

PART V

The Dawn of the Industrial Age, 1750–1914

The Industrial Revolution brought great changes to the Western economy and society. Major technological innovations intensified international commercial contacts. The West was able to acquire hegemony—through colonization or economic dependence—over most other world civilizations. Industrialism was not confined to the economic world, but affected art in many ways. Futurism, emerging around 1900, was inspired by industrial change, while Impressionism turned to natural subjects in reaction. Moreover, international exchange influenced artistic movements.

Triggers for Change. Many of the gunpowder empires were in difficulty in the beginning of the Modern period. It was at this time that innovations in Great Britain inaugurated the Industrial Revolution. Several factors led to change. European experience in the world economy drove manufacturers to speed up production, while governments encouraged commerce through a number of institutions. Population growth in Europe led to a ready supply of labor. The Enlightenment also contributed, fostering enthusiasm for innovation and faith in progress.

The Big Changes. New sources of power and new technology were at the heart of the Industrial Revolution, but the changes that resulted were more far-reaching. Fundamental change came in the balance between rural and urban living, with the number of workers in manufacturing outstripping those in agriculture for the first time in world history. Two groups of changes can be discerned. First, daily life was transformed, beginning with profound changes in the work day. As work changed, family dynamics changed. Politics were affected by the growing proletariat, as well as Enlightenment ideas and nationalism. Second, the consequences of industrialization spread worldwide. Some world areas began to industrialize, while many others became suppliers of cheap goods to the industrial world. Latin America is an example of the latter, supplying foodstuffs like coffee and raw materials like copper to fuel industrialization elsewhere. Moreover, Europeans moved into new areas, looking for opportunities to control low-cost sources of goods. Finally, two other deep-seated developments resulted. Slavery and serfdom were ended in most world areas. Lastly, intensification of production led to an increase in human impact on the environment.

Continuity. Industrialization, though revolutionary, occurred over several decades. Traditional modes of life continued even in the most industrialized countries. The impressive growth of cities and their attendant institutions masks the fact that rural life and customary commercial exchange continued. The power of the past is also apparent in the varied responses of different cultures. For example, China and Japan reacted very differently to industrialization, in part because of longstanding cultural differences. Not only did historical disparities influence response to change, but new customs appeared. Thanksgiving became a national holiday in the United States, as a means of promoting unity.

Impact on Daily Life: Leisure. In the industrialized world, leisure became a hindrance to greater productivity, and for the first time a sharp line was drawn between work and play. Yet, new sports came into being at the same time. Leisure itself was commercialized, as the travel industry emerged. The leisure activities of the West spread to nonindustrialized areas.

Societies and Trends. This section begins with developments in the West, starting with the settler societies of North America, Australia, and New Zealand, in Chapter 28. The world economy and the global impact of industrialization are the subject of Chapter 29. In Chapter 30, the focus is on formative changes in Latin America and how they related to world developments. Key developments in Asia, in response to Western pressure, are described in Chapter 31. Finally, Chapter 32 focuses on Russia and Japan as they began to industrialize.

CHAPTER 23

The Emergence of Industrial Society in the West, 1750–1914

Chapter Outline Summary

I. The Age of Revolution

Optimism Against All Odds

Marquis of Condorcet

Progress of the Human Mind

A. Forces of Change

Enlightenment

Commercialization

Population growth

B. The American Revolution

1775, outbreak of the American Revolution

French aid

1789, new constitution

C. Crisis in France in 1789

Enlightenment influenced

1789, Louis XVI called parliament

Assembly

Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen

July 14, Bastille attacked

Principles

serfdom abolished

equality for men

end to aristocratic privilege

church privilege ended

elective parliament

D. The French Revolution: Radical and Authoritarian Phases

Reaction

church

aristocracy

foreign powers

Radical shift

king executed

Reign of Terror

Maximilien Robespierre

1795, replaced by moderate government

Napoleon Bonaparte

authoritarian

supports key principles

expansionist

Empire

most of Europe by 1812

1815, defeated

E. A Conservative Settlement and the Revolutionary Legacy

Congress of Vienna of 1815

New political movements

Liberals

- constitutional rule
- protection of freedoms
- especially middle class

Radicals

- extension of voting rights

Socialism

- attacked property rights

Nationalists

Spread of Revolutions, 1820s, 1830s

- Greece, Spain, Portugal, France, Italy, Germany, Belgium

Extension of male suffrage

- Britain, United States

F. Industrialization and the Revolutions of 1848

Lower classes

- political action

Britain accommodated demands

Revolts in Germany, Austria, Hungary

France, 1848, monarch overthrown

Goals

- liberal constitutions

- social reform

 - end of serfdom

- women's rights

- ethnic demands

II. The Consolidation of the Industrial Order, 1850–1914

A. Adjustments to Industrial Life

Families

- birth and death rates down

Labor movements

Rural cooperatives

B. Political Trends and the Rise of New Nations

After 1850, leaders learned to adopt change

- Benjamin Disraeli

 - vote for working-class males, 1867

- Camillo di Cavour

 - supports industrialization

- Otto von Bismarck

 - vote for all adult males

Nationalism used

- Bismarck

 - German Unification, 1871

C. The Social Question and New Government Functions

School systems

- literacy increases

Welfare

- health, old age

Social reform became key political issue

Socialism

- Karl Marx

parties in Germany, Austria, France, 1880s
women gained right to vote in many countries

