



CHAPTER 22

Industrialization and Social Ferment 1830—1850

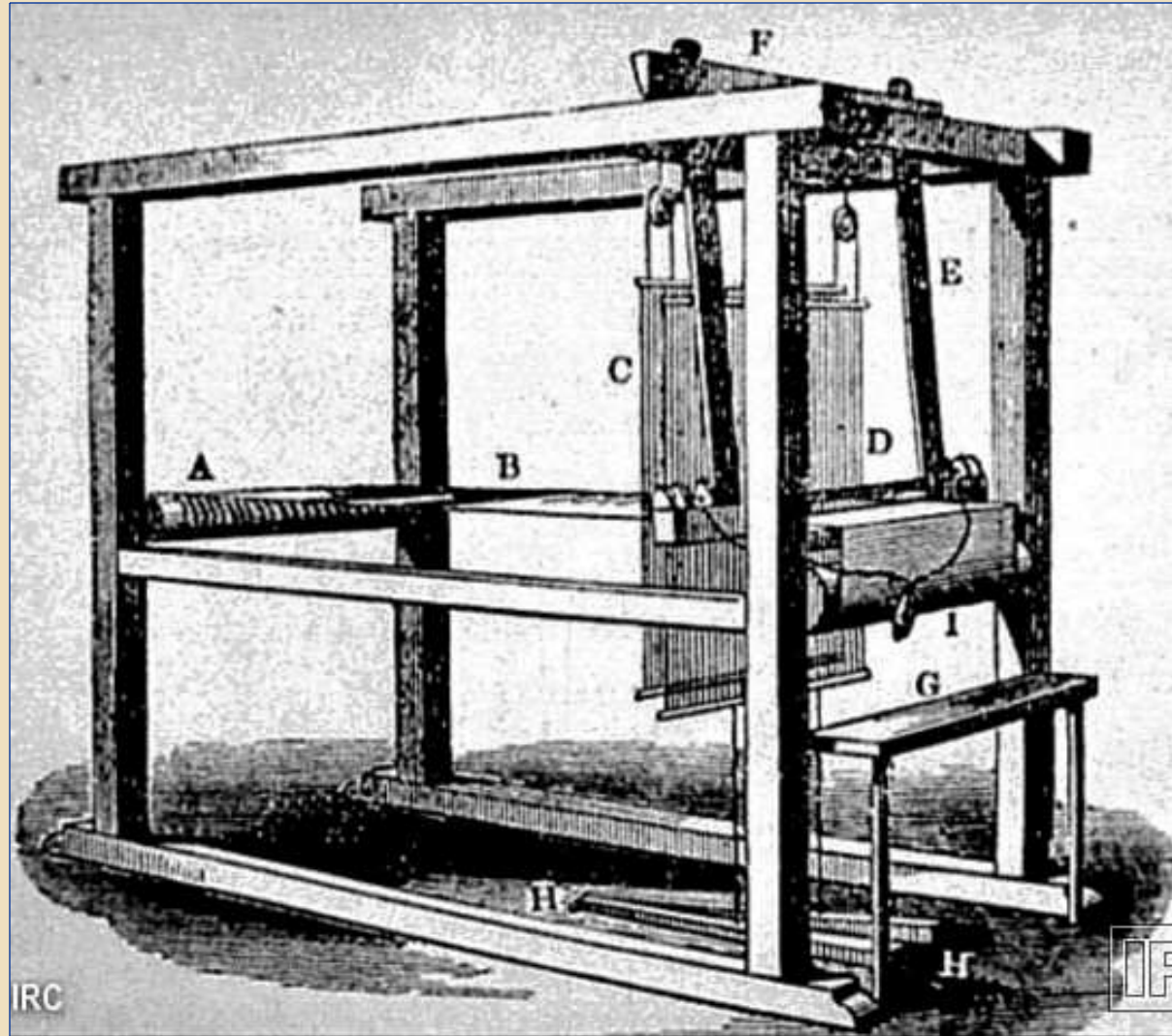
I. The Industrial Revolution

A. Roots of Industrialization

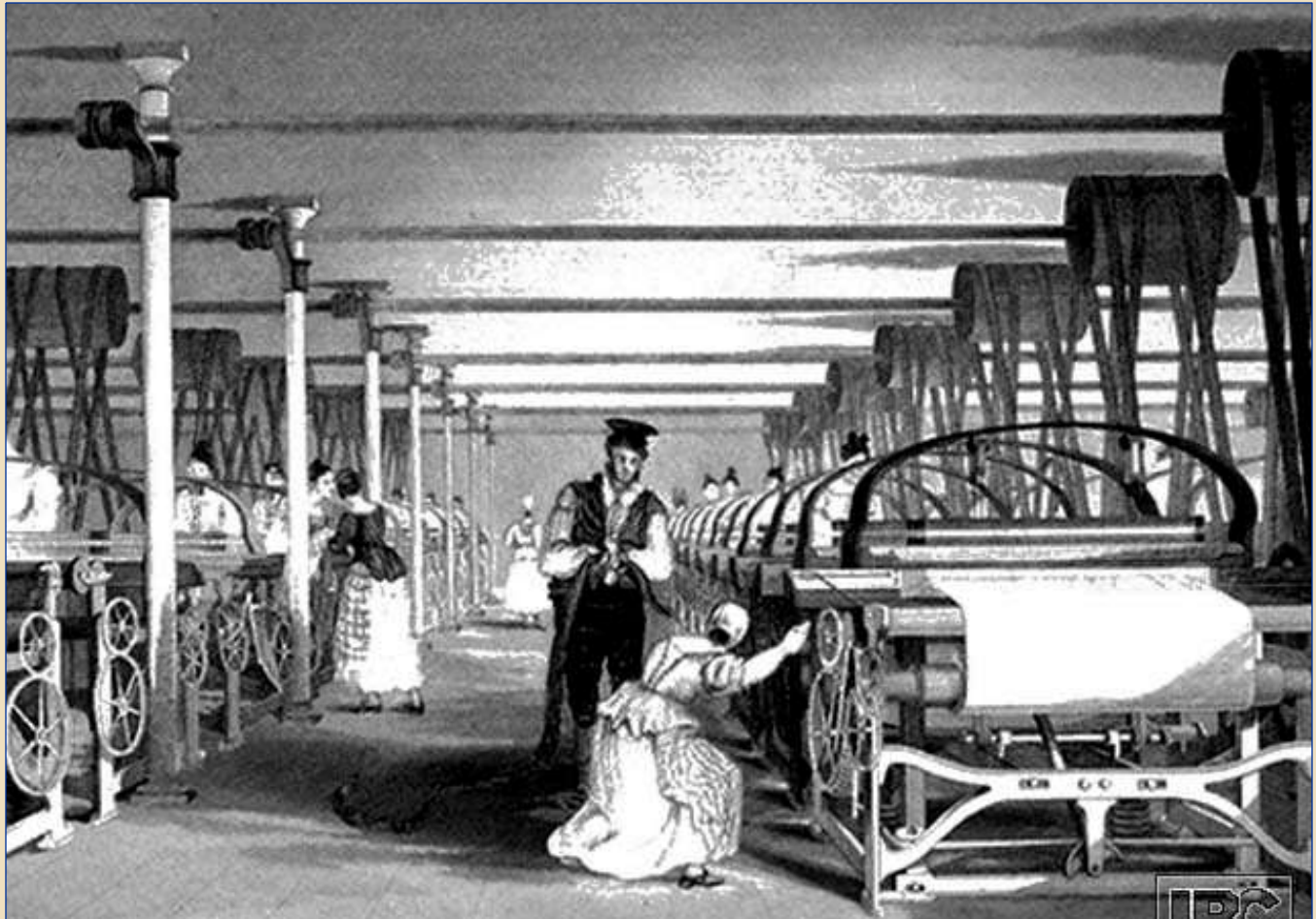
1. Early Innovations -**James Watt's** steam engine and spinning, weaving inventions led to large textile factories and semiskilled workers
2. England and the Transformation of Production –factors present including pop. Growth, ready capital, raw materials, political stability, & opportunity for social mobility

