving to a more formalized system of production within factories. These advances were made possible by the invention of the **water frame** and the **steam engine**. Large populations moved from rural areas to urban areas, such as **Manchester**, to work in factories.



In continental Europe, industrialization was slower, but less socially disruptive. In France, industrialization happened with more direct government support but was much more gradual. Germany, while initially slow to industrialize, turned into an industrial leader under **Bismarck**.



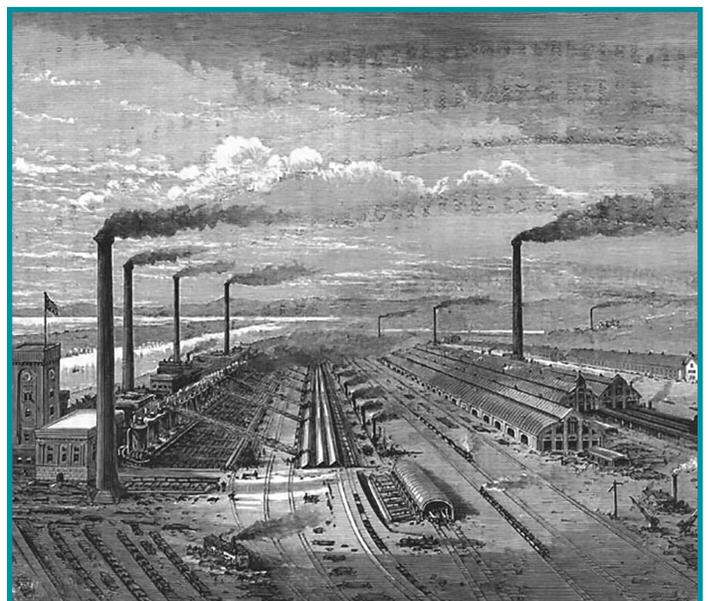
REALISM

Realism emerged in the Second Industrial Revolution as a response to Romanticism's emphasis on emotionality, often to the exclusion of depicting real events. Realism focused on depicting life in all of its imperfections. It found fertile material in the harsh social realities of the industrialization and its ensuing questioning of the social order. Realist art was dominated by the work of Gustave Courbet, Jean Francois Millet, and Honore Daumier. In Gustave Courbet's self-portrait, *Le Désespéré*, the artist stares wild-eyed at the viewer, demonstrating both raw emotion and an attempt to depict the subject in a realistic manner.

THE SECOND INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

In the Second Industrial Revolution, which occurred from 1870 to 1914, production moved from a focus on textile production to a focus on the mass production of **steel** and machinery. The mass production of steel, made possible by the discovery of the **Bessemer process**, led to infrastructure advances in **railroads**. In turn, railroads led to more fully integrated economic systems where manufactured goods could be transported across greater distances. Industrial urban centers developed around railroad hubs, but the resulting cities were often densely populated and rife with social problems and health concerns.

During the Second Industrial Revolution, developments in communication and transportation also affected the economic landscape. The creation of the **internal combustion engine**, the **telegraph**, the **telephone**, and the **radio** created new industries, while also enhancing the quality of life for many people. Many of the technologies developed in the Second Industrial Revolution would be used in World War One.



REACTIONS AND REVOLUTIONS

The First Industrial Revolution took place against the backdrop of the **Age of Metternich**, which was a time of conservative political thought across Europe. The balance of power was maintained through the **Concert of Europe**, an alliance system that attempted to maintain the status quo by suppressing **nationalism** and **liberalism**. Liberalism, which advocated for limited regulation and individual rights, rose in popularity as the industrial revolutions progressed.

Conservatives were able to maintain their authority in European diplomatic affairs up until 1848, when a series of revolutions challenged the underlying philosophies of the Concert of Europe. The revolutions in France, Italy, and the German states were ultimately unsuccessful in achieving their broader goals, but they did contribute to the breakdown of the Concert of Europe and the general decline of conservatism across Europe.

Even countries that did not experience revolutions, such as Britain, were forced to address the political trends by passing several parliamentary reforms that expanded **sufrage** and improved conditions for the working class.



Industrialization challenged traditional models of production and the traditional order of society. The rise of the bourgeoisie led to class consciousness, a rise in class conflict, and the popularity of liberal ideas of individual rights and popular sovereignty.

