

AP European History: Study Guide



Key Exam Details

The Advanced Placement (AP) Program® is designed to allow high school students to pursue college-level studies while attending high school. Colleges use AP scores to determine students' eligibility for advanced course placement and/or course credit.

On your AP European History exam, you can expect to find multiple-choice and short-answer questions that focus on the following themes. Each theme will make up 10–15% of all exam questions:

- Renaissance and Exploration (c. 1450–c. 1648)
- Age of Reformation (c. 1450 – c. 1648)
- Absolutism and Constitutionalism (c. 1648 – c.1815)
- Scientific, Philosophical, and Political Developments (c. 1648 – c.1815)
- Conflict, Crisis, and Reaction in the Late 18th Century (c. 1648 – c.1815)
- Industrialization and Its Effects (c. 1815 – c. 1914)
- Nineteenth-Century Perspectives and Political Developments (c. 1815 – c. 1914)
- Twentieth-Century Global Conflicts (c. 1914 – present)
- Cold War and Contemporary Europe (c. 1914 – present)

The exam also includes a document-based question and a long essay question, each of which test your ability to consider a history-based prompt and write a response that:

- Provides a strong thesis
- Places the topic in context
- Offers compelling evidence
- Shows logical analysis and reasoning

This guide will give you a review of all major exam topics, with an emphasis on the key people, places, events, and documents of each time period. Following every topic overview are sample AP multiple-choice or short answer exam questions, so you can get a sense of how information will be presented on test day.

Let's get started!

Renaissance and Exploration

People of Interest

- **Renaissance:** Petrarch, Leonardo da Vinci, Michelangelo, Raphael, Erasmus, Machiavelli
- **New monarchs:** Charles VII, Louis XI & Francis I of France, Henry VII & VIII of England, Ferdinand of Aragon & Isabella of Castile
- **Explorers:** Christopher Columbus, John Cabot, Ferdinand Magellan
- **Technological pioneers:** Johannes Gutenberg

Key Concepts

Humanism: Humanism underpinned the Renaissance and shifted focus away from contemplation of the Divine to consideration of humanity, albeit still in the context of a divinely appointed universe. The Italian Renaissance tended to place greater emphasis on classical texts, while scholars of the Northern Renaissance, such as **Erasmus**, tended to place more emphasis on these in combination with early Christian works. By questioning the authority of that which had arisen in between, this helped pave the way for the Reformation, as well as the Scientific Revolution and the Enlightenment.

New monarchies: a new form of monarchy emerged in Western Europe in the late fifteenth century, which, by engaging in state-building, laid the foundation for modern states (e.g., England, Spain, and France).

Mercantilism: an economic theory popular in the early modern era, mercantilists advocated efforts to build up exports and reduce imports through protectionism, in order to maximize the accumulation of wealth, which was identified as the treasure stored in a land's coffers.

Key Terms

Vernacular: the native language of a locality, which allowed authors to reach a broader section of society than Latin did, and promoted the development of local culture.

“Living off their own”: the medieval tradition that monarchs should fund their activities from their private income while at peace and only impose taxes when at war.

Intercursus Magnus: Henry VII’s trade deal with Burgundy, which included beneficial terms for English merchants.

Columbian exchange: the term used to describe the transfers of goods, people, culture, and diseases between the Old World and the New, which occurred in the wake of Columbus’s exploratory voyages.

Putting-out system: the system whereby entrepreneurs would deliver materials to their workforce outside town to avoid profit-inhibiting guild regulations, and return to collect the finished goods before selling them on in town.

Joint-stock company: formed when “adventurers” would subscribe money together to fund an enterprise that they either did not wish, or were unable to, fund individually; returns from the venture would then be divided up in proportion to the original investment.

Timeline

1345: Petrarch discovers a copy of Cicero’s letters to Atticus

c.1450: Gutenberg press begins working on the Gutenberg Bible, its first publication

1477: Death of Charles the Bold returns Burgundy to Louis XI of France

1479: Castile and Aragon are united in a personal union under Ferdinand and Isabella

1485: Henry VII of England ends the Wars of the Roses

1492: Ferdinand and Isabella fund Christopher Columbus’s first voyage to the New World

c.1500: Both Leonardo da Vinci and Michelangelo are active in Florence

1511: First publication of *In Praise of Folly* by Erasmus

1518: A Hispaniola Smallpox outbreak epitomizes spread of disease from Old to New Worlds

1532: Publication of *The Prince* by Niccolò Machiavelli

1550s: Portuguese begin transporting Africans to Brazil as slaves

1560s: Spanish begin convoy system to protect their trade with the Americas

Classical Revival and Renaissance Developments

The Renaissance stemmed from a revival of interest in classical sources. Initially, this took place in the North Italian city states, particularly Florence and Venice, where increased prosperity permitted greater investment in artistic endeavor.

Their first engagement was with Latin sources, but interaction with Greek ones soon followed. One of the early Renaissance figures, **Petrarch**, uncovered **Cicero's** letters to **Atticus**, which changed the view of ancient life from one of contemplation to one of participation, and led to the idea of the Renaissance man, who sought to engage with all aspects of life open to him.

This was typified by **Leonardo da Vinci**, who explored a vast range of interests such as painting, drawing, architecture, engineering, sculpture, invention, and science. In the Renaissance, artisans became artists who actively reflected on matters such as emotion, perspective, and movement in their works of art.

Conflict in Italy between the **Habsburgs** and **Valois** diverted resources from cultural activity to military enterprises. However, the idea of humanism filtered north of the Alps, triggering what was known as the **Northern Renaissance**, the principal exponent of which was the humanist **Erasmus of Rotterdam**, who was critical of the practices of the Church while continuing to venerate its essence.

New Monarchies and the Foundations of the Centralized Modern State

New monarchies have been characterized as laying the foundations of the centralized modern state. They sought to curb the threat posed by their aristocracies (Henry VII abolished their private armies; the Kings of France recovered the lands of their "overmighty subjects," the King of England and Duke of Burgundy; and the Spanish reined in the Castilian nobles). They sought a steady income over and above "living of their own" in peace by raising taxes (except in Spain, where even Castile refused to accept this) and selling monopolies (England) and offices (France).

Permanent armed forces at the disposal of the monarch were another characteristic, as was fostering trade. The Spanish developed trade with the New World and the English made deals in Europe like the ***Intercursus Magnus***, while **Louis XI** improved communications and founded trade fairs. They also sought to control their subjects' beliefs through conversion (England and Spain), expulsion (Spain), and control of Church appointments (Concordat of Bologna, France). These state-building activities advanced the power of government and paved the way for the eventual development of nation-states.

Technological Advances and Exploration Driven by Mercantilism

The most profound technological innovation of the era was printing. Where previously works had to be laboriously copied by hand, they now could be mass-produced and distributed, which led to widely disseminating (sometimes dangerous) new ideas. It also made it more difficult for the state to control this spread and facilitated later developments like the **Revolt of the Netherlands** and the **English Revolution**.

Likewise, as use of gunpowder spread, fortification design and military tactics changed in response. Innovations in maritime technology, such as the caravel, also facilitated the Age of Exploration, while **mercantilism** provided the impetus; the primary aim of exploration was to discover new routes to India and supplant the Venetian grip on the profitable spice trade.

Colonial Expansion and Development of the Slave Trade

Slavery in Africa predated European involvement, with the nature and practice of the system varying from place to place. European participation stemmed from Iberian sailors travelling down Africa's west coast and returning with slaves for the domestic market. This was relatively small scale; the development of the New World drove the expansion of the trade.

There had previously been a tradition of forced labor in South America, but laborers could not be sold, and their labor was for fixed periods of time. However, the collapse of the native population from disease, the more brutal methods of the new owners, and the expansion of the plantation system created a demand for labor that European migration, whether through free travels or indentured passage, simply could not meet.

This led to the **Triangular Trade**, where European ports (at first Lisbon and Seville, but later others like Liverpool and Bristol) sold their wares to Africans in return for their enslaved countrymen, who were then transported to the Americas where they were traded for American products, which were then returned to Europe. It is estimated that from 10–12 million people were carried in this way, with the bulk (around half) in the eighteenth century. At each stage of their journey from the interior of Africa to the Americas, there was a high casualty rate, peaking at an estimated 15–25 percent on the actual trans-Atlantic crossing.

The Columbian Exchange and European Commercial Revolution

The Columbian exchange devastated the population of the New World, chiefly through the transmission of diseases such as **smallpox**. It has been estimated that the indigenous population declined by more than 80–95 percent between 1492 and 1642. Culturally, Europeans introduced new practices to the New World, such as the Christian religion, while the Old World also acquired new practices, such as smoking tobacco. Likewise, agricultural exchanges took place with crops like the potato, while the Old World brought plantation crops such as sugarcane to the Americas.

In addition, Europeans brought precious metals back from the New World, driving inflation, but also stimulating a commercial revolution in Europe.

Wealth from the New World provided funds for investment that could be used in new ventures by the new group of entrepreneurs that were coming to the fore, sometimes called the **bourgeoisie**, leading to an expansion in the **putting-out system**, which bypassed the hidebound guild system. These new ventures were further encouraged by a rise in demand, in turn brought about by an increase in population (around 27 percent over the sixteenth century), itself at least partly attributable to the increase in food from the Atlantic trade. The large-scale opportunities offered by the New World led to the development of joint-stock companies that could deliver the necessary quantity of capital for such ventures. This revolution also eclipsed the older commercial centers of the Hansa and Venice, as trade now refocused itself on the Atlantic.

Sample Renaissance and Exploration Questions

Refer to the following image to answer the questions below.



Christopher Columbus receiving from Queen Isabel of Spain his nomination as Viceroy of the territories he will discover on his voyages. By Casse. Credit: Wellcome Collection.

What was the relationship between Christopher Columbus and Queen Isabella as depicted in this image?

- A. Columbus sought a westward route to Asia on voyages financed in part by Queen Isabella.
- B. Queen Isabella commissioned Columbus to claim lands in the Americas on behalf of the Spanish Crown.
- C. Columbus requested permission from Queen Isabella to claim land in the Americas for his personal use.
- D. The pope arranged a partnership between Queen Isabella and Columbus to claim lands in the Americas for the Roman Catholic Church.

The correct answer is A. Queen Isabella commissioned Columbus to seek a new route to Asia that bypassed trade routes controlled by the Ottomans and Portuguese. While Columbus' voyages ultimately led to Spanish control over large portions of the Americas, neither Columbus nor Queen Isabella knew of the existence of these lands when he was granted royal financing for his voyages. While Columbus was granted the title of Viceroy and shared in profits from his voyages, Columbus claimed land on behalf of the Spanish Crown, not for his own personal benefit. Finally, while both Queen Isabella and Columbus had religious motivations for these voyages, the pope did not play a direct role in arranging this partnership and the land gained for these voyages was claimed for the Spanish Crown and not the Roman Catholic Church.

How was Queen Isabella's role characteristic of political changes in early modern Europe?

- A. She demonstrated the declining importance of religion in European life.
- B. She illustrated the growing political power of women in European society.
- C. She was one of the first European monarchs to show interest in the non-European world.
- D. She was one of the "new monarchs" who helped consolidate the economic and political power of the state.

The correct answer is D. The Spanish Crown's role in financing Columbus' voyages and overseeing the land acquired as a result of it was part of a broader movement of the consolidation of state power in early modern Europe. While the "new monarchs" in early modern Europe did increase state authority over the church, Queen Isabella was strongly motivated by religion in her political decisions. While she was an example of a strong female leader, she was not the first such leader and did not represent a broader trend of increasing political power for women at this time. Finally, while Columbus' voyage was perhaps the most important European effort to explore the non-European world, European monarchs had played a role in encouraging exploration previously during the Crusades, as well as early exploration efforts financed by Prince Henry of Portugal.

Which of the following best summarizes the long-term impact of Columbus' voyages on European society?

- A. Diseases brought back from territories that Columbus encountered on his voyages decimated Europe's population.
- B. New crops from regions claimed by Columbus enhanced diets and increased Europe's food supply.
- C. Europe experienced an influx of immigrants from territories acquired by Columbus.
- D. Europeans came to accept the institution of slavery despite prior opposition to it.

The correct answer is B. The Columbian Exchange brought new crops like potatoes and maize that improved European diets and allowed for increased agricultural yields and population growth. While there were some diseases introduced into Europe from the Americas, the effects of disease did not have a significantly negative impact on Europe's population. While later colonization by Europeans in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries did contribute to an influx of immigration into Europe, this was not an effect of Columbus's voyages. Finally, while slavery was not widely used in European society in the early modern era, it was not a new institution to Europeans.