III. Cultural Transformations

A. Emphasis on Consumption and Leisure

Pleasure-seeking more acceptable

Consumerism

newspapers

entertainment

vacations

Leisure a commodity

team sports

travel industry

B. Advances in Scientific Knowledge

Rationalism

Darwin

evolution

Einstein

relativity

Social Sciences

science applied to human life

Freud

C. New Directions in Artistic Expression

Romanticism

opposed to rationalism

human emotion

split between artists and scientists

IV. Western Settler Societies

Industrialization makes west more powerful

impact of improved transportation, communication

A. Emerging Power of the United States

American Civil War, 1861–1865

spurs industrialization

B. European Settlements in Canada, Australia, and New Zealand

Peopled by immigrants

Follow European political, economic, cultural patterns

Canada

federal system

Australia

from 1788

gold rush, agricultural development

federal system by 1900

New Zealand

Maori defeated by 1860s

agricultural economy

V. Diplomatic Tensions and World War I

Rise of Germany

Bismarck

unsettled balance of power

European global expansion

Latin America independent

Africa controlled by Europeans

- China, Middle East
 - zones of European rivalry
- A. The New Alliance System
 - By 1907
 - Triple Alliance: Germany, Austria-Hungary, Italy
 - Triple Entente: Britain, Russia, France
 - Instability
 - Russian revolution, 1905
 - Austria-Hungary
 - ethnic conflict
 - Balkans
 - free of Ottoman control
 - divided by enmities
 - 1914, assassination of Austrian archduke
- B. Diplomacy and Society
 - Instability in 1800s
 - nationalism
 - political division
 - industrial pressures

Chapter Summary

Anti-Chinese Riots in America. The anti-Chinese riot in Milwaukee in 1889 was one of several occurring in the 1880s. Fears of white slavery led to burning and looting of Chinese stores, and most of those threatened departed as a result. The episode can be explained by an increasingly international setting, even for seemingly domestic incidents. Chinese immigration, largely destined for railway work, was the first Asians moving to the Americas. Many Americans were apprehensive about Chinese immigration, to the extent that it was eventually limited by the national government. Important internal developments in the West, such as the spreading out of settler societies, must be placed against a new international framework.

Chapter Summary. Western society was dominated by two themes: political upheaval, and the spread of Western institutions and values to settler societies. By 1914, monarchies had been overthrown and parliamentary democracy expanded. More individuals voted. European settler societies became important international players in an altered world balance of power. Western society experienced dramatic cultural changes. The transformation can be subdivided: from the late 18th century, a growing crisis caused a host of changes; experimentation with change occurred between 1775 and 1850; and from 1850 to 1914 a more mature stage was reached.

The Age of Revolution. A series of political revolutions began in 1775 with the American Revolution and continued with the deeply influential French Revolution of 1789, and later lesser revolutions. *Progress of the Human Mind*, written by the Marquis of Condorcet, was imbued with a belief in the perfectability of mankind. (This in spite of the fact that its author was at the time in hiding from the leaders of the French Revolution.) The age of revolution, beginning with the American and French Revolutions, was marked by both faith in change, and a longing to restore the past.

Forces of Change. Three forces were threatening Europe's calm by the mid-18th century. The first was cultural; Enlightenment thinking provided an ideological basis for change, while the previous accomplishments made in Western societies provided the essential foundations. Commercialization stirred the economy, with the resulting wealth and new production techniques affecting businessmen,

artisans, and peasants. Finally, the population soared in Western Europe. The capitalist system absorbed many, creating a propertyless class dependent upon wages. Significant social changes followed.

The American Revolution. American colonists after 1763 resisted British attempts to impose new taxes and trade controls and to restrict free westward movement. They argued against being taxed without representation. Younger men seeking new opportunities turned against the older colonial leadership. Revolution followed in 1775. British strategic mistakes and French assistance helped Americans to win independence. In 1789, they created a new constitutional structure based upon Enlightenment principles. The revolution, by extending male voting rights, created one of the world's most radical societies. Social change was more limited: slavery continued unaffected.