New Inventions of the Industrial Revolution

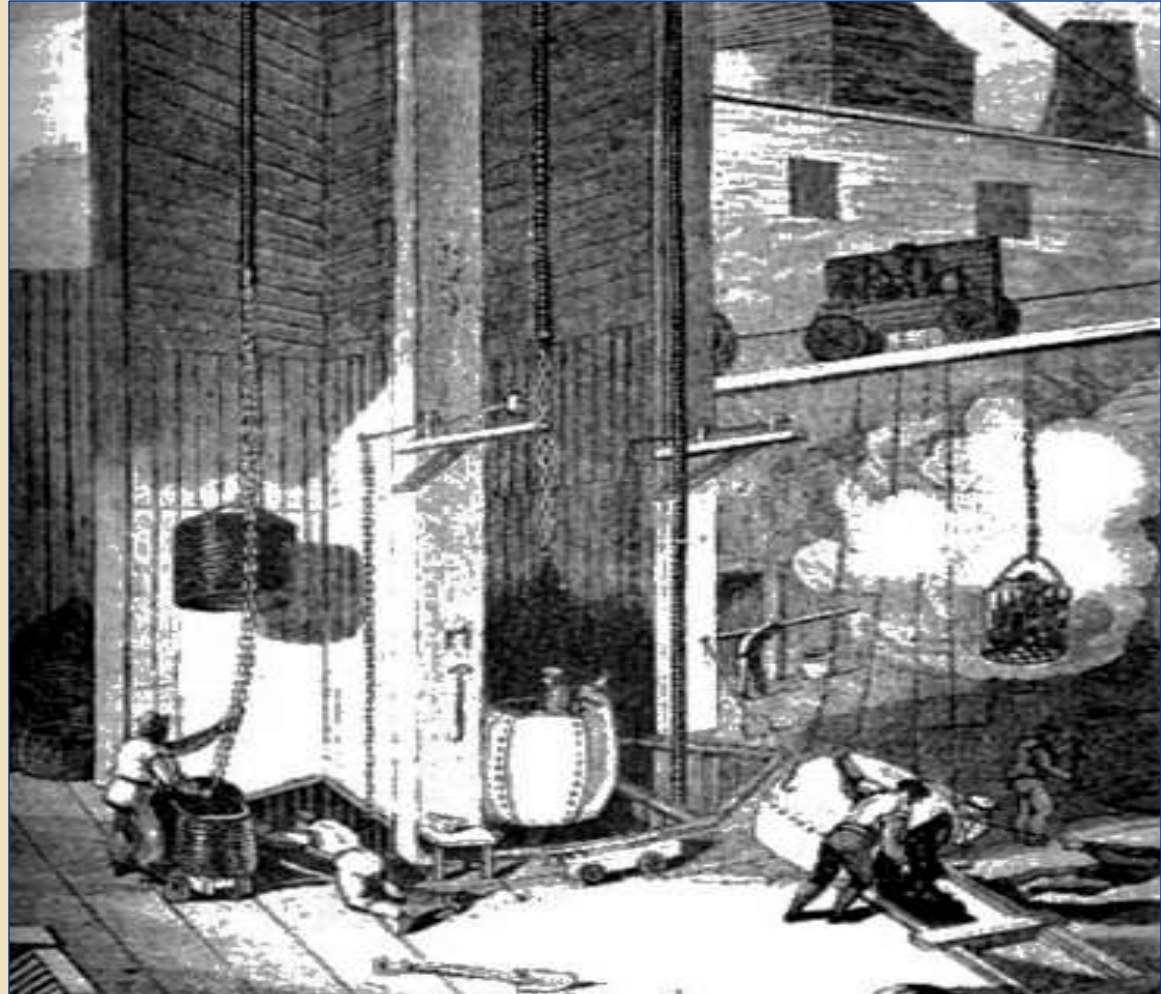
John Kay's “Flying Shuttle”