CAUSATION

The rise of liberalism led to direct challenges of the conservatism embodied in the Concert of Europe, as well as social reform movements and institutional responses to address the worst excess of industrialization.

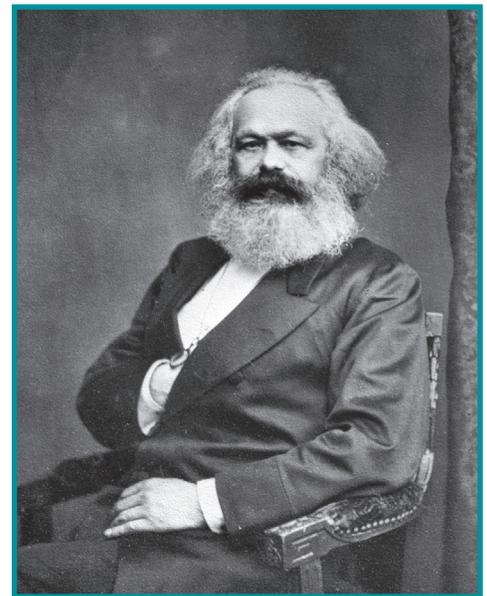
TIMELINE

- **1781** James Watts patents an improvement to the steam engine. The steam engine becomes the main power source of industrial factories.
- **1824** Great Britain passes legislation to allow for legal trade unions.
- **1833** The 1833 Factory Act in Britain passes. This marks the first attempt to regulate child labor in textile factories.
- **1848** Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels publish *The Communist Manifesto*, which critiques the class conflict that arises out of capitalism.
- **1856** Henry Bessemer invents the Bessemer process, which allows for the mass production of steel.

19TH CENTURY SOCIAL REFORMS

The migration of large populations from rural to urban areas led to the development of a **class consciousness**, as a wide gap emerged between the **bourgeoisie**, who owned the factories, and the **proletariat**, who worked in the factories. The rising influence of the bourgeoisie challenged the traditional authority of landed gentry and nobility, while also leading to the development of a social underclass of workers who labored in poorly regulated conditions. **Socialists**, such as **Karl Marx**, argued that these social divisions would eventually lead to the destruction of the economic system.

The working conditions in the factories slowly improved through the work of labor unions to advocate for laws that reduced the workday to ten hours, improved working conditions for women and children, and regulated the rights of factory owners over their workers. Cities responded by using public health campaigns, police forces, and modernized urban infrastructure to transform unsafe and overcrowded urban housing. Liberals argued that the social challenges of industrialization could best be addressed through **popular sovereignty** and **universal male suffrage**.





NATIONALISM

In the 19th century, European politics were dominated by the idea of the **nation**, which was understood to be a community bounded together by a shared language and culture. Loyalty to the nation was encouraged through **romantic idealism**, **liberal reforms**, **political reunification** and, in the case of **Zionism**, an attempt to counteract the growing **anti-Semitism** of Europe.

In Italy, ideas of nationalism motivated a failed attempt to unify the various principalities in 1848. Although that revolution for *Risorgimento* failed, it inspired **Giuseppe Garibaldi** and the **Count of Cavour**, two Italian reformers interested in developing a cohesive Italy, to put aside their differences in favor of unifying the peninsula. In Germany, **Otto von Bismarck** used **realpolitik**, a political philosophy that emphasized practicality along with some

ideas of nationalism, liberalism, and socialism, to unify the disparate and warring states left over from the dissolution of the Holy Roman Empire. Through “blood and iron,” Bismarck developed a unified Germany, as well as the alliance system that would eventually lead to World War I.