The Age of Reformation

People of Interest

- **Protestant Reformers:** Luther, Calvin, Zwingli, Müntzer
- **Catholic Reformation:** Loyola, Borromeo
- **Popes:** Leo X, Paul III, Pius V
- **Political:** Charles V, Henry VIII, Henry of Navarre (Henry IV)

Key Concepts

Justification by faith alone: the idea that people could be saved by their faith in God alone, without the need to undertake charitable work.

Predestination: the idea that God had decided who would be saved (the Elect) from the outset and that neither faith nor charitable works in life could alter this.

Key Terms

Indulgences: provided sinners with redemption, even for sins yet to be committed, and raised funds for the Church; a major source of objection for reformers.

Lutherans: believed in justification by faith alone, rather than faith and charity as for Catholics.

Calvinists (known as Huguenots in France): believed in predestination, unlike Lutherans and Catholics who believed in free will.

Anabaptists: believed in adult, not infant, baptism and not just in a complete separation of Church and State, and that the godly should have nothing to do with the state.

Edict of Nantes (1598): granted a restricted tolerance to the Huguenots in France.

Timeline

1517: Martin Luther produces his *95 Theses*, usually seen as the start of the Reformation

1525: Luther condemns German Peasants' War, which was led by radicals and Anabaptists

1529: Protest by Lutheran princes against Edict of Speyer gives rise to the term "Protestant"

1536: Calvin publishes *Institutes of the Christian Religion*, the basis of Calvinism

1545–63: Council of Trent sets Catholic Reformation in motion

1555: Peace of Augsburg between Catholics and Protestants in the Holy Roman Empire; wars of religion in France, which end with Henry IV (an ex-Protestant) as king

1618–48: Thirty Years' War, which is ended by Peace of Westphalia

Birth of Protestantism and Catholic Reformation

Both Protestantism and the Catholic Reformation arose out of discontent with the late Medieval Church, where the worldliness, simony, and nepotism of the hierarchy seemed out of touch with the basic principles of Christianity. The trigger was the sale of indulgences in Germany to fund St. Peter's in Rome, which inspired **Martin Luther** to publish his *95 Theses*, refuting the theological case for these and led directly to his break with Rome.

At the same time, **Ulrich Zwingli** was adopting a similar stance in Zurich. The later Calvin adopted an even more radical position in his *Institutes of the Christian Religion*, while the **Anabaptists** aimed at a complete separation from the contemporary social and political order. All these positions were disseminated widely thanks to the innovation of the printing press.

The Catholic Reformation also sought to address the issues that had given rise to Protestantism. Erasmus, who remained a faithful Catholic, had already castigated many of these in his *In Praise of Folly*. **Paul III** recognized the need for change, setting plans for the **Council of Trent** in motion. This Council gave rise to the Catholic Reformation by reasserting traditional teaching, such as justification by both faith and charity; confirming long-established practices, such as the veneration of relics; forbidding clerical malpractice, such as selling indulgences; and reaffirming the Papacy as the center of the Church.

The Jesuits, founded by **Ignatius Loyola**, were one of the great institutions of this movement, and sought to propagate the faith through teaching and missionary work. Ultimately, however, both movements sought to reform, not divide the Church, and in this they were unsuccessful. Western Christendom would go forth reformed, but divided.

Political Impacts of Religious Upheaval and the Wars of Religion

Neither the Emperor nor the king of France had any motive to back the Protestants domestically. **Charles V** had captured Rome, rendering the Pope his puppet, while **Francis I** had secured control of Church appointments in France with the **Concordat of Bologna**. Both, therefore, backed the established order at home. The German princes, however, lacked such benefits, and several of them converted. This also asserted their power relative to the Emperor, which France, given their rivalry with Charles V, were only too happy to support, despite attempts to repress Protestantism domestically. In England, Henry VIII broke with the Pope for dynastic, not doctrinal, reasons.

The anti-authoritarian ideas of the Protestants also appealed to the discontented German peasants, who rose unsuccessfully in 1525 and were led by the radical preacher **Thomas Müntzer**. Luther, realizing his movement depended on the secular order, lost no time in condemning the rebels in *Against the Murdering Hordes of Peasants*, and consolidated the princes' support. Charles V, having dealt with the distractions that had been plaguing him, however, was unwilling to allow the princes to continue to defy him. He was never successful enough and was obliged to concede some tolerance for Lutheranism within the Empire at Augsburg ("whose land, their religion") before abdicating. In France, similar developments led to civil strife, which ended with the **Edict of Nantes**, allowing some tolerance for Protestantism.

Despite the compromise at Augsburg, tensions between Catholics and Protestants remained high, culminating in the outbreak of the **Thirty Years' War** in 1618. The war ended in 1648 with the **Peace of Westphalia** compromise, which recognized Calvinism, but otherwise simply confirmed that the split between Protestantism and Catholicism would continue. The war shattered Germany economically and demographically, while the chief beneficiary was France, as the peace reinforced the division of the states of the Empire. The peace is also often credited with introducing the concept of the sovereign state into international relations.

Changes in Daily Life and Public Enforcement of Morals

In Protestant areas, monasticism largely disappeared, although Lutheranism did not explicitly forbid it. Protestants, seeking to reduce the differences between clergy and laity, also did not insist on a celibate clergy, and so married ministers became a regular part of parish life. In Calvinist areas particularly, public display of virtue such as modest dress and sober behavior was insisted upon, while traditional recreations such as playing cards or public drinking were repressed. Calvin sought to transform the state into a religious ideal, whereas Luther was content for the church to play a subordinate role. In Geneva, where Calvin was based, he was able to persuade the Council to enforce his views, turning it into an exemplar for other Protestant communities.

Anabaptists rejected current states as ungodly, and wished to have nothing to do with them, which only served to encourage their persecution. Reading, particularly of the Bible, and discussion of religious topics were central to community life. In Catholic areas, monasticism continued, but it was the missionary zeal of the Jesuits that stood out. Traditional activities also continued, and much greater emphasis was placed on public visual splendor than was the case in Protestant areas. Church and state tended to march in step, seeing a common enemy in those who deviated from established practice. The turbulent times bred fear, and both Catholics and Protestants were zealous in rooting out those suspected of witchcraft.

Mannerism and Baroque Art

Mannerism was a product of the end of the Renaissance that sought to appeal to an erudite viewer who could grasp its cleverness. Figures were often depicted in unnatural poses with exaggerated body parts. Colors were often unusual in order to showcase the artist's creativity, while all available space was filled with figures. The **Council of Trent** sought to reinvigorate the faithful by focusing on the image, rather than the word (as the Protestants had done), in order to reach out beyond just those who could read. Artists were encouraged to create popular works of art for public display that would inspire their audiences.

Mannerism, with its appeal to those sophisticated enough to appreciate its playfulness, could never generate mass appeal. The response was the Baroque, which displayed humans in naturalistic forms and colors to appeal to the average observer, concentrated on dramatic events to engage interest, and depicted humans as being small-scale in order to create a sense of awe. This was also used in architecture to support absolutism, through the creation of extravagant buildings such as Versailles, which were meant to impress the observer with their splendor and encourage spectators to reconsider their own significance in this context.

Sample Age of Reformation Questions

Refer to the following excerpt from a letter from Robert Kett to King Edward VI in July 1549 to answer the questions that follow.

1. We pray your grace that where it is enacted for enclosing that it be not hurtful to such as have enclosed saffron grounds for they be greatly chargeable to them, and that from henceforth no man shall enclose any more.

2. We certify your grace that whereas the lords of the manors have been charged with certain free rent, the same lords have sought means to charge the freeholders to pay the same rent, contrary to right.

3. We pray your grace that no lord of no manor shall common upon the common.

4. We pray that priests from henceforth shall purchase no lands neither free nor bond, and the lands that they have in possession may be letten to temporal men, as they were in the first year of the reign of King Henry VII.

5. We pray that all the marshes that are held of the king's majesty by free rent or of any other, may be at such price as they were in the first year of King Henry VII.

(...)

11. We pray that all freeholders and copyholders may take the profits of all commons, and there to common, and the lords not to common nor take profits of the same.

(...)

16. We pray that all bond men may be made free, for God made all free with his precious bloodshedding.

17. We pray that Rivers may be free and common to all men for fishing and passage.

(...)

20. We pray that every proprietary parson or vicar having a benefice of 10 or more by year, shall either by themselves, or by some other person teach poor men's children of their parish the book called the catechism and the primer.

21. We pray that it be not lawful to the lords of any manor to purchase lands freely, (i.e. that are freehold), and to let them out again by copy or court roll to their great advancement, and to the undoing of your poor subjects.

The letter from Robert Kett to King Edward VI can be most accurately placed in the context of which of the following?

- A. The English Civil War
- B. The Italian Renaissance
- C. The bubonic plague
- D. The English Reformation

The correct answer is D. Robert Kett's letter was written to King Edward VI, the Protestant heir to Henry VIII. Several of the provisions in the letter directly address the control of church officials over common lands. While this was a time of religious and economic rebellion, Kett's letter took place much earlier than the English Civil War of the mid-17th century. While the letter was written shortly after the traditional dating of the Italian Renaissance, the geographic location of the content of the letter places it outside of the historical context of the Italian Renaissance. Finally, while the bubonic plague led to peasant rebellions in England similar to the one led by Robert Kett in the sixteenth century, it had its largest impacts two centuries prior to this letter.

Which of the following best summarizes Robert Kett's central concern in this excerpt?

- A. He desires the end to serfdom and the feudal system in England.
- B. He is upset that the king is confiscating lands from large estates for public use.
- C. He wants to protect peasants' access to lands that were typically available for common use.
- D. He is requesting that the king reduce taxes that have been recently imposed by Parliament.

The correct answer is C. The primary focus of this excerpt from Kett's letter is that large landowners were enclosing traditionally common land that was used by peasants to provide for their subsistence. While Kett's letter addresses some issues associated with serfdom, the letter is written after the feudal system had been largely abolished in England. While Kett does address the question of confiscating land, he is not complaining about the king's confiscation of land but rather requesting that the king stop the confiscation of common land by large landowners. And while Kett was complaining about the economic effects of policies on common people in England, the concerns did not focus on the issue of taxes.

What was an economic consequence of the conditions described by Kett in this excerpt?

- A. Individuals were forced to move from lands as landowners removed them from common use.
- B. The amount of land available for farming became more widely available.
- C. The king's role in regulating the use of private land was enhanced.
- D. Subsistence farming increasingly replaced commercial agriculture.

The correct answer is A. The conditions described by Kett were caused by the enclosure movement. One effect of this movement was to force individuals to move off of lands that had been traditionally available for common use. While the supporters of the enclosure movement argued that it increased agricultural productivity, Kett's letter focuses on the removal—not the addition—of land for use in agriculture. While Kett is requesting the king's assistance, the passage did lead to increased regulation of private land use by the king. Finally, while Kett is concerned about the loss of land available for subsistence farming, the effect of the conditions described by Kett was the rise of commercial agriculture.

Absolutism and Constitutionalism

People of Interest

- **Practitioners:** Charles I, Louis XIV, Pym, Cromwell (Oliver), Peter the Great
- **Theorists:** Bodin, Grotius, Hobbes, Bishop Bossuet, Locke
- **Agricultural innovators:** Arthur Young, Jethro Tull, Cornelius Vermuyden, Robert Bakewell

Key Concepts

Absolutism: the idea that monarchs had absolute authority over their subjects. Note: authority is not the same as power—states lacked the information gathering, bureaucratic, and enforcement capacities for absolute power at this time.

Balance of power: stipulates that states will combine into blocs with or against the most powerful state, until equilibrium between the two blocs is achieved and neither can prevail over the other.

Key Terms

Divine Right of Kings: the idea that kings were chosen by God, and that subjects therefore needed to obey them.

Frondes: rebellions (1649–1652) by the Paris parliament and the aristocracy against the centralizing tendency of the government in France.

Enclosure movement: the tendency by large landowners to “enclose” land behind barriers (hedges/fences/walls) that had traditionally been available to all, so that they could monopolize it.

Agricultural Revolution: the development of new techniques in farming in the Netherlands, which strengthened productivity and led to increased output combined with a lower requirement for labor, which moved to the United Kingdom.

Parliaments: French law courts, which also enjoyed a political role.

Timeline

1625: Grotius publishes *The Law of War & Peace*

1639–1653: Wars of the Three Kingdoms – includes 1st (1642–1646), 2nd (1648–1649), and 3rd (1649 – 1651) English Civil Wars

1649–1652: The Frondes in France

1651: Hobbes publishes *Leviathans*

1661: Louis XIV announces he will rule without a chief minister

1688: The Glorious Revolution

1689: Locke publishes *Two Treatises of Government*

1756: The Diplomatic Revolution

1756–1763: Seven Years' War (French & Indian Wars)

The Rise of Absolutism and Challenges to It

The turbulence of the period unleashed a longing for strong government that would contain the threatening disorder. Thus, **Jean Bodin**, in the French wars of religion, and **Thomas Hobbes**, in the wake of the execution of Charles I, wrote in favor of absolute monarchy. France, however, while the main beneficiary of the Peace of Westphalia, was not initially in a position to take advantage of it.