The Power Loom



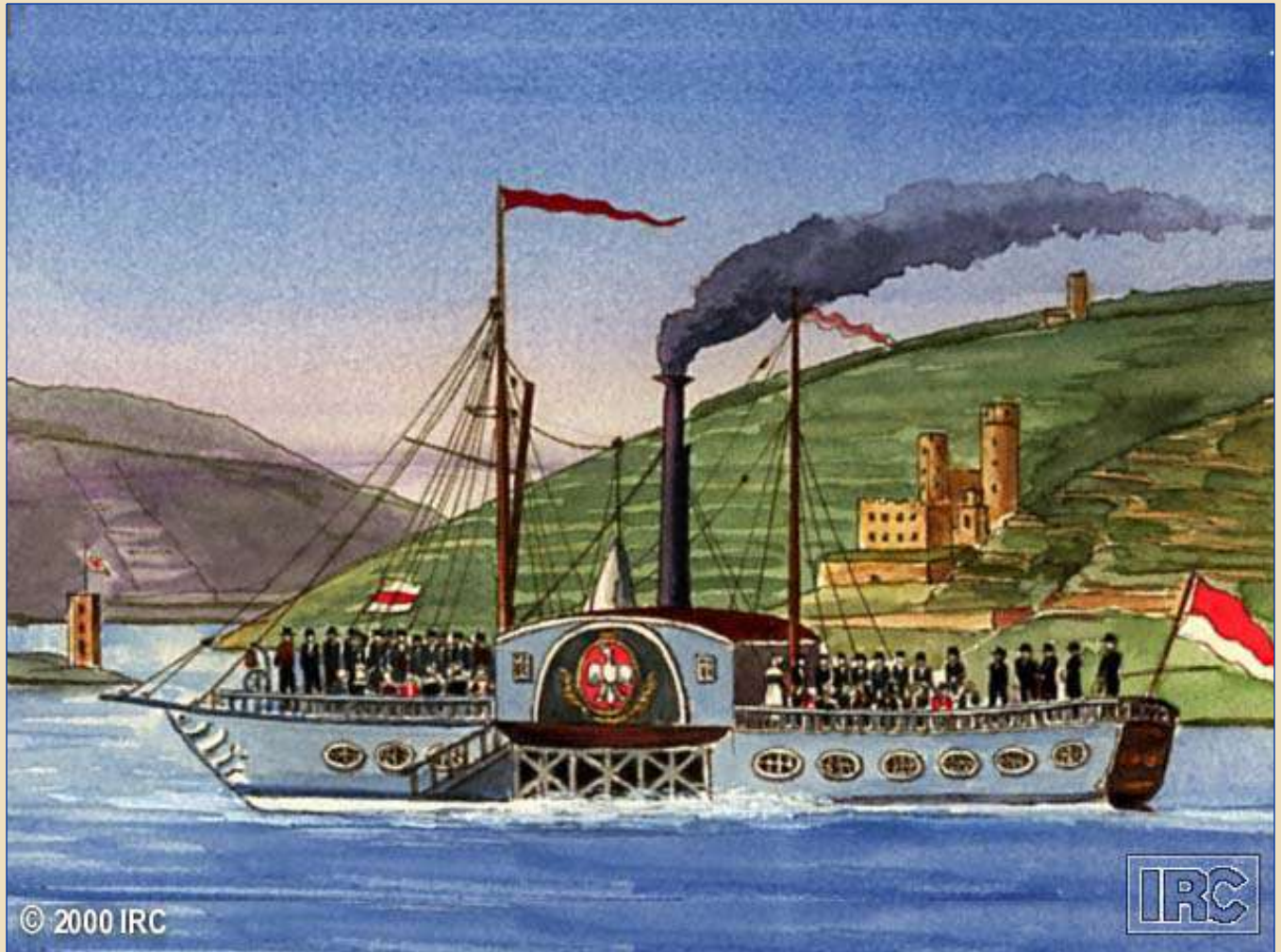
James Watt's Steam Engine



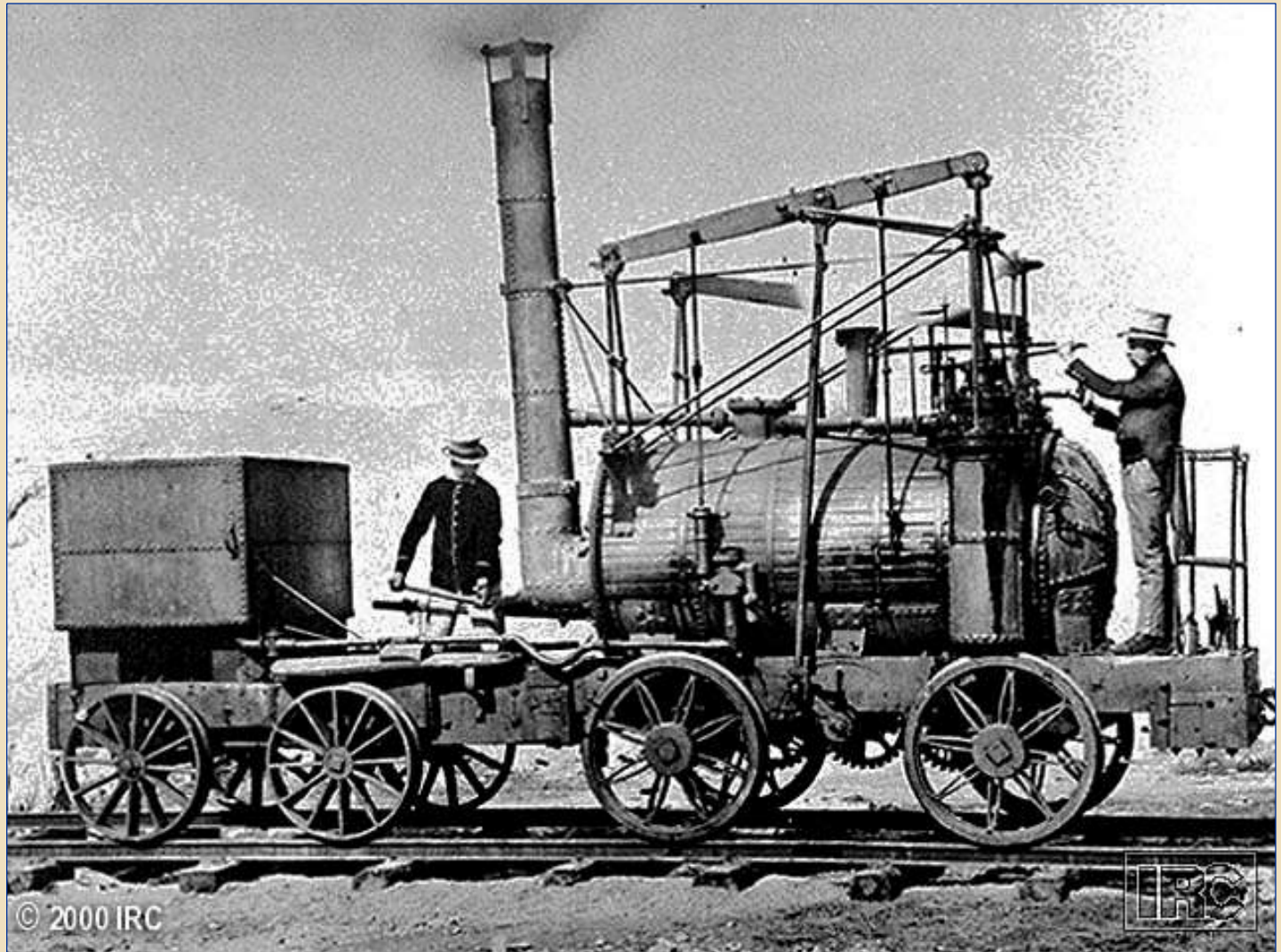
Steam Tractor



Steam Ship



An Early Steam Locomotive



Later Locomotives



I. The Industrial Revolution

B. Engines of Change

1. The Rise of the Railroad
2. Industrialization Moves Eastward to Belgium, Prussia, Saxony and Bohemia. Serfdom slowed the industrialization of eastern Europe, as it hindered labor mobility and tied up investment capital. The problem was worst in Russia, which industrialized very slowly.
3. Factories and Workers; child labor