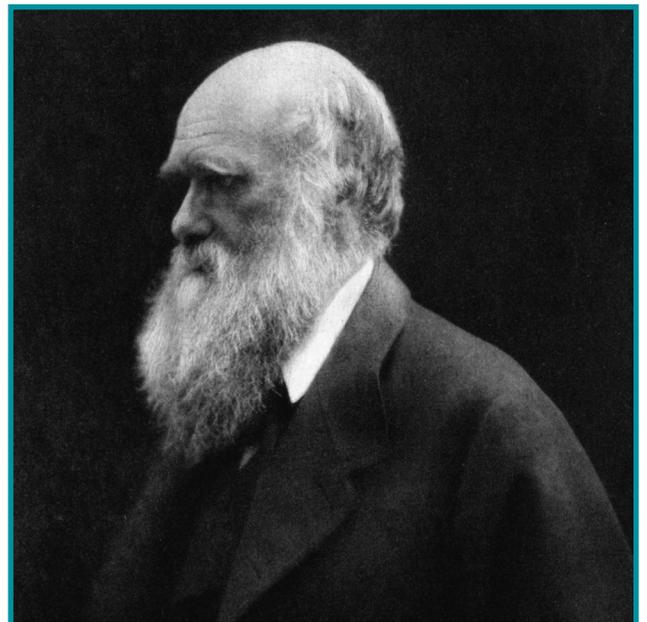
POST-IMPRESSIONISM

Art mirrored the broader intellectual shift from objectivity to subjectivity and generally moved away from representational forms. Post-impressionist artists focused on abstract forms and expressive representations in order to challenge the idea of what art should be. Unlike impressionist artists, who were primarily interested in depictions of nature and light, post-impressionists often depicted distorted forms and geometric shapes using unnatural colors and thick applications of paint. Emile Bernard's painting *Breton Women in a Meadow* exemplifies the distorted coloring, flexibility with form, and playful treatment of geometry that characterized post-impressionist art.

DARWINISM

New developments in science in the 19th century emphasized **rationality** and the power of observation through **positivism**. Using this framework, **Charles Darwin** concluded, based on his observation of finches in the Galapagos Islands, that all animals undergo a process of evolution over time during which they become increasingly adapted to their environment. Although many religious leaders in the 19th century opposed Darwin's scientific conclusions, Darwin's ideas very quickly revolutionized both scientific thought and the broader society.

Social Darwinism argued that human civilizations were also based on ideas of natural selection and the survival of the fittest that Darwin observed in the animal kingdom. Social Darwinists argued for limited government regulation, low taxes, and unbridled self-interest with limited government intervention to protect the socially marginalized. This approach rapidly became one of the most prevalent philosophical approaches of the late 19th century.



WORLD WAR I

During the early 20th century, **imperialism** and **nationalism** were often combined with **militarism**, in which European countries competed in the number and types of military technologies that they could amass to their cause. Many of the newly developed technologies of the **Second Industrial Revolution** were utilized in the military effort, resulting in the development of machine guns, poison gas, tanks, and submarines.

The **Alliance System** developed by **Otto von Bismarck** was able to maintain peace for a period of time despite these tensions, but the assassination of **Archduke Franz Ferdinand** in 1914 turned a regional dispute in the Balkans into a worldwide war when nation after nation joined their allies. Troops were not able to advance against new technologies, eventually leading to the development of trench warfare. When World War I ended in 1918, the **Treaty of Versailles** punished Germany for its role in the war by requiring that Germany admit guilt and pay **reparations** to the Allies. President Woodrow Wilson of the United States proposed a **League of Nations** to negotiate further disputes, but he was unable to convince the U.S. Congress to allow the United States to join with its European allies.



DADA

Developed as a reaction to the senseless losses and widespread disillusionment of World War I, Dadaism emphasized irrationality and nonsense in art. It was an explicit rejection of logic, reason, and predictable responses under the belief that rationality had led to World War I. Dada artists employed several different techniques, including found art, collage, and illustration. In 1917, Marcel Duchamp submitted *Fountain*, a signed urinal, to the Society of Independent Artists. Although it was rejected, it has become one of the most recognizable pieces of Dada art for its rejection of social norms.

THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION

Against the backdrop of growing nationalism and imperialism across Europe, the Russian people began to express discontent with their political governance. In the **1905 Revolution**, a group of unarmed demonstrators attempted to petition **Tsar Nicholas** for more rights and protections for the working poor. The Russian Imperial Guard fired on them on **Bloody Sunday**, which led to an upwell of sentiment in favor of the protesters that forced the Tsar to release the **October Manifesto**, stating that Tsar's power would be checked by a constitution and a parliamentary body called the **Duma**.

These changes were not enough for more radical Russians, especially after the stresses of World War I led to devastating losses to both Russia's population and Russia's economy. With living conditions worse than they were in 1905, **Vladimir Lenin** and the **Bolsheviks** were able to overthrow the existing government in 1917 and institute a modified communist government that attempted to improve economic conditions through central planning.