The minority of Louis XIV ushered in the period of the **Frondes**, which threatened to return the country to instability. Louis reacted by withdrawing his court to Versailles, seemingly beyond the grasp of Paris, and insisted on noble attendance on his person to qualify for patronage, breaking the links between the aristocrats and their regional powerbases.

While Louis is frequently seen as the personification of absolutism, it is often the **Danish Constitution of 1665** that is seen as its blueprint. It also goes against popular preconceptions, as absolutism was often assumed to be analogous to Catholicism—this is usually based on the opposition to Louis XIV being centered around first the Netherlands alone, and later in conjunction with the British kingdoms, all under William of Orange. This ignores the idea that that opposition was a foreign policy issue and that William had authoritarian impulses of his own, which were only just kept in check by the political structures of his lands, and suggests that Protestantism was no barrier to absolutism. Certainly, Denmark adopted it, as did Prussia and Sweden. The English Civil War and the Glorious Revolution, however, can be seen as part of the resistance to absolutism, and Locke provided an intellectual argument against it with his social contract theory.

English Civil War and the Glorious Revolution

Like other monarchs, Charles I sought to strengthen his government, raise revenue to cover its costs, and direct the beliefs of his subjects based on his belief in the divine right of kings. He dispensed with the English Parliament because of its critical attitude toward his government, despite its utility as a revenue source, leading to an unpopular “creativity” in finding alternatives (e.g., ship money). His religious policies, moreover, led him to lose control of Scotland and return to the English Parliament, who took control of that kingdom from him as well. When Westminster split over a rising in Ireland, the king attempted to reverse his position through civil war, which ended in his defeat in 1646.

The Glorious Revolution of 1688 likewise resulted from the unpopular religious position of a king. **James II** was Catholic and used his position to ease the position of non-Anglicans, which Protestants (including non-Anglican ones) saw as Catholicism by stealth. When the birth of a son seemed to perpetuate this, James was overthrown in the Glorious Revolution and Parliament introduced a Bill of Rights to curtail the powers of the monarchy. In this way, the Glorious Revolution can be seen to confirm the outcome of the Civil War, as it prevented the development of an absolute monarchy in England.

The Agricultural Revolution and the Development of Market Economies

The Agricultural Revolution included a series of innovative techniques that were initially introduced in the Netherlands and then spread to the British Isles (Young). Moving from a three-crop rotation (where one field was always fallow) to a four-crop rotation still replenished the soil, but generated greater output. A new plough was introduced that required fewer draught animals to pull it, while the seed drill (Tull) improved the distribution of seeds during sowing. Selective breeding methods improved livestock (Bakewell), and enclosing land improved productivity.

Increasing the area of land available for farming (Vermuyden) also boosted output, whether by reclamation, drainage, or conversion from other uses. Improved transport links, particularly canals, encouraged the spread of local markets and their gradual merger into a single, national market for each commodity. Improved food production enabled a larger population to be supported, while increased productivity decreased the demand for agricultural labor and encouraged a population shift to the towns; both developments facilitated the growth of an urban, industrial workforce for the Industrial Revolution.

The Balance of Power in Europe, Shifting Alliances, and New Forms of Warfare

The balance of power is an old strategy, but it wasn't formalized into a diplomatic principle until the seventeenth century (**Hugo Grotius**). After 1648, religion's importance in causing war was increasingly replaced by balance of power considerations. Balance of power factors can initially

be traced in the creation of alliances to prevent the hegemony of Louis XIV, but can also be seen in the gradual accretion of smaller German states to the French side in order to protect themselves from Austria. This set the pattern for the eighteenth century, where two coalitions, one centered on France and one centered on Britain, dominated the continent. Thus, when **Kaunitz** aligned Austria and France, Prussia reacted by lining up with Britain in the **Diplomatic Revolution** (1756).

Britain's dominance after the Seven Years' War left it friendless when it came to the American Revolution. Warfare also changed throughout the period: numbers deployed increased dramatically, which in turn drove up casualty figures. These increased numbers required greater coordination, improved logistics, and larger sums of money, resulting in a new type of political entity—the fiscal-military state—with the primary function of raising funds to support the military. It would not be until later in the nineteenth century that the state's responsibilities would extend beyond that role.

Sample Absolutism and Constitutionalism Questions

Refer to the following to answer the questions that follow.

And now we perceive, with thankful acknowledgment of God's aid, that our endeavors have attained their proposed end, inasmuch as the better and the greater part of our subjects of the said R.P.R. [Reformed Church—Protestant] have embraced the Catholic faith.... Be it known that... we have, by this present perpetual and irrevocable edict, suppressed and revoked, and do suppress and revoke, the edict of our said grandfather, given at Nantes in April, 1598.... We forbid our subjects of the R.P.R. to meet any more for the exercise of the said religion in any place or private house, under any pretext whatever.... We likewise forbid all noblemen, of what condition soever, to hold such religious exercises in their houses or fiefs, under penalty to be inflicted upon all our said subjects who shall engage in the said exercises, of imprisonment and confiscation.... We enjoin all ministers of the said R.P.R., who do not choose to become converts and to embrace the Catholic, apostolic, and Roman religion, to leave our kingdom and the territories subject to us within fortnight of the publication of our present edict.... We forbid private schools for the instruction of children of the said R.P.R., and in general all things whatever which can be regarded as a concession of any kind in favor of the said religion...

—Excerpts from the Edict of Fontainebleau, issued by French King Louis XIV, October 22, 1685

What is the relationship between state and religion articulated in the Edict of Fontainebleau?

- A. The state may ban public religious ceremonies but cannot regulate the practice of religious beliefs in private homes and schools.
- B. The state has the right to regulate religion but not the right to ban the practice of a particular religious denomination.
- C. The state has the right to regulate religious belief and practice in whatever way it chooses.
- D. The state must respect the religious freedom of its citizens even if there is a formal state religion.

Correct Answer

The correct answer is C. The edict was part of Louis XIV's absolutist policies that proclaimed his right to regulate all matters within French territory.

In what way did the Edict of Fontainebleau mark an important shift in religious policy in France?

- A. With this edict, Louis XIV advanced the principle of religious toleration in France.
- B. With this edict, Louis XIV recognized the sovereignty of the Roman Catholic Church over religious policy in France.
- C. With this edict, Louis XIV shifted away from the principles of absolutist monarchy that he had promoted earlier in his reign.
- D. With this edict, Louis XIV formally renounced the Edict of Nantes that had ended the 16th-century French wars of religion.

The correct answer is D. The Edict of Nantes had granted limited toleration to French Protestants in order to end the 16th-century wars of religion in France. This edict formally rejected that policy.

What were the likely widespread ramifications of this edict?

- A. The edict caused economic difficulties when French Protestant craftsmen moved to other Protestant countries.
- B. French Protestants swore allegiance to other countries and never returned.
- C. French Protestants left the country and formed armies to fight against Catholic France.
- D. The Protestant Church ceased to exist in France.

The correct answer is A. Skilled craftsmen in many industries moved out of France.

Scientific, Philosophical, and Political Developments

People of Interest

- **Scientific Revolution:** Bacon, Kepler, Galileo, Boyle, Descartes, Newton
- **Philosophers:** Voltaire, Rousseau, Diderot, D'Alembert
- **Economists:** Quesnay, Turgot, Smith, Malthus

Key Concepts

The scientific method: the use of objective observation to determine truth.

Heliocentrism: the idea that the Earth orbits the Sun.

Deism: belief in a Supreme Being, who created the universe, but whose existence can be deduced from reason and observation, rather than scripture.

General will: the views of the community as a whole, which should reflect a commitment to the protection of the rights of the individual against society, and which should be reflected in law.

Invisible hand: Adam Smith's striking metaphor for the process by which individuals' unregulated actions result in supply and demand meeting to the benefit of society as a whole.

Key Terms

Philosophes: products of the Enlightenment, these writers applied reason to many aspects of the observed world in order to advance the human condition, often in opposition to existing customs.

Enlightened despots: the eighteenth-century successors of the absolutists, such as Frederick the Great, Joseph II, and Catherine the Great; they differed from their predecessors in seeing it as their responsibility to improve the lives of their people, rather than just the might of their realm.

Physiocrats: rather than seeing a country's wealth in the contents of its treasury, like the Mercantilists, physiocrats saw it as residing in its production, particularly in agriculture.

Timeline

- 1543:** Copernicus publishes *On the Revolutions of the Heavenly Spheres*
- 1620:** Bacon publishes *Novum Organum*
- 1633:** Condemnation of Galileo for Heliocentrism by the Inquisition
- 1637:** Descartes publishes *Discourse on the Method*
- 1660:** Foundation of the Royal Society in London
- 1751:** Diderot & d'Alembert publish the first volume of the *Encyclopédie*
- 1758:** Voltaire publishes *Candide*
- 1762:** Rousseau publishes *The Social Contract*
- 1776:** Smith publishes *The Wealth of Nations*
- 1798:** Malthus publishes *An Essay on the Principle of Population*

The Scientific Revolution and Developments in Understanding of the Natural World

Between the sixteenth and eighteenth centuries there were a number of breakthroughs in science. **Copernicus** (re)discovered heliocentrism; **Galileo** added to astronomical knowledge and improved the telescope; **Kepler** provided a theoretical explanation of lenses; and **Boyle** made breakthroughs in chemistry. Where the Scientific Revolution was truly revolutionary however, was in its development and employment of the scientific method. Its potential was recognized, and powerful states started sponsoring dedicated societies to promote research and inquiry such as the Royal Society in London (1660) and the French Academy of Science (1666).

Francis Bacon had first outlined this approach in *Novum Organum* in 1620, which he saw as a corrective for the old method of deducing principles from trusted but untested assumptions. This method would form the basis of future scientific progress, with transformative consequences for society as a whole. It also inspired the Philosophes of the Enlightenment to question the received political wisdom of their day, thereby contributing to the French Revolution and all that stemmed from it.

The Enlightenment and New Schools of Political Thought

Among the fields Enlightenment thinkers engaged with, politics and the search for an ideal society stand out. Philosophers such as **Voltaire** and **Rousseau** were critical of much of the traditional society of their day, such as dogmatic religion and arbitrary government, but also provided positive guidance on fields such as education and political development. While contemporary monarchs unsurprisingly did not embrace the idea of limitations on their power,

they did prove susceptible to the idea that they should do something to improve the lives of their subjects, which would also have the added benefit of improving their realms.

Both **Frederick the Great** and **Catherine the Great** implemented reforms designed to benefit their subjects. **Joseph II**, the most determined of them all, provoked such antagonism to his reforms that by his death almost no headway had been achieved. It would be left to the French Revolution to take up the mantle of the Philosophes and explore the practical implications of Deism and the General Will.

Population Growth and Urbanization

As noted previously, the eighteenth century witnessed a substantial rise in population of c.70 million, or 58 percent, in no small part due to the developments in farming. These changes also contributed to urbanization (by denying people subsistence through the enclosing of common land and employment through the reduced demand for labor). The resulting lack of opportunities in the countryside pushed people to migrate to the towns.

Thomas Malthus, an Anglican clergyman, considered that the rising population would only result in a famine, as the population outstripped its ability to support itself. He also favored protectionist measures like the **corn laws** to keep the food supply secure, rather than to depend on free trade, where lower prices might inspire the population to increase and then lead to collapse.

Neoclassicism and the Consumer Revolution

The Consumer Revolution was the name given to the trend of people consuming more than their basic needs, which developed throughout the eighteenth century. Neoclassicism was the name given to the artistic movement that emerged from the 1760s in opposition to the then established Rococo style.

The common link between these developments was the emergence of a middle class in western Europe in this period, particularly Britain and France. This group had the disposable income to be able to consume in excess of their essential requirements, and their tastes turned toward the neoclassical. Their interest was in part due to the rediscovery of Pompeii and Herculaneum disseminated through the tradition of the Grand Tour, but also due to the apparent coincidence of classical republican virtues and bourgeois values.

Works that reflected this style (women's dresses, men's hairstyles, works of art, and buildings) tended to be in high demand. This development was very much accelerated in France by the French Revolution, which placed high value on everything to do with republican Rome.

Sample Scientific, Philosophical, and Political Developments Questions

Refer to the following to answer the questions that follow.

Enlightenment is man's emergence from his self-imposed nonage. Nonage is the inability to use one's own understanding without another's guidance. This nonage is self-imposed if its cause lies not in lack of understanding but in indecision and lack of courage to use one's own mind without another's guidance. Dare to know! (Sapere aude.) "Have the courage to use your own understanding," is therefore the motto of the enlightenment....