Child Labor in Coal Mines

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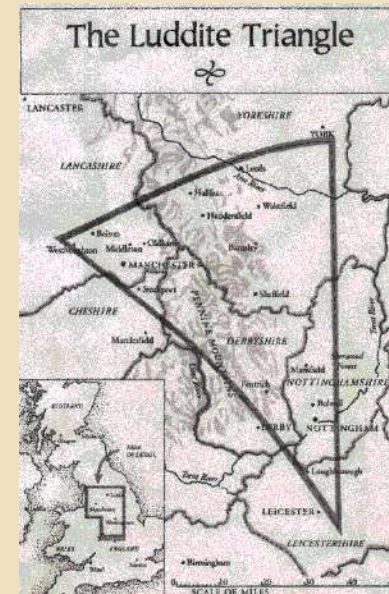
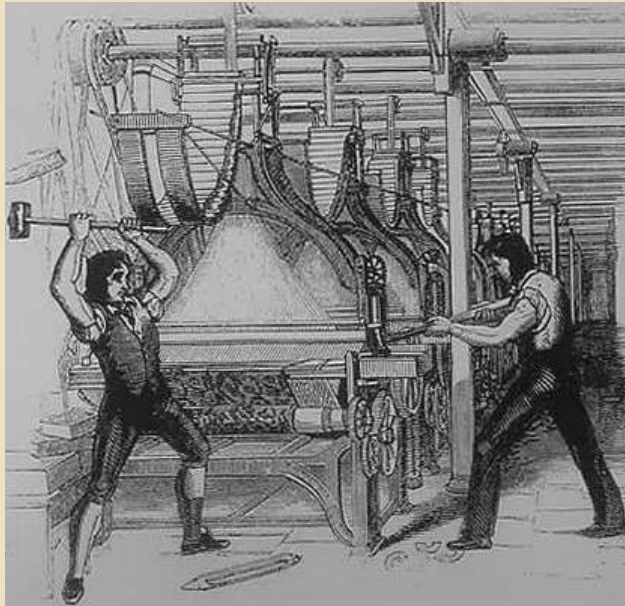
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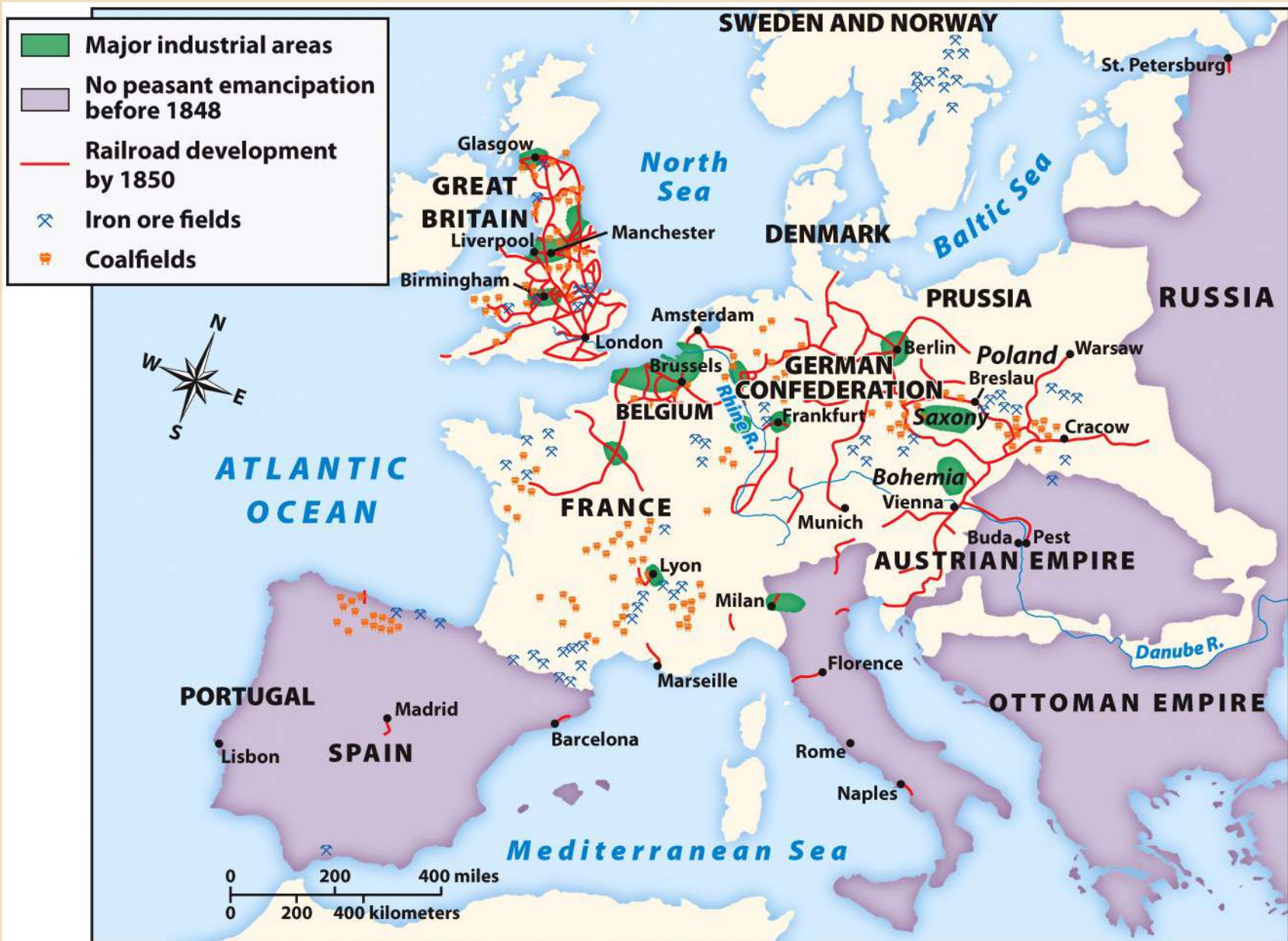
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Luddites Revolt

- From 1811-1817, there was a backlash against technology in central Britain.
- The Luddites were artisans and craftsmen angered by technological displacement.
- Named for the fictional Ned Ludd (like Robin Hood, he supposedly lived in Sherwood Forest), they attacked factories and destroyed machinery.