FASCISM AND TOTALITARIANISM

Although the Treaty of Versailles resolved the military tensions of World War I, it exacerbated social and economic tensions. The **War Guilt Clause**, in combination with the crushing expectations of reparations, destroyed the German economy. Germany fell from being the primary industrial manufacturer in Europe to an economy characterized by **hyperinflation**, low employment, and debt. Although many other countries also experienced a **Great Depression** following the war, the economic devastation in Germany, combined with a sense of disillusionment and dissatisfaction, led to the rise of the **Nazi Party** and its promise to restore Germany to its former glory. The leader of the Nazi Party, **Adolf Hitler**, utilized fascist and racialized rhetoric to begin a program of military rearmament and expansion. His policies of racial superiority and bigotry would culminate in the **Holocaust**.

The poor conditions in post-war Europe also led to the rise of fascist leadership in Italy under **Benito Mussolini** and in Russia under **Joseph Stalin**. Both leaders imposed fascist dictatorships by exploiting post-war bitterness and eliminating any dissent against the new regime through military force and the secret police.

The Alliance System, in conjunction with nationalism, imperialism, and militarism, led to a regional dispute in the Balkans becoming a worldwide war.

CAUSATION

Radical leaders took advantage of the global economic crisis following World War I to impose totalitarian regimes. These regimes utilized nationalistic and imperialistic rhetoric to justify programs of expansion, leading to another worldwide war, World War II.

TIMELINE

- **1917** The Russian Tsar is removed from power, beginning the Russian Civil War that would ultimately lead to the rise of the Bolsheviks.
- **1919** The Treaty of Versailles is signed, forcing Germany to accept both the War Guilt Clause and an obligation to pay reparations.
- **1925** Benito Mussolini gains power in Italy.
- **1933** Adolf Hitler becomes Chancellor of Germany, leading the Nazi Party to power.
- **1945** World War II in Europe ends with the surrender of the Germans. World War II ends when the Empire of Japan surrenders to the Allies. The Allied forces immediately occupied Japan.

WORLD WAR II

World War II was primarily caused by German expansion as a result of the Nazi Party's policy of *lebensraum* ("living space"), which used nationalistic rhetoric to annex territory with German speakers. Germany rapidly advanced into the Rhineland, Austria, and Czechoslovakia with very little opposition from other European nations. After Nazi Germany quickly invaded Poland using the *blitzkrieg* strategy, European powers began to take sides either for or against Germany's actions.

Germany led the **Axis powers** of Italy, Japan, Hungary, Romania, and Bulgaria. The inclusion of Japan as Germany's ally developed a Pacific theater for the war separate from the European conflict. The Axis Powers were opposed by the **Allies**, which primarily consisted of Britain, France, the USSR, Belgium, and the United States. Despite Axis targeting of London, **Winston Churchill** rallied support from the civilian population to continue and strengthen the British war effort. World War II was an industrial war dominated by a military arms race that threatened the risk of global nuclear war, especially after the United States dropped **atomic bombs** on Hiroshima and Nagasaki.





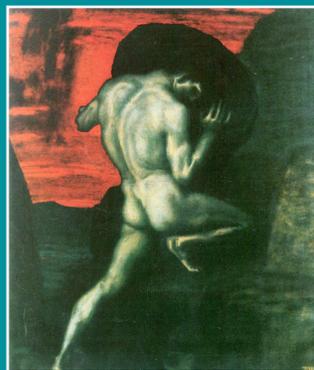
THE COLD WAR

World War II devastated Europe as a result of significant population losses, economic losses, and infrastructure damage. Following the belief that a devastated nation was likely to turn to **Communism**, the United States offered aid to countries decimated by the war through the **Marshall Plan**. As a result of this aid package, Western Europe was able to recover quickly from the conflict while Eastern Europe, under Communist control, lagged behind economically. The ideological division between Western and Eastern Europe became increasingly deep-seated and intractable. **Winston Churchill** argued that Western Europe and Eastern Europe were divided by a metaphorical **Iron Curtain** that could not be passed.

The West was regulated by **NATO**, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, to prevent Soviet aggression. **The Warsaw Pact**, including the Soviet Union and other Eastern Bloc countries under Soviet control, was the Soviet response to NATO's defense alliance. While the military forces on both sides of the Iron Curtain did not come to blows within the continent of Europe, they engaged in various "hot wars" in Asia, Latin America, and the Caribbean.