This enlightenment requires nothing but freedom—and the most innocent of all that may be called "freedom": freedom to make public use of one's reason in all matters.... We find restrictions on freedom everywhere. But which restriction is harmful to enlightenment?

Which restriction is innocent, and which advances enlightenment? I reply: the public use of one's reason must be free at all times, and this alone can bring enlightenment to mankind....

A prince ought not to deem it beneath his dignity to state that he considers it his duty not to dictate anything to his subjects in religious matters, but to leave them complete freedom. If

Which of the following best describes the attitude toward religion expressed by Kant in this passage?

- A. Kant argues that individuals require the guidance of political and moral leaders with regard to ethical conduct.
- B. Kant claims that religious belief is a matter of individual conscience and should not be governed by the state.
- C. Kant believes that religious belief will die out as individuals become more accustomed to using reason to guide their behavior.
- D. Kant suggests that enlightened rulers guide their subjects on religious matters but allow them to act based on their own beliefs.

The correct answer is B. Kant argues that the enlightened prince is one who is willing to recognize that it is not his responsibility to "dictate anything to his subjects in religious matters, but to leave them complete freedom." He believes that human dignity requires that individuals be left to their own free will with regard to matters of conscience, and while he favors religious freedom, he does not express any view implying that reason is necessarily in conflict with religious belief. Kant argued that individuals should be free to believe as they wish, and against the notion that rulers should guide their subjects with regard to religious matters.

Which of these statements comes closest to representing Kant's definition of enlightenment?

- A. An enlightened individual is one who acts according to one's own conscience.
- B. An enlightened individual is one who has mastered knowledge of the subjects taught in school.
- C. An enlightened individual is one who accepts that they have the freedom to use reason to guide their behavior.
- D. An enlightened individual is one who seeks out the guidance of others when unable to solve problems independently.

The correct answer is C. Kant emphasizes that enlightenment requires the independent use of reason to guide moral decisions. While he does encourage individuals to develop their own conscience through an independent application of reason, he does not suggest that one is enlightened simply by virtue of acting according to one's conscience. For Kant, the use of reason to guide one's conscience is most important, and while he is not necessarily opposed to school, this is not relevant to his definition of enlightenment offered in this passage. Finally, while it is possible that Kant would favor individuals seeking out the assistance of others, his definition of enlightenment highlights individuals developing their reason to think independently without the guidance of others.

Which of the following political principles follows most directly from Kant's definition of enlightenment?

- A. Individuals should be able to express themselves in public without fear of legal punishment.
- B. Leaders should be bound by the will of the majority when making laws to govern society.
- C. The right to vote should be granted to all regardless of race, gender, or social class.
- D. The rule of law requires that all individuals receive equal treatment.

The correct answer is A. Kant prioritizes the public use of one's reason as being most essential for an enlightened society. While some will argue that democratic government follows logically from the idea that individuals should be free to express their views publicly, he does not extend his argument in this way in the passage. While some might argue that the right to vote is related to an individual's right to public expression, this goes beyond the argument that Kant makes here. Finally, while Kant's argument about the use of reason could be used to argue for equality under the law, Kant's focus is on the freedom to express oneself reasonably in the public square and does not address issues of equality directly.

Conflict, Crisis, and Reaction in the Late Eighteenth Century

People of Interest

- **French Revolution:** Louis XVI, Mirabeau, Talleyrand, Danton, Robespierre, Napoleon
- **Opponents:** Pitt, Wellington, Nelson, Blücher, Alexander I

Key Concepts

Legitimacy: the concept that only the rightful king had the authority to rule. While this was heavily eroded at the time, it did have some persistence and provided the allies with an alternative regime they could supplant Napoleon with after his defeat.

Liberalism: liberals believed the masses ought to be free, but not necessarily empowered, due to a lack of knowledge and education.

Nationalism: a concept to replace the idea of loyalty to the now fallen king, it sought to instead bind citizens to society as a whole through a sense of community.

Key Terms

“Left” and “Right”: traditional political labels that originated in the French Revolution, where members of the Assembly tended to congregate with like-minded individuals. As it happened, those demanding progress sat on the left, while those resisting change (the Reactionaries) grouped themselves on the emptying seating on the right, giving us our modern labels.

Girondins: named for the Gironde near Bordeaux, where many of the members were from, this left-wing faction in the Assembly eventually allowed themselves to be too closely associated with the monarchy and were outflanked by the Jacobins.

Jacobins: an even more left-wing faction, which included Danton and Robespierre, who fell out, resulting in the former being executed with his associates, leaving Robespierre and his group to implement the “Reign of Terror.”

Sans-Culottes: the urban poor; called such because the men could not afford the fashionable *culotte*, a form of trouser, and made do with *pantaloons*, a more affordable form of clothing.

Levée en Masse: the mobilization of the entire country for war, decreed on August 23, 1793.

Thermidorean Reaction: the coup that ended the “Reign of Terror” and sent Robespierre and his associates to their deaths.

The Rise of Global Markets and the Growth of Britain’s Power

With its victory in the Seven Years’ War, Britain had cemented its dominance of the seas, and hence access to the markets of the world. The amputation of the American colonies certainly gave the British pause for thought, but the conflict did not damage Britain’s position as much as might be expected. The United States, while having proven itself unconquerable, did not threaten Britain so long as it was left alone, as evidenced by the War of 1812.

Indeed, the loss of America led directly to the acquisition of Australia as a replacement destination for those unfortunate enough to be consigned to transportation. Britain’s position would merely be reinforced by the Revolutionary/Napoleonic wars, as the Royal Navy’s main rival, the French fleet, was relatively neglected for much of these (France’s focus was on land).

As France conquered Europe, Britain was able to exclude the continent, at least temporarily, from the rest of the world. This provided Britain with the opportunity to cement its own position in non-European states, build up a position in European colonies now cut off from the metropolitan country, and take over strategic places that reinforced its dominance—a global position that did not entirely evaporate with the Congress of Vienna.

The French Revolution, Napoleon’s Reign, and the Congress of Vienna

The French Revolution can be seen as divided between pragmatists such as Mirabeau, who wanted to restructure the French state to make it a more effective competitor against Britain, and idealists, who wanted to create a new and better society. Underlying all of this lay a financial and economic crisis. A series of poor harvests had created food shortages that heightened discontent, while the monarchy’s disastrous finances left the state on the verge of bankruptcy.

The pragmatists were rapidly eclipsed, particularly after the death of **Mirabeau**, creating a surge to the left as succeeding factions were denounced by rivals with ever more radical proposals. This culminated in the “Terror,” in which **Robespierre** sought to eliminate those to the left and right

of him and was only halted with the “Thermidorean Reaction,” during which terrified members of the Convention moved against Robespierre before he moved against them.

A period of relative calm followed, but the continuing failure to deal with the underlying problems led to persistent discontent, leading in turn to replacement by the consulate, which introduced **Napoleon** to the world of politics. Although establishing a hereditary monarchy and restoring the Church was at odds with the idealists, the **Napoleonic Code** and his assertion of France’s glory appealed to pragmatists. Balance of power issues continued to be relevant with the French Revolutionary/Napoleonic Wars, even as ideological concerns resurfaced. It was only in Napoleon’s defeat that the powers set aside the policy of balance in favor of one of international cooperation with the Congress of Vienna.

Romanticism

Romanticism was an emotional reaction to the rationality of the Enlightenment, although the late Enlightenment thinker Rousseau had introduced the concept of “reasoned sentimentality” into his work, thereby adding an emotional aspect to the idea of a person’s individual growth. Initially drawn to the passion of the Revolution, some early Romantics, disillusioned by the double standards of the French armies, turned away from it and embraced Conservatism.

Romanticism was, nonetheless, inextricably bound with nationalism. For instance, **Johann Herder**, an early romantic German nationalist, venerated the ardent commitment of the individual to his nation, but also promoted the later development of racism through his focus on exclusivity. Most romantic nationalists sought to promote their heritage through an idealization of the past, overlooking its less glamorous aspects, as it was the emotional connection—not the mundane reality—that was important.

Likewise, writers such as **Friedrich Schiller** identified their quest for beauty with the contemporary search for freedom. Romantic painters used intense colors to convey emotion and frequently juxtaposed the helplessness of humans against the power of storms and other natural phenomena.

Romantic heroes were depicted as misunderstood creatures of passion with a destiny to fulfill a role that seemed epitomized by the brooding figure of Napoleon. Similarly, romantic music sought to break with the past, although **Ludwig van Beethoven**’s work seemed to straddle both. Other composers like **Franz Schubert**, however, sought inspiration in folk traditions, translating these to fill the leisure time of the middle-class audiences whose expansion was driven by industrialization.

Sample Conflict, Crisis and Reaction in the Late Eighteenth Century Questions

Refer to the following to answer the questions that follow.

The representatives of the colony of Saint-Domingue, gathered in Central Assembly, have arrested and established the constitutional bases of the regime of the French colony of Saint-Domingue as follows:

TITLE I Of the Territory

Art. 1. – Saint-Domingue in its entire expanse, and Samana, La Tortue, La Gonave, Les Cayemites, L'Ile-a-Vache, La Saone and other adjacent islands form the territory of a single colony, which is part of the French Empire, but ruled under particular laws.

Art. 2. – The territory of this colony is divided in departments, arrondissements (districts) and parishes.

TITLE II Of the Inhabitants

Art. 3. – There cannot exist slaves on this territory, servitude is therein forever abolished. All men are born, live and die free and French.

Art. 4. – All men, regardless of color, are eligible to all employment.

Art. 5. – There shall exist no distinction other than those based on virtue and talent, and other superiority afforded by law in the exercise of a public function.

The law is the same for all whether in punishment or in protection....

–Excerpted from the Haitian Constitution of 1801

The stated aims of the above document are most likely influenced by which of the following developments in Europe during the 18th century?

- A. The emergence of representative democracy in Europe and its colonies
- B. The expansion of European colonial power and territory in the Americas, or the “New World”
- C. The geopolitical rivalry between the United Kingdom and France
- D. The general shift away from mercantilism and toward capitalism

The correct answer is A. The rise and spread of representative democracy in Europe sparked a wave of revolutions across the Atlantic World during the eighteenth century, including the Haitian Revolution. While an influence, the development in choice B occurred roughly a century and a half earlier. The conflict between Britain and France set the stage for the revolt but not for

the articulation of democracy in Haiti. Finally, up to the eve of revolution, Saint-Domingue's slave economy remained firmly mercantilist—that is, forced to buy and sell solely from France.

The document's call for abolition in Saint-Domingue upheld the principal set forth by the National Convention in February 1794, when it was under the control of

- A. the Girondins.
- B. the Jacobins.
- C. the Consulate.
- D. the Directory.

The correct answer is B. The Jacobins and their Committee of Public Safety controlled the National Convention in 1794 and were instrumental in passing abolition. The Girondins were only active in the French National Assembly from 1791 to 1793; the Consulate controlled politics in France several years later, from 1799 to 1804; and the Directory controlled politics in France immediately after this period, from 1795 to 1799.

Which of the following statements best describes the overall impact of the above document on the immediate history of Saint-Domingue and France?

- A. Saint-Domingue remained a semi-autonomous colony of the French Empire controlled by Toussaint Louverture and a colonial legislature elected from the male citizenry of the colony.
- B. The people of Saint-Domingue won their independence and established a free and democratic Haiti.
- C. Toussaint Louverture was arrested by French forces while galvanizing a response from his fellow revolutionaries in Saint Domingue, which ultimately overthrew French control and led to the creation of an independent but monarchical Haiti.
- D. French forces under Charles Leclerc quashed revolutionaries in Saint-Domingue and restored the colony to the French Empire.

The correct answer is C. The political gains made by Toussaint Louverture in the above constitution were reversed under the first rulers of independent Haiti. Saint-Domingue did not remain a semi-autonomous colony of the French Empire for long and within two years successfully overthrew French control and claimed independence. Although the people of Saint-Domingue won their independence, they reverted under Jean-Jacques Dessaline and Henri Cristophe, the state's first rulers, back into monarchy. Finally, Leclerc died of yellow fever in 1802, and his troops failed to retake Saint-Domingue.

Industrialization and Its Effects

People of Interest

- **Statesmen:** Alexander I, Metternich, Castlereagh, Canning, Talleyrand
- **Socialists:** Owen, Fourier, Saint-Simon, Proudhon, Marx, Engels
- **Nationalists:** Mazzini

Key Concepts

Utopian socialism: Marx's dismissive description of ideal societies, as described by Owen, Fourier, and Saint-Simon, who, although they provided small exemplar communities, did not provide a very clear path as to how the general population was to achieve them.