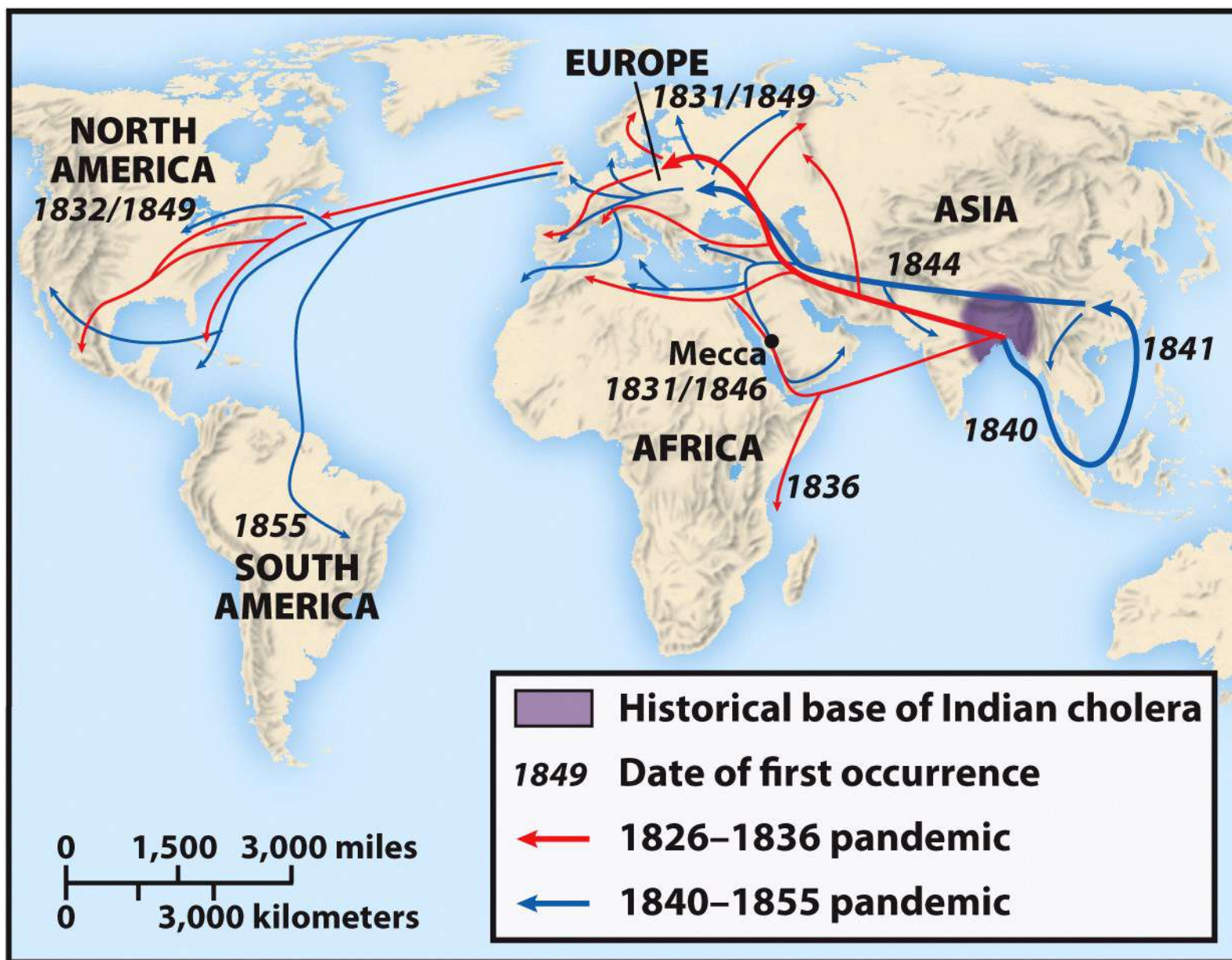


MAP 21.1 Industrialization in Europe, c. 1850
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I. The Industrial Revolution

C. Urbanization and Its Consequences

1. Overcrowding and Disease- by 1850, half of Brit. Pop. Lived in cities, led to contaminated water and diseases like cholera and tuberculosis
2. Middle Class Fears -overcrowding led to class tensions, middle class considered poor morally degenerate; illegitimacy, infanticide, drinking, crime, poverty proliferated



MAP 21.2 The Spread of Cholera, 1826–1855
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I. The Industrial Revolution

D. Agricultural Perils and Prosperity

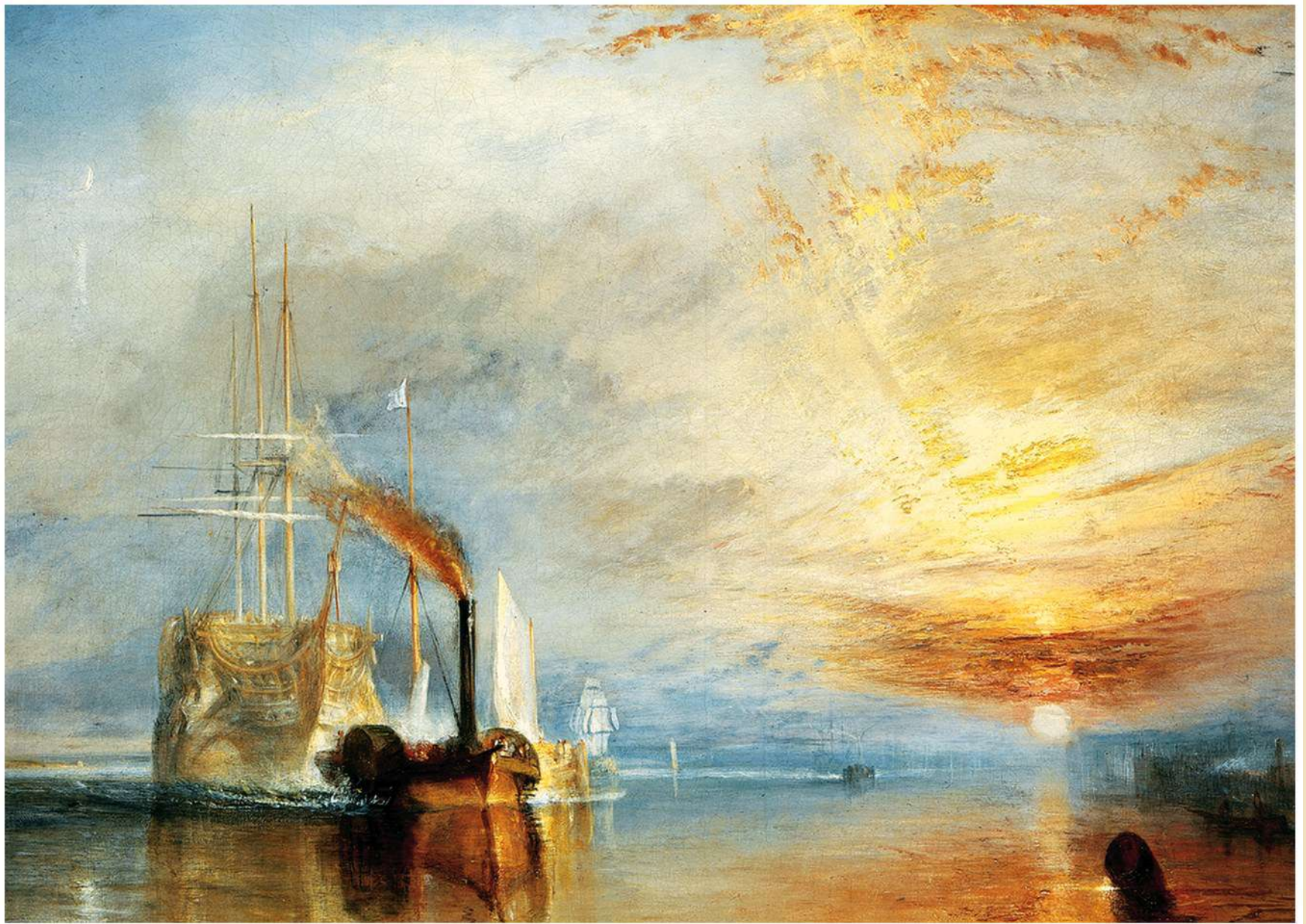
1. Rising Populations and Increased Demand for Food in the Countryside – pop growth threatened to outpace food production
2. Changes in Rural Life – women took on more agricultural role as men migrated to factory work, large numbers of immigrants to US, awareness of birth control
3. The Persistence of the Rural Elite – despite loss of rural pop, rural elite still held much political power

SUPERSIZERS EAT REGENCY

II. Reforming the Social Order

A. Cultural Responses to the Social Question

1. Romantic Concerns about Industrial Life- romantic authors and artists sought to either recapture pre-industrial glory or capture power of machines (JMW Turner)
2. The Depictions of Social Conditions in Novels- greater literacy, serialized novels, libraries. Romantic and realist authors (**Balzac**, Dickens, Jane Austen, **Charlotte Bronte**, **George Sand**)
3. The Explosion of Culture – theater, galleries, museums, periodicals, photography



Joseph M. W. Turner, *The Fighting "Temeraire" Tugged to Her Last Berth to Be Broken Up* (1838)

© The National Gallery, London, UK/Art Resource, NY

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II. Reforming the Social Order