EXISTENTIALISM

In the post-war period, existential artists used the ideas of Soren Kierkegaard to argue that objective meaning did not exist. These artists, especially those affiliated with the subset of absurdist art, maintained that each person constructs his or her own meaning for life and the events in it. In Franz Stuck's painting *Sisyphus*, for example, Stuck used the myth of Sisyphus's punishment of endless toil from the gods to argue that life was essentially meaningless. Like Sisyphus's endless toil, life was tragic and absurd. Existentialism continues to be a popular intellectual movement.



POST-WAR NATIONALISM, ETHNIC CONFLICT, AND ATROCITIES

The nationalist rhetoric that motivated much of the conflict of World War II took on a new form as ethnic minority groups seized the language of **popular sovereignty** and **self-determination** to argue for their own distinct

sense of nationhood. **Mikhail Gorbachev's** policies of *glasnost* and *perestroika* in the Soviet Union attempted to address this growing movement by changing how the Communist leadership was perceived, but they were ultimately ineffective. Uprisings in **Chechnya**, **Hungary**, and **Prague** challenged Communism and forced Soviet leaders to maintain a hard line against dissent. The USSR continued to face opposition from ethnic groups in its territory until it fell in 1991.

Other countries also experienced the deadly effects of combining nationalism and arguments about ethnic rights. In Yugoslavia, conflict among the Serbs, Bosnians, and Croats resulted in the ethnic cleansing of the **Bosnian Muslims**. In Spain, nationalists formed the separatist group **ETA**, which used violence in its unsuccessful attempt to develop a nation based on Basque culture and language.





EUROPE AND THE WORLD

The end of World War II also prompted a widespread reconsideration of Europe's place in the world and the role of colonized people in determining their own political and social trajectories. Much of the rhetoric of national self-determination that dominated the post-war period can be traced back to **Woodrow Wilson's** proposals as part of the **Treaty of Versailles** that ended World War I. Following World War II, however, these ideas began to gain global traction. In some countries, such as **India**, the decolonization process was accomplished through peaceful means. In others, such as **Vietnam**, local resistance to European colonialism led to armed conflict. Cold War strategic alliances complicated the decolonization process in many places because European countries resisted giving up what they perceived as bulwarks against the spread of Communism.

Within Europe itself, European nations addressed the idea of national identity through the formation of the **European Union**, a shared economic system that supported the free movement of people across Europe.

TIMELINE

- **1948** The Marshall Plan passes the U.S. Congress. The Marshall Plan provided over \$12 billion in aid to nations in Western Europe affected by World War II.
- **1980** Solidarity is founded in Poland. Solidarity was a major challenge to Soviet authority in the Eastern Bloc. By accepting some of Solidarity's demands, the Soviet government demonstrated that there were limits to their power.
- **1989** The Berlin Wall falls, signaling the impending end of the Soviet Union.
- **1992** The European Union is formed through the Maastricht Treaty.
- **1999** The Euro is introduced as the common currency of the European Union.

Following World War II, intractable differences emerged between capitalist Western Europe and communist Eastern Europe. The ideological Iron Curtain dividing East and West was never challenged by a "hot" war in Europe, but the two sides fought through "proxy wars," propaganda, and covert actions.

CAUSATION

The Cold War complicated the decolonization process, but nationalist movements in many colonies successfully campaigned for freedom from foreign rule. The sharp divisions of the Cold War broke down as the world became increasingly interconnected.

GLOBALIZATION

During the post-war era, new ways of thinking about the world and the people in it led to widespread reevaluation of social and cultural norms. In gender theory, a new wave of **feminism** challenged women's roles in society. **Simone de Beauvoir**, who wrote *The Second Sex*, used a historical point of view to argue that the West historically privileged men and that a new, global, post-war world needed to include new models of womanhood and family life.

Conversations that challenged the foundations of society in the post-war world were possible because of technologies that effectively linked communities across the globe. Technological advances, such as the development of the **Internet** and **cell phones**, had positive and negative consequences. Medical technologies in particular proved to be especially divisive as technological innovations led to social and moral questions around birth control, abortion, and genetic engineering. These conversations were complicated by the continued influence of **organized religion**, which maintained a role in European social and cultural life. Constant technological innovation contributed to **consumerism**, which had significant environmental impacts.