Marxism: a socialist creed founded by Marx, who believed history was a progression based on class conflict, which would culminate in a Proletarian Revolution and would eliminate capitalism.

Key Terms

Chartism: an unsuccessful radical British working-class movement that supported the implementation of "The Charter," which championed a democratization of politics.

Zollverein: a German Customs Union that many saw as being a start toward integrating the fractured German states.

Carbonari: an Italian secret society whose objective was the unification of Italy.

Luddites: workers who resisted the introduction of machines to replace their jobs.

Timeline

1815: Congress of Vienna

1818–1822: Congress System phase of Concert of Europe

1823–1827: Britain, Russia, and France start to back the Greeks in their war of independence

1830: Revolution starts in France and spreads as far as Russian-occupied Poland

1834: Zollverein founded in Germany

1835: Railways spread from Britain to Belgium growing into a network spanning the continent over the course of the century

1848: *The Communist Manifesto* by Karl Marx

1848: The 1848 Revolutions

The Industrial Revolution and Societal Changes

When, as a result of the agricultural revolution, people migrated to the towns, many found work in the new industrial enterprises that were springing up. Industrialization began in Britain and spread to the northwest of the European mainland, particularly Belgium, France, Germany, and northern Italy. Women and children (as well as men) continued to work as previously, but now the jobs tended to be in factories rather than at home, where behavior was more controlled, the hours were longer, the environment was unhealthier, and the work was more dangerous. This led to calls for government intervention from middle-class reformers, as well as the development of a class consciousness among workers.

The urge to reform was in creative tension with an impetus to repress, arising out of the perceived threat to order posed by the working classes. Migration to the cities quickly outstripped the supply of available housing, and families were forced into ever smaller and more unsuitable accommodation, giving rise to a squalor in which disease flourished, and offended middle-class sensibilities.

Industrialization also led to greater volatility in the labor market, while urbanization cut people off from their traditional sources of support in bad times, leading to an increase in criminality. Greater class consciousness likewise appeared to threaten the social position and comfort of the middle classes. This provided the established order with an opportunity to split the Third Estate by driving a wedge between the emerging middle and working classes.

Developments in Communication, Transportation, and Manufacturing

Railways both demanded industrialization and facilitated it. The new lines required not just engineering ingenuity, but also mass inputs of manufacturing products, stimulating expansion in industries such as metalworking. They also reduced transportation costs by as much as 67 percent, expanding industry by helping it to reach more customers at more affordable prices. Some countries, such as Great Britain, drew their funding from small-scale middle-class investors who had not previously engaged in such activity, while other countries such as Austria involved the state in an unprecedented economic development role.

Railways transported not only goods, but people, widening their horizons and creating opportunities for entrepreneurs to cater to these travelers' needs. Waterborne transport likewise contributed to industrialization. The introduction of steam halved the time taken to cross the Atlantic, and steamships sped the transport of goods and people along Europe's great waterways such as the Rhine.

The increased demand for transport also encouraged the improvement of the road network. All stages in the process of producing textiles became mechanized, making ever-higher levels of output possible, with British cotton production increasing fifty-fold from 1789–1850. Access to banking was also important for developing industries, and countries with a well-developed finance sector enjoyed an advantage.

The state also often encouraged development, either through direct intervention as in Prussia or indirectly by reforming the legal framework. Enterprises became more concentrated in factories (rather than homes or workshops), and these tended to expand to enable ever greater levels of production.

The Concert of Europe and Conservatism

With Napoleon's defeat, the great powers had no wish to revisit the balance of power conflicts of the eighteenth century. They had expended vast amounts of men and materials to bring down Bonaparte, which they could ill-afford to continue, and they feared that continuing such adventures would only invite revolution. They therefore engaged in what came to be called the **Concert of Europe**, in which they consciously sought to avoid conflict with each other. This did not mean they had given up on war (with Britain, for instance, involving itself in the **Greek War of Independence** in the 1820s and attacking China in the **1st Opium War** in 1839), but rather that they sought to prevent war from breaking out among themselves.

Initially, they employed a Congress System, where, echoing the Congress of Vienna, the Great Powers met to agree upon solutions to the problems of the day. This foundered on Britain's reluctance to participate in the three eastern powers' desire to institutionalize anti-revolutionary activity in the **Troppau Protocol** (1822). Britain and France refused to sign the document, and no more congresses were called after that. This did not mean, however, that the Concert had broken

down. Britain, France, and Russia, for instance, cooperated over the Greek War of Independence in the 1820s. Likewise, the Great Powers cooperated to make sure the **Belgian Revolution** (1830) did not destabilize Europe. It was only after the 1848 revolutions had shown the powers that they could survive such a threat that the system of great power rivalry reasserted itself.

The Revolutions of 1848

Revolution began in Naples and then France, from where it spread across Europe to the borders of Russia. **Klemens von Metternich**, the veteran Austrian statesman who embodied the pre-revolutionary order, was forced from office in March. Conservative courts retreated to their strongholds, leaving the field open for the revolutionaries to show the world what they were made of.

In Britain, the **Chartist** movement peaked but failed to achieve its goals, leaving the establishment in charge. Prior to this, liberalism and nationalism had seemed synonymous, but now differences began to emerge; everywhere but France (which had already established itself as a nation), nationalism prevailed over liberalism, bringing the revolutionaries into conflict with each other as in Austria and providing conservatives with the opportunity to exploit these differences.

This was facilitated by the bastion of conservatism, Russia, remaining untouched by revolution and free to intervene as they did on Austria's behalf in Hungary. Again, everywhere but France the revolutionaries were driven back, and the old order was re-established. Even in France the socialists were suppressed, and the liberal Second Republic would give way to the more conservative **Second Empire** in 1852. The conservatives had been given a fright but had survived and discovered that the masses could be turned from liberalism by indulging their nationalism, encouraging a return to great power rivalry.

Reform Movements, Critiques of Capitalism, and the Emergence of Political Parties

Many members of the middle classes were dismayed by the conditions of the poor and sought to restrain what they saw as the excesses of capitalism. Thus, capitalists were required to limit the hours worked by women and children and to provide the latter with access to education. Arranging adequate inspection, and therefore compliance, proved too much for the fledgling bureaucracies of the early nineteenth century state, and the regulations proved relatively easy to circumvent. This led others to go further than the reformers.

Utopian socialists such as **Robert Owen**, **Charles Fourier**, and **Henri de Saint-Simon** saw capitalism itself, rather than just its excesses, as the problem. In response, they sought to envision perfect societies and even tried to develop model communities to reflect their ideals. They did not, however, seek to describe how society as a whole could transform itself, which is what Marx returned to throughout his life in such works as *The Communist Manifesto* and *Das*

Kapital. Socialist political parties began to emerge, as did nationalist and liberal ones. In Britain, the Liberals and Conservatives grew out of the ashes of the **Whigs** and **Tories**, while in France, the **Party of Movement** and the **Party of Order** emerged out of the 1830 revolutions.

Sample Industrialization and Its Effects Questions

Refer to the following to answer the questions below.

It shall be the duty of the parent of every child to cause such child to receive efficient elementary instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic, and if such parent fail to perform such duty, he shall be liable to such orders and penalties as are provided by this Act.... A person shall not, after the commencement of this Act, take into his employment (except as herein-after in this Act mentioned) any child (1.) Who is under the age of ten years; or (2.) Who, being of the age of ten years or upwards, has not obtained such certificate either of his proficiency in reading, writing, and elementary arithmetic, or of previous due attendance at a certified efficient school, as is in this Act in that behalf mentioned, unless such child, being of the age of ten years or upwards, is employed, and is attending school in accordance with the provisions of the Factory Acts... and sanctioned by the Education Department.... Every person who takes a child into his employment in contravention of this Act shall be liable, on summary conviction, to a penalty not exceeding forty shillings.

—*Elementary Education Act, Parliament of England, 1876*

What was the likely purpose of this act?

- A. To ensure children less than ten years old were provided the opportunity to work
- B. To ensure that children received an education before taking up full-time work
- C. To ensure that employers could employ children of all ages
- D. To ensure that the Department of Education had oversight of the business community

The correct answer is B. The act's provisions are aimed at ensuring children received an elementary education. It explicitly states children under ten could not work. The Department of Education is not mentioned as an oversight agency for business.

What period and series of events in England's history prompted the rules regarding childhood employment and education?

- A. The Napoleonic Wars and the use of child soldiers in battle zones
- B. The period of the Corn Laws and the use of child workers on farms
- C. The Industrial Revolution and the use of child workers in factories
- D. The Chartist Movement and the use of children as paid political protesters

The correct answer is C. The Industrial Revolution included regular use of labor by children who were of school age. The Napoleonic Wars ended in 1815, and the English military did not make widespread use of children as combatants. The Corn Laws, which imposed tariffs on imported grain, had nothing to do with child labor or education and were repealed in 1846. The Chartist Movement was a political reform movement concerned with election and suffrage laws for adult males.

Which of the following was an effect of the creation of a system of public schools?

- A. The expense of providing schools for children created an economic crisis in many countries.
- B. Labor shortages emerged across Europe as children were removed from factory work.
- C. Governments gained a new means to socialize citizens to support national values.
- D. Rebellion against government coercion led to widespread protest across Europe.

The correct answer is C. One consequence of creating a system of public schools was that governments had a means of socializing children to support state goals. While providing public schools did increase government expense, the reduction in other social problems offset these increased expenses. The use of child labor in factories had already been restricted, and this law opened up a new supply of workers as more adults that were previously caring for children could now join the work force. Finally, while there were labor protests against government policies in many cases across Europe during the late-nineteenth century, public schooling was not a significant cause of this rebellion.

Nineteenth Century Perspectives and Developments

People of Interest

- **Statesmen:** Bismarck, Napoleon III, Cavour, Pius IX
- **Others:** Darwin, Dreyfus

Key Concepts

Syndicalism: a belief in trade union activism, rather than political participation, as the agent of progress.

Autocracy: the nineteenth century embodiment of the Divine Right of Kings, whose last redoubt was Russia.

Realpolitik: a brand of politics that elevated self-interest at the expense of idealism.

Racism: a belief that ethnic differences were the basis for understanding how the world worked.

Social Darwinism: a belief that people were in competition with each other and only the strongest would survive.

Imperialism: the use of power to directly or indirectly control other people.

Key Terms

Second Industrial Revolution: The post-1848 spread of industrialization beyond the bounds of western Europe coupled with a new cycle of technological innovation and organizational refinement in existing centers.

Timeline

1853–56: Crimean War

1859: Publication of *On the Origin of Species*

1859–1870: Wars of Italian unification

1864–1871: Wars of German unification

1873–1890: Bismarck's Alliance System

1884–1885: Berlin Conference to regulate 'Scramble for Africa'

1894–1906: Dreyfus Affair

1897: First Zionist Congress held in Basel

National Unification Movements

Despite the nationalist fervor evidenced in the 1848 revolutions, Italy and Germany remained fragmented into smaller states afterward. Unification by popular pressure appeared unworkable and was instead achieved by a series of short, limited wars. Italian unity coincided with the dynastic ambitions of the **House of Savoy**, but their kingdom had proved itself too small to confront Austria alone; therefore, **Camillo di Cavour**, the Prime Minister, sought to woo France by participating in the Crimean war and ceding territory.

Betrayed by France at Villafranca, Italy thereafter relied on Prussia to provide them with the opportunities to complete unification. In Germany also there was a push for unification, championed by the Prussian Minister-President **Otto von Bismarck**. He saw an opportunity to make Germany safe for Prussian conservatism by outflanking his domestic liberal opponents, keeping the rest of Germany at bay, and establishing a protestant majority by excluding Austria.

Germany sought a federal solution to the problem of state-building consistent with Bismarck's desire to exclude non-Prussians from Prussian decision-making, while Italy chose a unitary solution despite evidence that regional differences persisted, implying federalism would have made for a smoother transition.

Popular Nationalism and Zionism

Nationalism provided a new opportunity to isolate the Jews as outsiders. Their geographic dispersal and perceived differences made it easy to depict them as unreliable compatriots, while traditional preconceptions also allowed them effortlessly to be cast as devious puppeteers. Although the French writer **Ernest Renan** insisted that French Jews were French, his careless words suggested otherwise. With the **Dreyfus Affair**, the political right, which had been losing

ground to progressives, found a populist message they could use to turn their fortunes round in many places, thereby forcing their opponents likewise to endorse anti-Semitism.

Remaining a minority movement in Germany centered around small groups such as the Wagner circle, for now it proved more popular in Vienna and eastern Europe, where Jewish communities were less assimilated. Under the circumstances, it is unsurprising that a movement developed to attain Jews the protection of a homeland and equally unsurprising that the object of their aspirations should be their historic roots in Israel, despite the unresolved complication of what to do with those non-Jews currently living there.