B. The Varieties of Social Reform

1. The Religious Impulse for Social Reform – Protestant and Catholic reform groups, comprised mostly of women led reform efforts and missionary work
2. Education and Reform of the Poor- education became major focus, primary schools and mechanics institutes founded; Britain began “workhouse” movement
3. Domesticity and the Subordination of Women – most prevalent among upper and middle class

II. Reforming the Social Order

C. Abuses and Reforms Overseas

1. Abolition of Slavery – Britain and France abolished slavery by 1830s
2. Economic and Political Imperialism - colonialism
3. The East India Company and the Opium War – by 1830s British opium traders pressured British govt into keeping Chinese market open. Chinese resisted, led to Opium Wars. By **Treaty of Nanking**, China gave in and paid reparations and British got **Hong Kong**



III. Ideologies and Political Movements

A. The Spell of Nationalism

1. Nationalism in Austria and Germany -Nationalism encouraged people to achieve political autonomy and self-determination based on ethnicity, not class. Nations, defined by language, shared traditions, or religion, offered a challenge to existing state boundaries. This was especially true in the multi-ethnic Austrian Empire, which included Germans, Hungarians (Magyars), Slavs, and other groups. Prince Klemens von Metternich aimed to restrain nationalist impulses through the use of censorship and secret police. Italian nationalist Giuseppe Mazzini (1805-1872), exiled to France, founded Young Italy, a secret society dedicated to an Italian-led, European-wide revolution. The Austrians discouraged German nationalism but Prussia established a German customs union in 1834, excluding Austria.

2. Nationalism in Poland — After the collapse of the revolt of 1830, many Polish nationalists lived in exile. The mystical poetry of Adam Mickiewicz (1798-1855) portrayed the exiles as martyrs with an international Christian mission. In 1846 they launched an insurrection in the Polish Austrian province of Galicia from Paris but the peasantry slaughtered not the Austrians but their Polish masters.

3. Nationalism in Russia — Russian nationalists (Slavophiles) often opposed western ideas. They championed rural life and the Russian Orthodox church, opposing the “corrosion” of rationalism and materialism. They sometimes opposed the government, particularly for its power over the church.

4. Nationalism in Ireland — The Irish continued to struggle against English occupation. The Young Ireland movement, formed in 1842, aimed to recover history and preserve the Gaelic language. Irish landowner and representative to Parliament Daniel O’Connell attracted huge crowds with his call to repeal the 1801 Act of Union, which had made Ireland part of Great Britain. In 1843 “monster meetings” drew hundreds of thousands to support repeal of the union. O’Connell was arrested, but the Irish example showed how social tensions could strengthen nationalism.



MAP 21.3 Languages of Nineteenth-Century Europe
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III. Ideologies and Political Movements

B. Liberalism in Economics and Politics

1. British Liberalism

Liberalism, less populist than nationalism, traced its ideas back to John Locke and the Enlightenment. Its mostly middle-class supporters encouraged personal liberty, free trade, and constitutional government. Philosopher [Jeremy Bentham](#) (1748-1832) criticized all institutions that failed to increase human happiness, including parliament, prisons, and the educational system. British liberals wanted the government to improve social conditions but avoid interfering with the economy. They also sought to lower tariffs and repeal the Corn Laws, which kept the price of bread artificially high. Tory Prime Minister Robert Peel repealed them in 1846 under pressure from the liberal Anti-Corn Law League.



2. Liberalism on the Continent — On the continent free trade had less appeal because continental industries needed protection against British industrial dominance. As a result liberals on the continent focused more on constitutional reform. In France, Louis-Phillipe's government brutally repressed working class and republican movements, thwarting liberal reform and reestablishing censorship. Liberal reform movements grew up around industrial areas in Prussia, some German states, and in Austria. Some state bureaucrats supported liberal reform as well. Magyar nationalist Lajos Kossuth (1802-1894) did all he could to promote American democracy and British political liberalism. His Protective Association boycotted Austrian goods to break "colonial" dependence. In Russia, small groups of liberals met in cities to discuss western ideas and criticize the state. Tsar Nicholas I (r. 1825-1855) banned western liberal writings and books about the United States, sending thousands into exile in Siberia for political activity.

III. Ideologies and Political Movements

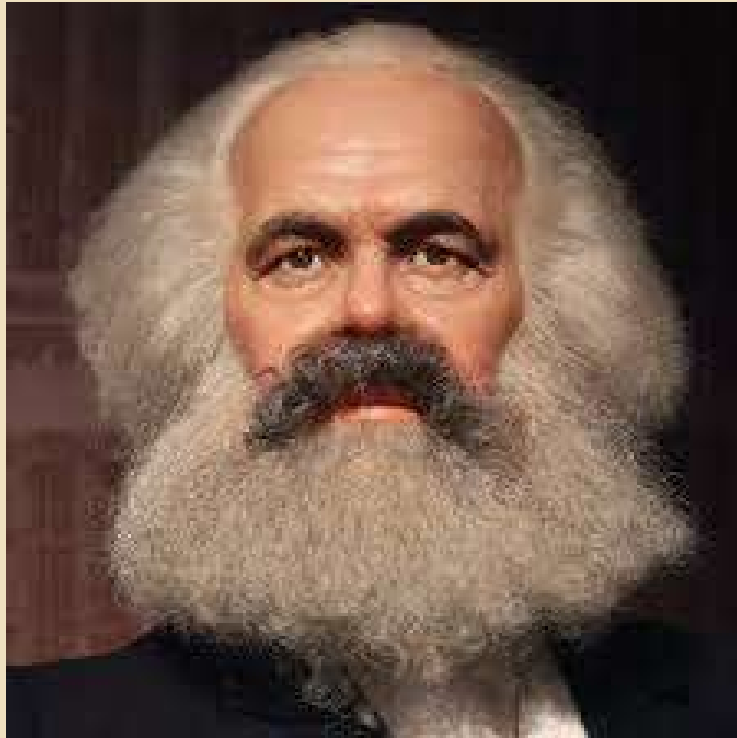
C. Socialism and the Early Labor Movement

1. Origins of Socialism – early socialists sought to restore social harmony through social reform; included Welsh manufacturer Robert Owen (1771-1858) who established model factory towns, Claude Henri de Saint-Simon (1760-1825) and Charles Fourier (1772-1837), who attempted to rationalize industrial society, maximize happiness, and correct abuses.

2. Socialism and Women — Fournier's vision of socialism demanded the emancipation of women. Saint-Simon's followers established a quasi-religious cult after his death, living cooperatively and (scandalously) advocating free love. In 1832 some Saint-Simonian women founded a feminist newspaper. In Britain, many women joined Owenite cooperative communities. Flora Tristan (1801-1844), a French activist familiar with working conditions in London, published streams of books and pamphlets urging workers to address the unequal status of women.

3. Collectivists and Communists — Working class associations were advocated by activists such as Louis Blanc (1811-1882) and Joseph Proudhon (1809-1865). After 1840, some socialists began to call themselves communists, emphasizing their desire to replace private property with collective ownership. Etienne Cabet (1788-1856) was the first to use the term in his fictional description of a communist utopia. Karl Marx (1818-1883) an activist and a newspaper editor, and Friedrich Engels (1820-1895), whose family owned factories, met in Paris and formed the Communist League, publishing the Communist Manifesto in 1848, which argued that class conflict would produce a new society dominated by the “proletariat” working class, destroying private property.





- **History is driven by economics, dialectical materialism (influenced by German philosopher Hegel)**
- **Those that control the means of production (land, labor, capital, entrepreneurship), control the world**

Four Epochs/Periods of Human History

- 1. Primitive Communism
 - hunters & gathers;
 - production of food and other material goods was a common effort shared virtually equally by all members of society.
 - Resources of nature shared by all, everyone performed similar tasks, little opportunity for social conflict

**ONLY EXAMPLE OF A
CLASSLESS SOCIETY**





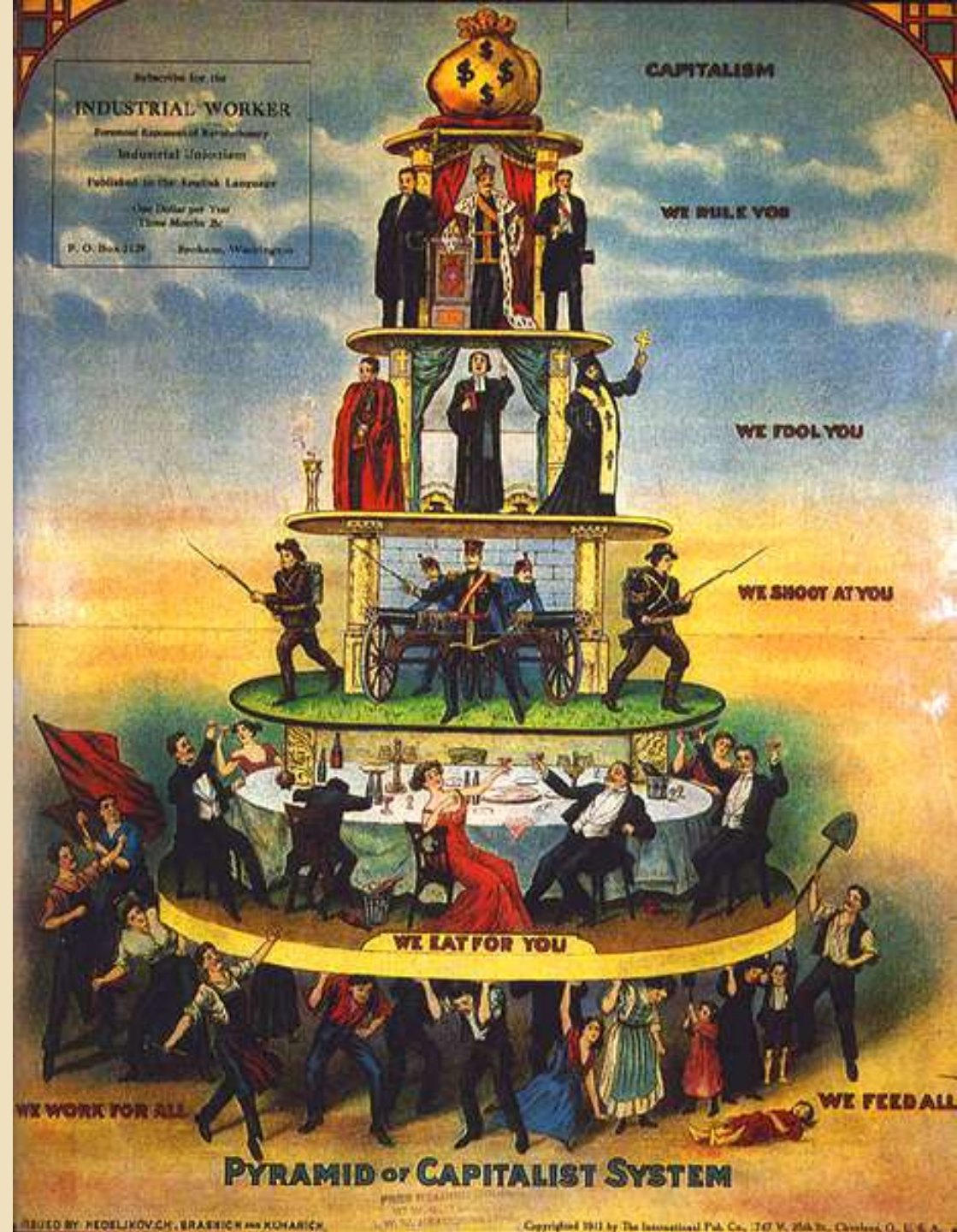
2. Ancient society (master and slave)

3. Feudal society (lord and serf)



4. Capitalist society (bourgeoisie and proletariat)

- All periods after
Primitive
Communism
characterized by
class conflict,
inequality,
exploitation



Class conflict and struggle drives historic change

- 5th and final stage = communism/socialism
- Proletariat rises up and overthrows bourgeoisie, eventually creating a classless, property-less, equal society
- “From each according to his abilities, to each according to his needs.”



IV. The Revolutions of 1848

A. The Hungry Forties

1. Crop Failures and Food Shortages— Food shortages and overpopulation contributed to revolution in 1848. Beginning in 1845, widespread European crop failures drove up food prices beyond the means of many workers. Overpopulation, especially in Ireland, where potato crops failed, led to severe famine and mass emigration. Famine destroyed social peace, as workers protested high prices, often attacking bakeries and markets.

2. Declining Industrial Demand and Increasing Unemployment



MAP 21.4 The Revolutions of 1848
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IV. The Revolutions of 1848

B. Another French Revolution

1. Revolt and a New Republic-Unhappy citizens criticized governments. In France a reform demonstration turned violent in February 1848, leading Louis-Phillipe to abdicate. The provisional government declared France a republic, and the new government undertook liberal reforms, including universal male suffrage.



2. Liberal Reforms and the “National Workshops” — National workshops were established to provide construction work for minimal wages to unemployed men (and later women). To pay for the workshops the government levied a surtax on property taxes, which alienated peasants and landowners. Newspapers and political clubs thrived in the cities, with many women involved and demanding representation.

3. Rising Radicalism — Tensions between the government, middle-class liberals and conservatives, and workers in the national workshops rose. A conservative National Assembly was elected in April, whose mostly middle-class members sought a moderate republic or a restoration of the monarchy.

4. The June Days — As workers in the workshops increased dramatically, the government moved to end the system. In response workers took to the streets by the tens of thousands. During the June Days, as the following week came to be called, the army, the National Guard, and the mobile guard were joined by provincial volunteers to put down the uprising. More than ten thousand demonstrators were killed and twelve thousand were arrested.

5. Louis-Napoleon Bonaparte and the End of the Second Republic — The National Assembly adopted a new constitution. A presidential election brought the dead emperor's nephew, Louis-Napoleon to office. In 1852 he declared himself Emperor Napoleon III, inaugurating the Second Empire. Political and class conflict had doomed the Second Republic.