Realpolitik and Bismarck's Reshaping of European Alliances

Bismarck's guiding light was to seek advantage wherever he could, regardless of principles or ideological concerns. Thus, he allied with Austria against Denmark, and then with Italy against Austria. He altered the **Ems telegram** to exacerbate tensions with France and proved amenable to negotiate with whichever version of France (imperial or republican) would agree to his terms.

Bismarck at first succeeded in reviving the conservative alliance of the early part of the nineteenth Century between Germany, Austria, and Russia, but as this unraveled over the clash of interests between the latter two in the Balkans, he publicly aligned with Austria while secretly signing the **Reinsurance Treaty** with Russia to prevent them drifting into the French orbit. His skillful juggling of irreconcilable interests, however, did not survive his dismissal. The Reinsurance Treaty was not renewed, allowing Russia, despite its ideology, to fall under French influence. Ultimately, his biggest mistake was permanently antagonizing France by succumbing to military and popular pressure to annex Alsace-Lorraine.

Darwinism and Social Darwinism

Few works had the influence of *On the Origin of Species*, which captured the public's enthusiasm for scientific explanations. In this work, **Charles Darwin** proposed that those life forms best able to adapt to the circumstances changing around them would be most likely to survive. While Darwin never sought to extrapolate his findings to encompass humanity, his contemporary **Herbert Spencer** did, devising the term "the survival of the fittest."

At its heart, Spencer's "Social Darwinism" professed that people were in competition with each other and that only the "fittest" of these would thrive. Implicit in this was a hierarchical judgement that some elements were "superior" to other elements, and societies should therefore seek to apply evolutionary pressures to their members in order to make themselves as competitive as possible. Actions implied included eschewing social welfare, adopting *laissez-faire*, and encouraging the most productive elements to reproduce prolifically—those deemed undesirable should restrict or avoid having children. Efforts were made to establish superiority over neighboring groups, which would find its most ruthless expression in Nazism.

The Influence of Modernism in Intellectual and Cultural Life

Modernists sought to embrace new technology and to break with tradition. While seeking to reject conventionality, however, modernists in many ways reflected its influence. **Impressionism** emerged in the 1870s and focused on the bourgeois lifestyle, while also looking at the effects of light on material and focusing on the importance of the moment. **Cubism**, which surfaced in the first decade of the twentieth century, was intentionally less accessible. This movement rejected conventional approaches to balance and form, showing multiple views of an object from different perspectives in a two-dimensional aspect, leading the work to appear disjointed.

The conventional mores of the time seemed to have abandoned rationality and embraced nationalism, militarism, and emotion. Modernists also sought to leave rationality behind in their pursuit of emotion, yet they sought to embrace internationalism and a multiplicity of experience, and they challenged the bonds respectable society imposed on them.

New Imperialism in Asia and Africa

This imperialism was “new” in that it indicated a resurgence of interest in the imperial project, after a period of general indifference to it. While occasionally rationalized paternalistically, as with *La mission civilisatrice*, the reality was that it was more rooted in a Social Darwinism, which rationalized the conquest and mistreatment of indigenous people. The established order seems to have used it as a way to try to distract the working class from their domestic difficulties by appealing to jingoistic sensibilities.

Technological improvements, such as the discovery of quinine and the Maxim gun, opened new areas to permanent European conquest and exploitation. Intensifying competition resulted in the **Berlin Conference** of 1884–1885, which sought to regulate the European division of Africa—not to the benefit of the indigenous peoples, who were not represented, but to try to avoid confrontation between the great European powers. This new expansionism was not confined to Africa; it was also evident in Asia, for example, where France took Indochina in the 1880s and Britain consolidated its hold on northern Borneo.

Sample Nineteenth Century Perspectives and Developments Questions

Use the following passage and your knowledge of European history to answer all parts of the short answer response question that follows.

The causes of the last war with Russia, overwhelmed by verbiage, and wrapped up in coatings of protocols and dispatches, at the time are now patent to the world. The independence of Turkey was menaced by the Czar, but France and England would have cared little if Turkey had been a power whose fate could affect in no degree the commerce or the reputation of the allies. France, ever jealous of her prestige, was anxious to uphold the power of a nation and a name which, to the oriental, represents the force, intelligence, and civilization of Europe. England, with a growing commerce in the Levant, and with a prodigious empire nearer to the rising sun, could not permit the one to be absorbed and the other to be threatened by a most aggressive and ambitious state. With Russia, and France by her side, she had not hesitated to inflict a wound on the independence of Turkey which had been growing deeper every day. But when insatiable Russia, impatient of the slowness of the process, sought to rend the wounds of the dying man, England felt bound to stay her hands, and to prop the falling throne of the Sultan.

—William Howard Russell, special correspondent of *The Times*, 1858

- A. Identify and briefly describe the historical event referenced in this document. Be sure to clarify which countries were involved in it and which side each country took in the controversy.
- B. Explain why ONE country on EACH SIDE became involved in the controversy.
- C. Explain how this event impacted European politics throughout the remainder of the 20th century.

Sample Top-Scoring Response: Reading: 3, Analysis: 3, Writing: 3

(A) The Crimean War, which was fought between Russia on one side and the Ottoman Empire, France, and Britain, along with Sardinia, on the other side, is the war referenced in this passage. The war began when Russia attacked the Ottoman Empire, with France, Britain, and Sardinia coming to the aid of the Ottomans for a variety of reasons.

To earn the point, students must identify that this referred to the Crimean War and that it was fought between Russia and the Ottoman Empire, with France and Britain fighting on the side of the Ottomans. Mentioning the role of Sardinia is not necessary for earning the point.

(B) Russia attacked the Ottoman Empire for a number of reasons. Russia recognized the Ottoman Empire as a declining power and sought to acquire some of its territory to gain access to warm

water seaport in the Crimea, which would give it the ability to trade through the Mediterranean Sea. Russia, which saw itself as the heir of the Byzantine Empire, was also concerned about the Orthodox Christians living under Ottoman rule. On the other side, France, Britain, and Sardinia also had concerns about the Ottoman Empire but did not want the empire to collapse and lose its territory to the Russians. As the passage notes, both France and Britain had aspirations in the region and preferred to deal with the weakened Ottomans than a strengthened Russian Empire. Sardinia was seeking French and British support for its unification efforts and helped with the war effort to win favor with them.

To earn the point, students must explain at least one of Russia's reasons for starting the war and one reason for France, Great Britain, or Sardinia joining in on the side of the Ottomans.

(C) The Crimea War marked the first major war fought between European powers since the end of the Napoleonic Wars in 1815. It marked the breakdown in the balance of power arrangements negotiated at the Congress of Vienna. The Crimean War also marked the decline of both the Ottoman Empire and Russia, as each found their military power surpassed by the French and British. Russia was defeated and while the Ottoman Empire was technically victorious, its dependence on help from France and Britain confirmed its status as a “dying man,” as Russell describes it, or as the “sick man of Europe,” as it was also called at the time. The continuing weakness of these two empires created growing tensions as each sought to retain their territorial integrity while stronger European powers vied to gain territory and influence at their expense. Sardinia's participation eventually led to French and British acceptance of Italian unification. The Red Cross was also created during this war.

To earn the point, students must identify and explain one result of the war and how it impacted events later in the 19th century. Acceptable responses could include a discussion of the implications of a weakened Russian and/or Ottoman Empire, the unification of Italy, the decline of the Concert of Europe/Congress of Vienna framework, or the increasing modernization of the British and French militaries that presaged the more deadly conflicts that would follow.

Twentieth Century Global Conflicts

People of Interest

- **Russia:** Czar Nicholas II, Kerensky, Lenin, Stalin
- **Germany:** Kaiser Wilhelm II, Stresemann, Hitler
- **Austria-Hungary:** Berchtold, Franz Josef I, Karl I & IV
- **Italy:** Orlando, Mussolini
- **France:** Poincaré, Clemenceau, Daladier, Reynaud, Petain, De Gaulle
- **United Kingdom:** Lloyd George, Chamberlain, Churchill
- **United States (as an actor in European matters):** Wilson, Dawes, Young, Morgan, Roosevelt

Key Concepts

National self-determination: the idea that a nation should decide in a vote whether to be independent or not.

Fascism: a radical, nationalistic, militaristic, and authoritarian political belief that emerged in the Interwar period.

Totalitarianism: this envisaged the state as being “the totality” of a citizen’s existence.

Keynesian economics: a dynamic economic theory which placed responsibility on the state to manage the economy through counter-cyclical policies.

Key Terms

“Reds”: nickname for Communists, or more generally, any left-leaning group. Originates in the Red Flag, said to symbolize the blood of martyrs for the cause.

“Whites”: nickname for Counter-Revolutionary Russian forces, deriving from the white dress uniforms of the pre-revolutionary officer corps; occasionally used for reactionary forces.

New Economic Policy: a relaxation of strict application of Marxist principles in the 1920s in the U.S.S.R. to stimulate recovery from the devastation caused by WWI and the Civil War.

Kulaks: prosperous peasants targeted and eliminated by Stalin as part of Collectivisation.

League of Nations: first attempt at an international body to regulate and mediate international relations through collective security; it was weakened by the absence of its sponsor, the United States, the skepticism of Britain and France, and the contempt of the aggressor powers.

Appeasement: policy to promote peaceful relations through the diffusion of grievances. Failed due to the one-sided nature of its implementation.

Timeline

1914–1918: World War One

1917: Bolshevik Revolution

1919: Treaty of Versailles ends war between Germany and the Allies

1920: Foundation of League of Nations

1922: Mussolini made prime minister of Italy

1923–1925: Franco–Belgian Occupation of the Ruhr

1924: Dawes Plan revising reparations accepted by the Allies and Germany

1925: Treaty of Locarno guarantees Germany’s western borders and inspires “Spirit of Locarno” in international relations

1928: Parties to Kellogg-Briand Pact “renounce it [war] as an instrument of state policy”

1924–1929: Wall Street Crash begins the Great Depression

1933: Hitler becomes German Chancellor

1935: Mussolini invades Ethiopia, driving a wedge between Italy and its former allies

1938: The Anschluss—German troops occupy Austria

1938: Munich Agreement ends Sudeten Crisis by giving the territory to Germany

1939: Molotov-Ribbentrop Pact

1939: Hitler invades Poland

1945: Unconditional surrender of German Armed Forces

World War I and Its Legacy

The attributable causes of WWI include the following: statesmen's misjudgments in assessing the level of threat, nationalism, intra-European Great Power rivalry, imperialism, Social Darwinism, fears for internal stability, the alliance system, and the arms race. Austria-Hungary blamed Serbia for the assassination of **Franz Ferdinand**, and, having obtained German support, declared war. This led Russia to mobilize, which drew in the Germans (who had backed themselves into a corner due to the technicalities of the **Schlieffen Plan**), bringing in the French, Belgians, and eventually the British.

The war was global in that it involved forces from every settled continent, but fighting was mostly concentrated in and around Europe. This geographic concentration meant that most entrants did so on the Entente side as the Central Powers were surrounded, with even rivals Japan and China joining the former to avoid being disadvantaged after the war. The conflict was largely static in the West but the Eastern Front was more mobile, with large swaths of territory changing hands with each offensive.

The Central Powers were able to drive a revolution-weakened Russia out of the war with the **Treaty of Brest-Litovsk** (1918), but the impasse on the Western Front had led the Germans to resume unrestricted submarine warfare in 1917, bringing the United States into the war. This, in turn, convinced the Germans to launch an all-or-nothing offensive before the full impact could be felt, and their failure left the Central Powers open to the counter-offensives that consigned the Hohenzollern, Hapsburg, and Ottoman empires to the same fate as the Romanov.

The collapse of these four powers, which extended far beyond the effective reach of the western powers, created a power vacuum where competing forces sought to establish control through force, normalizing violence and shaping politics in the region during the interwar period. In the West, apart from Ireland, the horrors of trench warfare had the reverse effect, convincing many that this could never be allowed to happen again. The intensity of the conflict had additionally inspired unprecedented levels of state management of the economy in countries such as Britain and Germany, and also increased female economic participation leading to (at least some) women being granted the vote in several countries (likewise Britain and Germany, but not France).

The Russian Revolution

The war exacerbated pre-existing weaknesses in the regime. War with Germany only provided the Czar with new opportunities to seem inept through personal command of the armed forces (after 1915), added to the strains on relations between him and his unwanted Duma, and demanded even more workers for the factories that increased the burden on already over-stretched amenities and consumed the resources necessary to expand them. Transportation problems causing food shortages in 1916–1917 led to the **February Revolution**, and the Czar was

replaced by a coalition (the provisional government) from the Duma, which came to be headed by socialist **Alexander Kerensky**.