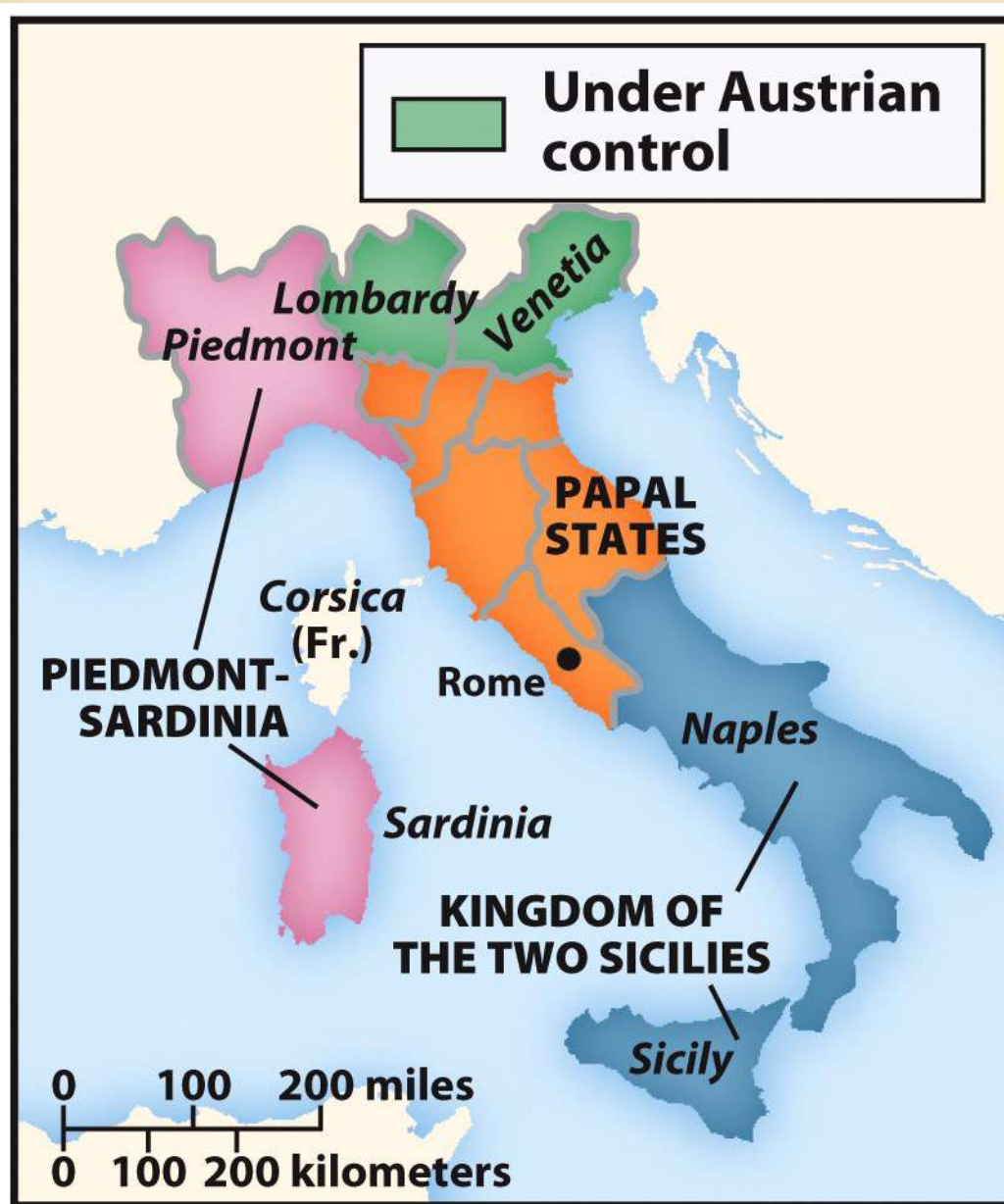
IV. The Revolutions of 1848

C. Nationalist Revolution in Italy

1. Popular Uprisings in Italy- Economic crisis and ideological turmoil led to revolutions across Europe. Uprisings occurred throughout Italy, particularly after news of the Paris revolutions broke. In Milan and Venice, nationalists attacked Austrian forces. In the south, peasants occupied their landlords' estates. In central Italy, peasants demanded land and workers and artisans sought higher wages. Class and regional differences made unity a challenge. Some nationalists wanted a federation, others a monarchy under Charles

2. War with Austria — Charles Albert led a military campaign against the Austrian presence, but was defeated. Democratic and nationalist forces succeeded in the south, driving the pope from Rome and declaring a republic under Giuseppe Garibaldi (1807-1882) and Giuseppe Mazzini.

3. Foreign Intervention — French intervention under Louis Napoleon to bring pope Pius IX back to Rome ended the revolution, but not the growth of Italian nationalism.



IV. The Revolutions of 1848

D. Revolt and Reaction in Central Europe

1. The Frankfurt Parliament and German Unification —
When popular demonstrations in Prussia turned violent, king Frederick William IV (r. 1840-1860) promised reforms. Most of the German states agreed to elect delegates to a federal parliament at Frankfurt that would attempt to unite Germany, but divisions among the delegates and continued social disorder doomed the drafting of a liberal constitution. Frederick William suppressed revolution in Berlin in the fall of 1848 and then intervened to put down local rebellions in the spring of 1849, restoring traditional rulers.

2. Uprisings in Vienna and Hungary — In March 1848 uprisings in Vienna led Metternich to resign and Emperor Ferdinand to promise a constitution and reforms. In addition to Italian demands for autonomy, the Austrians faced Magyar nationalists who demanded autonomy for Hungary, and revolution for political reform in Vienna itself. The Austrians granted Hungary home rule, and Hungarian nationalists became ministers in a new Hungarian government, although Magyars, at 50 percent of the population, were only the largest ethnic group in Hungary, with other ethnicities preferring Austrian to Magyar rule. In Prague, Czech nationalists convened a Slav congress and called for the reorganization of the empire.

3. Suppressing Provincial Revolutions in Austria — The Austrian government reformed peasant obligations and dues, and then repressed uprisings in Vienna and Prague. A new emperor, Francis Joseph (r. 1848-1916) assumed the throne from his feeble uncle, and the military put down the last of the Italian revolts in 1849. The Austrians cooperated with the Russian tsar Nicolas I in brutally suppressing revolt in Hungary. Social conflict and ethnic divisions weakened the revolutionary movements from the inside.

IV. The Revolutions of 1848

E. Aftermath to 1848: Reimposing Authority

1. Consequences of Revolution — The revolutions failed to transform Europe, but they had consequences. The return of republican rule affected French political culture. In Italy and Germany, nationalists were encouraged. Revolution and political clubs increased awareness and participation for the working class. Constitutions and parliaments were established in the German states.

2. Revolutionary Exceptions — Britain, the Netherlands, and Belgium avoided revolutions. Chartist demonstrations in Britain were resisted by the middle class, who supported the state. In Russia, the tsar kept a tight grip on power, using the military and secret police to preserve order. Social conditions there favored passivity and the lack of industrialization meant there was little discontent.

3. The Conservative Reaction — The aristocracy remained dominant in Europe, putting down rebellion as landlords, military officers, and government officials. The reassertion of conservative order hardened gender definitions. Women's participation in politics ended for the time being, and women's political activity was suppressed.