However, the activists who had been involved in the Revolution formed their own council (soviet), creating a rival power center in **Petrograd**, and soviets spread to other cities. The provisional government made the fatal error of continuing the war, which persuaded the Germans to grant **Vladimir Lenin** passage. He outflanked the government with the slogan "Peace, Land & Bread," which had a much greater appeal to peoples' everyday concerns rooted in food shortages, the war, and peasants' grievances over emancipation, leading to the **Bolshevik Revolution**.

This had far-reaching consequences. The soviets' brand of militant socialism threatened not only the privileged within their borders (leading to civil war), but also the capitalist order outside as well. This was compounded by Allied anger at the defection of their ally (leading to intervention in the civil war, reinforcing soviet mistrust of the West) and their neighbors' fear of the all-too-apparent revanchism of the new regime, and leading to the U.S.S.R. becoming a pariah state.

The Treaty of Versailles and the League of Nations

The **Conference at Versailles** sought to negotiate peace settlements between the Allies and each of the Central Powers. Unlike previous peace conferences, the defeated (including Russia) were not invited to attend and did not participate in negotiations. Despite the rhetorical tribute to idealism, the great powers pursued their own interests. The United States successfully prevented the institutionalization of any commitment to racial equality; the British obtained the destruction of German naval power; the French recovered Alsace-Lorraine and weakened Germany militarily, politically, and economically; and Italy secured Italian-inhabited parts of Austria.

The Germans were embittered by what they saw as the double-standard application of Woodrow Wilson's principles. Disillusioned by what they saw as European cynicism, American public opinion supported Republican isolationists in their rejection of Wilson's engagement with Europe, particularly the League of Nations. This had an inauspicious start, denied not only its sponsor's involvement but also Germany and Russia's, leaving its management in the hands of the deeply skeptical British and French. Nevertheless, it managed some successes in the 1920s before the renewed belligerence of the aggressor powers, in combination with the cynicism of the western powers, denied it relevance.

The Great Depression

The **Wall Street Crash of 1929** ended years of growth. This had a knock-on effect on Europe, as Britain and France were dependent on German reparations to repay their American loans, and German payments were dependent on access to American loans, which evaporated in the wake of the financial crisis. What followed were years of high unemployment and low economic growth. Of the great Powers, Germany's economy was the most vulnerable and initially the most

badly affected. Economic crisis drove political crisis, and as none of the mainstream politicians seemed to possess a solution, the German public increasingly turned to the extremes of the spectrum, eventually resulting in Hitler's appointment as Chancellor in 1933. France entered a period of instability, with clashes between right and left preventing the formation of a strong government. Britain achieved a National Government, but its excessive economic caution delayed recovery and left the economy weakened. Elsewhere, the economic turmoil encouraged radical responses, destabilizing the international system.

Fascism and Totalitarian Movements

Every country in Europe bar Russia produced a Fascist party during the interwar years. Only in Italy (1922) and in Germany (1933) did they come to power of their own accord. In Italy, disappointment in "**the mutilated victory**," and fear of socialism prompted **Benito Mussolini's** appointment as Prime Minister, while in Germany frustration with the mainstream parties' inability to solve the economy, coupled again with fear of Communism, led to Hitler's installation as Chancellor. **Joseph Stalin** promoted the "**Popular Front**" movement; coalition governments of left-leaning parties sparked fear of Communist infiltration and takeover, leading to riots in France and Civil War in Spain.

Francisco Franco, propelled to power by aid from Italy and Germany, entered into partnership with the Falangists in Spain, but his regime was rooted in the traditions of military intervention rather than mass participation. In Romania, the **Iron Guard** came to power as Axis pressure drove King Carol out, while **Vidkun Quisling** was installed (and uninstalled) in Norway depending on Hitler's whim. Hitler only installed the Arrow Cross in Hungary when he lost faith in **Regent Miklós Horthy**.

World War II and the Holocaust

World War II in Europe began with the invasion of Poland on September 1, 1939, drawing in France and Britain. The following year, Germany conquered Norway, Denmark, France, and the low countries, but was unable to eliminate Britain or bring it to the negotiating table. Hitler faced a war of attrition. Never having given up on the idea of **lebensraum**—conquering an empire in the east for German ethnic resettlement—he instead decided to attempt a knockout blow on Russia. **Operation Barbarossa** failed and Germany was locked into an attritional war it could not win as the Allies (including the U.S. from December 1941) slowly ground the **Wehrmacht** down.

The Holocaust was rooted in World War II. The inception of war permitted the forced movement of populations and thereby created the opportunity for removing the Jews from Germany. At first attempts were made to deport them to the General-Government, until **Hans Frank** refused to accept any more shipments. With Barbarossa, the prospect of resettling them in the east was discussed, but the invasion's failure to achieve its objectives pushed this into the middle distance. With this the idea of resettlement transformed into extermination. Mass deportations to the extermination camps in the east began and would only end with the advance of the victorious Soviet armies.

Twentieth Century Cultural Reactions

World War I greatly influenced art. The public space saw the proliferation of memorials, which were erected in villages, towns, and cities and served as a constant reminder to the living of the dead. These produced their own rituals, and it became customary for men to remove their hats when passing in Britain and its dominions.

Of particular interest is the memorial in **Mulhouse, France**. Normally this would have been the preserve of the local authorities, but the town had been part of Germany during the war, and the overwhelming majority of those to be remembered had died fighting against the Allies. Given the sensitivity of the situation, they were persuaded to cede control to a Parisian appointee who was careful to avoid anything that might either be seen as promotion of Germany on the one hand, or insulting to the memory of the fallen on the other. The result is a masterly depiction of understatement unlike many more openly patriotic ones elsewhere.

As well as public, state-sponsored memorials, there were also more private ones, such as **Käthe Kollwitz's** sculpture placed by her son's grave in Belgium, which are necessarily more poignant. The war also showed something of the absurdity of human nature, a theme that **Dadaism**, a movement founded in 1916, explored. Expressionists spurned stylistic conventions, which they saw as concealing the emotional truth hidden beneath such traditions. **Surrealism** can also be seen as a reaction, with its strange, dreamlike quality offering an escape from the disillusion left by the war.

Fascism and communism, on the other hand, offered entirely different perspectives with their monumental work, depicting heroic figures engaged in ideologically appropriate acts to inspire the public. With the fall of these regimes, these works have lost their suitability and have been removed from public view or demolished.

Sample Twentieth Century Global Conflicts Questions

Refer to the following to answer the questions that follow.

Law for the Protection of German Blood and German Honour, 1935

Moved by the understanding that purity of German blood is the essential condition for the continued existence of the German people, and inspired by the inflexible determination to ensure the existence of the German nation for all time, the Reichstag has unanimously adopted the following law, which is promulgated herewith:

Article 1

Marriages between Jews and subjects of the state of Germany or related blood are forbidden. Marriages nevertheless concluded are invalid, even if concluded abroad to circumvent this law. Annulment proceedings can be initiated only by the state prosecutor.

Article 2

Extramarital relations between Jews and subjects of the state of Germany or related blood are forbidden.

The excerpt comes from a pair of laws commonly known as what?

- A. The Jewish Marriage and Relations Laws
- B. The Nazi Blood Laws
- C. The Nuremberg Laws
- D. The German Honour Laws

The correct answer is C. The laws were first introduced at the 1935 Nazi Party rally in Nuremberg, Germany. The other choices are not actual laws that existed.

Why did the Nazi regime consider the marriage of Jewish people and “subjects of the state of Germany or related blood” to be a threat to the continued existence of the nation?

- A. Nazis believed the Jewish people would take control of the government.
- B. Nazis believed Germany would be less “pure” and its racial future in jeopardy if they intermarried with Jewish people.
- C. Jewish people were thought to be incapable of marriage.
- D. The government believed it was preventing possible future divorce and disappointment.

The correct answer is B. They believed the purity of the German race was paramount to the national future. While some Nazis may have feared the scenario in choice A, the excerpt does not

mention politics. There is no indication that Jewish people could not marry anyone else, and the passage does not indicate that the Nuremberg Laws were concerned with the future welfare of those wishing to marry.

How did other European governments respond to the Nazi regime's treatment of Jewish people within the territories under its control?

- A. Most European countries adopted policies to assist Jewish people escaping Nazi persecution.
- B. Most European countries had no knowledge of what the Nazis were doing to Jewish people in their territories.
- C. Most European countries followed the Nazi lead and adopted similar policies toward Jewish people in their territories.
- D. Most European countries ignored the Nazi treatment of Jewish people and focused on defeating the Nazi regime.

The correct answer is D. Most of the countries fighting the Nazis knew of their extreme treatment toward the Jewish people but chose to focus on winning the war against the Nazis rather to expend resources assisting the Jews. While some individual citizens and some groups assisted Jewish people trying to escape Nazi persecution, most European governments did nothing to assist. While few European governments understood the full extent of what the Nazis were doing to the Jews, most were aware of the Nazis' treatment of the Jews, including the labor camps and death camps. Finally, while some European governments, particularly those allied with the Nazis or under Nazi control, did adopt similar policies to the Nazis and assisted the Nazis in carrying out their plans for extermination, few other countries emulated Nazi policies toward the Jews.

Cold War and Contemporary Europe

People of Interest

- **USSR.:** Stalin, Khrushchev, Brezhnev, Gorbachev
- **USA:** Truman, Eisenhower, Kennedy, Reagan
- **Western Europe:** Schuman, Delors
- **Philosophers:** Sartre, Camus

Key Terms

Welfare state: a state that assumes responsibility for the social welfare of its citizens; Bismarck's Germany was the first to do this (in an attempt to divert support from the socialists), but it did not become really popular until after WWII, when it was adopted by most of western Europe.

Containment: U.S. policy to block any attempts by the U.S.S.R. to spread Communism to other countries.

Decolonization: post-WWII regaining of sovereignty by the peoples and nations who had been previously subjected to European imperialism.

De-Stalinization: process whereby the U.S.S.R. sought to eradicate Stalin's legacy after Khrushchev's denunciation of his "cult of personality."

Brezhnev Doctrine: echoing the Munroe doctrine, Brezhnev claimed the right for Warsaw Pact countries to intervene in the internal affairs of any other Warsaw Pact country who appeared to be abandoning Communism, e.g., the suppression of 'the Prague Spring.'

Détente: French term used to describe the periodic thawing of relations between the U.S.A. and U.S.S.R.

Solidarity: Polish union-based movement, originating in Gdansk, which challenged & eventually supplanted the Communist regime

Glasnost and Perestroika: "openness" and "restructuring"; Gorbachev's twin policies by which he aimed to reform the U.S.S.R.

Existentialism: the theory that individuals, not outside forces, are responsible for their development through their existence.

Timeline

1948: Marshall Plan

1948–1949: Berlin Blockade

1950: Schuman Declaration proposes European Coal & Steel Community

1956: Suez Crisis and Hungarian uprising unfold simultaneously

1960s: Second Wave Feminism

1961: Berlin Wall built

1968: Year of Protests across Europe and beyond

1989–1991: End of Communist rule in Europe

1991–1999: Yugoslav Wars

1988–Present: Conflicts in the former Soviet Union

2009: Lisbon Treaty comes into force, bringing EU into its current form

The Marshall Plan and the Iron Curtain

The United States feared that a Europe devastated by war would prove susceptible to Communism. Therefore, as part of its containment policy, it came up with the **Marshall Plan** (1948), named for U.S. Secretary of State **George Marshall**, to provide aid to countries (not just in Europe) to rebuild their economies. It was hoped that the resulting prosperity would make Communism seem less attractive and also help pay for itself by stimulating the recovered economies into profitable trading arrangements with the United States. The Soviet Union balked at this and refused to allow its satellite states to participate. Instead, they developed **COMECON** (1949) to coordinate the operation of their economies.

This economic division of Europe into East and West was also reflected politically. In eastern Europe, Communists initially cooperated in government with other parties, but within a short time succeeded in monopolizing power, often through underhanded means. **Winston Churchill**, now out of office, condemned this process in his famous “**Iron Curtain**” speech (1946). However, the United States also sought to remove Communists from western governments such as Italy and France, although the pressures brought to bear were more subtle.

The Cold War

The west saw U.S. actions as defensive in response to Soviet actions in eastern Europe. The United States diplomat **George F. Kennan’s** “long telegram” from Moscow was influential in

establishing this stance. The Soviets, however, were indignant at the rapidity with which they were cut off from U.S. funds after the war and considered it self-evident that each power would export its own system to its sphere of influence, abandoning the Greek and Italian communists, for instance, as these were in the West's.

In reality, the tendency for great power rivalry to which the international system seems prone, together with the significant differences between the two systems, were always going to make amicable coexistence going forward more difficult. Both sides formed into "blocs," with the west uniting into the U.S.-sponsored **NATO** (1949) and the Soviets combining their satellites into the **Warsaw Pact** (1955). The development of nuclear weapons, however, provided sufficient motivation to keep the conflict "cold," rather than "hot."

Despite the rhetoric, direct confrontations were generally avoided, as with Hungary (1956) and the **Prague Spring** (1968). Where they did occur, as with the **Berlin Blockade** (1949) and the **Cuban Missile Crisis** (1962), awareness of the significance of miscalculation helped to keep the crises from escalating into full-blown nuclear conflict. The Cold War certainly gave rise to anxiety and also involved considerable repression, particularly in eastern Europe, but the standoff did provide a certain stability in Europe until the Soviet Union's inability to keep pace with the United States brought the era to a close.

Nationalist and Separatist Movements Fueled by Ethnic Conflict

The Cold War acted as a suppressant on nationalism. When two superpowers with rival systems confronted each other with world-destroying power, other considerations seemed less relevant. This was of course not totally effective: ETA tried to violently wrest independence for the Basques from Spain, while "**the Troubles**" continued in Northern Ireland, but most ethnic conflicts, which had been so evident prior to the end of WWII, were held in abeyance.

This would not long outlast the end of the Cold War. The worst ethnic conflict reignited in Yugoslavia, with the most terrible atrocities occurring in the most ethnically mixed areas, such as Bosnia. The wholesale population transfers that occurred in Poland and Czechoslovakia at the end of World War II spared those countries the worst effects of resurgent nationalism (although Czechoslovakia did split, albeit peacefully, into its constituent parts). There was considerably more tension in the Baltic states, which sought their independence, but who now also contained significant numbers of ethnic Russians.

Elsewhere in the former Soviet Union, open conflict erupted and continues to this day, such as in Georgia, Chechnya, and Ukraine. Many eastern European states sought sanctuary in NATO and the EU in order to guarantee their newfound independence. Ironically, resurgent nationalism in the west led to a greater skepticism about the EU project in places including the UK and the Netherlands.

The Shape of Contemporary Western Democracies

Contemporary western democracies in Europe manage to display a variety of constitutional arrangements while remaining democracies; however, they do have a number of factors in common. Most of them are members of NATO, and while some nominally continue to rely on conscripts (Norway), most changed to volunteer armies with the end of the Cold War. All are welfare states in which the government provides social welfare for its citizens, usually in the form of free or affordable healthcare, income in the event of unemployment and/or incapacity, and free or affordable education. There is often also private provision of these services where the wealthy can obtain a higher quality of service in return for fees.

Most of the countries are also members of the EU, but nationalism has returned as a significant factor—most obviously in connection with **Brexit**, but also in threatening the dissolution of composite states such as the United Kingdom and Spain. In both of these examples, ongoing instability seems likely, as those opposed to dissolution in the affected parts are almost evenly matched with their opponents, promising further discontent whatever the outcome. In spite of this, most countries are multicultural, although this diversity is often concentrated in particular cities or regions.

The Fall of Communism and the Formation of the European Union

Discontent with Communism in eastern Europe had been apparent for a very long time. Riots in East Germany, the **Hungarian Uprising**, and the Prague Spring all indicated that the masses were unhappy with their situation. This was not just nationalist discontent with Russian preponderance, it also reflected anger at the repressive nature of the regimes imposed on them and dissatisfaction with their standard of living in comparison to the West.

Up until the 1980s, however, the Soviets were successful in suppressing any breakaway movements, for instance employing the Brezhnev Doctrine to put down the Prague Spring. The founding of **Solidarity**, a union-based movement in the shipyards of Gdansk, changed this. Despite being suppressed under martial law, it flourished underground. A new Soviet leadership under Gorbachev sought reconciliation with the West, in large part to attract funds to renovate the struggling Russian economy. This in turn encouraged the emergence of a liberal regime in Hungary. When the other Warsaw Pact leaders wished to invoke the Brezhnev doctrine, Moscow balked.

A buildup of East German tourists in Hungary led to the opening of the border with Austria and their passage through to asylum in West Germany. This was the beginning of the end. The East Germans were forced to concede free passage, and their regime did not long survive this. One after another, the Warsaw Pact governments fell, with the **Ceausescus** in Romania finally being toppled over Christmas 1989. When asked about the Brezhnev doctrine, the Soviet spokesman instead invoked the Sinatra Doctrine (“let them do it their way”). Free elections were held, with

solidarity winning in Poland. In the USSR, Communism would linger on, but a failed coup brought down the regime and the Soviet Union itself.

As supranational bodies dissolved in eastern Europe, many in the west sought greater integration. **The Treaty of Maastricht** (1993) transformed the European Communities into the European Union, creating a single market, though this was not without opposition. However, a new wave of expansion in 1995 brought in Austria, Sweden, and Finland, and 12 EU countries adopted a single currency when it came into being in 2002. Since then, two further waves of expansion have brought in many of the eastern European states.

The EU has a complex system of government, with the member states' heads of government meeting quarterly to set priorities in the European Council. Executive power, however, lies with the commission, whose members are nominated by member state governments subject to Parliamentary approval. The Commission proposes legislation that has to be approved by the Council of Ministers (the relevant ministers from member governments, meeting in council) and the Parliament. The Parliament is directly elected by the citizens of the member states.

Twentieth Century Feminism

Feminism has been classified into four waves: the first relating to female enfranchisement; the second, dating from the 1960s, which focuses on attaining legal equality; the third, from the 1970s, which adds class-based and racial nuances; and the fourth, which seeks to harness the power of online media to address problems like sexual harassment.

Prior to WWI, few countries provided women with the right to vote, but a number of organizations, such as the suffragettes in Britain, were campaigning vigorously for it. The economic demands of the war, however, led to increased female participation in the labor force and a number of governments, like the German and British, gave this as the reason for extending the franchise to at least partially include women at the war's end.

The Soviet Union considered female disenfranchisement to be yet another aspect of capitalist exploitation and granted women divorce, birth control, and employment rights, as well as the vote (although keep in mind, this was in the context of a one-party system). WWII required even greater participation by women in the workforce, although Germany and Italy, with their reactionary mindsets, lagged behind the West. The Soviets were even more progressive, as women were allowed to take up combat roles.

Post-war, economic participation continued, with even married women being increasingly absorbed into the workforce (75 percent of doctors in the USSR were female by 1950). Rights, however, trailed behind opportunities, and women still faced inequality. (Although the franchise expanded with French and Italian women getting the vote.) However, it would not be until 1984 that Liechtenstein would become the last European country to grant women the vote. Post-war feminists expanded their horizons to target other disadvantages women faced, addressing birth

control, divorce, property rights, equal pay, and childcare support, a campaign which has yet to be completed.

Decolonization, Globalization, and Immigration

With the end of WWII, the imperial project was no longer viable. Nationalist movements had seen that the imperial powers were not invincible, and the war had left Europe in no position to resist these. Some empires, such as the French in Indochina and Algeria, tried to initially resist the inevitable, but ultimately failed to do so. This was not, however, an overnight process, with empires withdrawing from different countries at different times.

The face-saving excuse was given that the colonies were now “ready” for independence. For the most part, some preparation was made for an orderly transfer of power, although the British withdrawal from India resulted in a significant loss of life. Retreat from empire is not, however, entirely complete; some outposts still remain, such as the Falkland Islands (UK) and St. Pierre and Miquelon (France).

As the empires receded, globalization advanced, with new technologies facilitating this development by increasing global interconnectedness. This has not been without its problems. Multinational corporations are often able to play off national governments against each other, often with devastating economic consequences for whole communities.

Likewise, when they make strategic errors, as with the global financial crisis (2008), the very interconnectedness of the international economy means that consequences reach far beyond their original locations. It is recognized that Third World countries are the most heavily impacted, as their economies lack the robustness of the west and are the most vulnerable to any significant downturns—many multinational companies profit from the exploitation of a destitute workforce in such countries.

The environment is also at risk from the long-distance transport of hazardous material, such as oil or spent nuclear fuel. This has led to the rise of anti-globalization movements that regularly protest against gatherings of the rich and powerful, such as the **G-7(8)**, the **World Trade Organization (WTO)**, and the **World Economic Forum**.

Another consequence of global interconnectedness has been a rise in large-scale immigration. While there was always intra-European migration, people from the Third World have often migrated to their former colonizers post-empire, where they may have family, friends, or connections and might speak the language. Their motivation has generally been to seek a better life for themselves, whether through economic opportunity or to escape repression or war within their home countries.

Since the 1960s, immigrants have formed a significant proportion of the workforce in Europe, though usually skewed toward unskilled positions. Downturns in the economy, however, have

created tensions, where immigrants were depicted as either occupying jobs that could have been held by natives or existing on benefits at the expense of native taxpayers. In conjunction with the resurgence in nationalism, this has led to the growth of far-right movements in most European countries and to the introduction of ever-greater restrictions on immigration. Tension also exists because of cultural differences between communities, with Muslims in particular being singled out; one example is the ban on the wearing of the Burqa in France (2011).

Existentialism, Postmodernism, and Groundbreaking Forms of Art

Existentialism is a rather uncomfortable philosophy whereby people are unable to understand their condition through analysis or knowledge, and there is no comforting outside force such as God, progress, or logic to assist them. On the other hand, it can be empowering, if lonely—people are responsible for their own lives and determine their own existence through the decisions they make. Existentialism is very much a product of its time, as it is easy to see how the terrible acts of the first half of the twentieth century would undermine faith in a benevolent universe that would support and aid the individual.

A clear example is **Jean-Paul Sartre's** *The Chips are Down* (1947), which juxtaposes predestination and free will. This was reinforced by **Albert Einstein's** theories that rejected the idea that the universe was tidy and certain in its behavior, and **Sigmund Freud's** theories that suggested people were perfectly capable of irrationality, contrary to what had previously been supposed.

Postmodernism also reflected these views. Certainty and the idea of progress were gone, replaced by celebration of transience, contingency, and the limited. Art was no longer limited to the meaning imposed by its creator, but was instead to be individually interpreted by the beholder in light of their own imperatives. Postmodernism often celebrated the primitive and childlike, as with the **Cobra** movement in Copenhagen, Brussels, Amsterdam, and eroded divisions between elite and lowbrow art, with the idea that all were equally worthwhile. It also frequently used non-traditional materials, as when musicians Pink Floyd used wine glasses, aerosol spray cans, and other items as instruments to create groundbreaking works like the song *Wish You Were Here*.

Sample Cold War and Contemporary Europe Question

Use the following passage and your knowledge of European history to answer all parts of the short answer response question that follows.

“You have left it to women in your land, the men of all civilized countries have left it to women, to work out their own salvation. That is the way in which we women of England are doing. Human life for us is sacred, but we say if any life is to be sacrificed it shall be ours; we won’t do it ourselves, but we will put the enemy in the position where they will have to choose between giving us freedom or giving us death. So here am I. I come in the intervals of prison appearance. I come after having been four times imprisoned under the ‘Cat and Mouse Act’, probably going back to be rearrested as soon as I set my foot on British soil. I come to ask you to help to win this fight. If we win it, this hardest of all fights, then, to be sure, in the future it is going to be made easier for women all over the world to win their fight when their time comes.”

—Emmeline Pankhurst, November 1913

- A. Identify and describe the primary goal of the Emmeline Pankhurst’s political movement.
- B. Identify and describe an obstacle to the achievement of this goal as identified by Pankhurst in this passage.
- C. Explain the eventual outcome of the movement led by Pankhurst and its historic significance.

Sample Top-Scoring Responses

(A) Emmeline Pankhurst was a leader of the women’s suffrage movement in Great Britain. Inspired by movements in the 19th century to abolish slavery and gain universal male suffrage, she adopted confrontational tactics to draw attention to the goal of gaining the right to vote for women. Her tactics included destruction of property and physical assaults on law enforcement agents, along with protests and sit-ins.

To earn the point, students must identify that Pankhurst is associated with the movement for female suffrage in Britain and wanted to gain the right to vote for women

(B) Pankhurst believed that women must force men to give them equal rights because men had no incentive to change the existing political structure unless pressured to do so. She argued that only by forcing men to choose between giving women the right to vote or putting them in jail, or

perhaps hurting or even killing them, would men be sufficiently coerced into changing the system.

To earn the point, students must explain Pankhurst's use of unconventional and confrontational tactics and her reasons for doing so.

(C) While Pankhurst's tactics are still debated today, women were eventually granted the right to vote in Great Britain in 1918. Women later earned suffrage in most other European countries within the next several decades. Pankhurst was herself elected to Parliament as a member of the Conservative Party, further complicating her legacy among the groups that had initially supported her cause.

To earn the point, students must explain that ultimately women did gain the right to vote in Great Britain and that other European countries followed by also granting suffrage to women over the next several decades.