Crisis in France in 1789. In France, ideological fervor for change had been growing from the mid-18th century. Enlightenment thinkers called for limitations upon aristocratic and church power and for an increased voice for ordinary citizens. Middle-class people wanted a greater political role, while peasants desired freedom from landlord exactions. The government and ruling elite proved incapable of reform. Louis XVI called a meeting of the long-ignored traditional parliament, but lost control of events to middle-class representatives during 1789. The proclamation of the *Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen* by the assembly, and the storming of the Bastille, were important events in the evolution of a new regime. After peasants acted on their own to redress grievances, the assembly abolished serfdom and established equality before the law. Aristocratic principles were undercut, and church privileges were attacked and its property seized. A parliament with male voting rights based on property limited royal authority.

The French Revolution: Radical and Authoritarian Phases. The initial reforms provoked aristocratic and church resistance, causing civil war in some regions. Foreign regimes opposed the new government. The pressures led to a takeover of the revolution by more radical groups. The monarchy was abolished and the king executed; internal enemies of the regime were purged during the Reign of Terror. The new rulers, led by Robespierre, wished to extend reforms, calling for universal male suffrage and broad social reform. The metric system was introduced and all citizens became subject to military service. The invaders of France were driven out and revolutionary fervor spread to other European nations. The radical leadership of the revolution fell in 1795 and more moderate government followed. The final phase of the revolution appeared when a leading general, Napoleon Bonaparte, converted the revolutionary republic into an authoritarian empire. Napoleon confirmed many of the revolution's accomplishments, including religious liberty and equality under the law for men. Napoleon concentrated on foreign expansion; France, by 1812, dominated most of western Europe except for Britain. Popular resistance in Portugal and Spain, a disastrous invasion of Russia, and British intervention crushed Napoleon's empire by 1815. The ideals of the revolution—equality under the law, the attack on privileged institutions, popular nationalism—survived the defeat.

A Conservative Settlement and the Revolutionary Legacy. The victorious allies worked to restore a balance of power at the Congress of Vienna of 1815. France was not punished severely, although its border states were strengthened. Europe remained fairly stable for half a century, but internal peace was not secured. Although conservative victors attempted to repress revolutionary radicalism, new movements arose to challenge them. Liberals sought to limit state interference in individual life and to secure representation of propertied classes in government. Radicals wanted more and pushed for extended voting rights. Socialists attacked private property and capitalist exploitation. Nationalists, allied with the other groups, stressed national unity. New revolutions with varying results occurred in the 1820s and 1830s in Greece, Spain, Portugal, France, Italy, Germany, and Belgium. Britain and the United States were part of the process, but without revolution, as they extended male suffrage. Most of the revolutions secured increased guarantees of liberal rights and religious freedom.

Industrialization and the Revolutions of 1848. Industrialization stimulated revolutionary ferment. Other Western nations quickly followed British models. Lower-class groups began to turn to political action to compensate for industrial change. Britain moved peacefully, but in other nations revolts occurred in 1848 and 1849 when governments proved unresponsive. A popular rising in France in 1848 overthrew the monarchy in favor of a brief democratic republic. Urban artisans pressed for social reform and women

agitated for equal rights. The revolution spread to Germany, Austria, and Hungary. Adherents sought liberal constitutions, social reforms restricting industrialization, and the termination of serfdom. Also present were ethnic demands for unity or increased autonomy. The 1848–1849 revolutions generally failed as conservatives and middle-class groups protected their interests. An authoritarian empire emerged in France. Peasants alone secured their aims, making them very conservative henceforth. The general failure taught potential revolutionaries that gradual methods had to be followed. By 1850 a new class structure was in place. The old alliances producing revolutions had dissolved. Aristocrats declined in power as social structure became based on wealth. Middle-class property owners now were pitted against a working class.

The Consolidation of the Industrial Order, 1850–1914. Industrial development continued after 1850, bringing new social changes. Political unification came to Germany and Italy, and governments elsewhere developed new functions. The rise of socialism changed political conditions. Urban growth continued, but at a slower pace; in the cities the conditions of living ameliorated for all classes.

Adjustments to Industrial Life. Family life adjusted to the changes imposed by the industrial economy. Stable populations resulted from declining birth and death rates. Greater value was placed on childhood. Material conditions generally improved as individuals enjoyed better diets, housing, health, and leisure time. The development of corporations utilizing stockholder funds changed business life. Labor movements formed and provided strength for seeking better wages and working conditions. Peasant protests declined and rural isolation diminished. Peasants learned to use market conditions to improve their lives. They developed cooperatives, specialized in cash crops, and sent children to school to learn better techniques.

Political Trends and the Rise of New Nations. Western leaders worked to reduce the reasons for revolution after 1850. Liberals and Conservatives realized that cautious change was acceptable to their interests. British conservative Benjamin Disraeli granted the vote to working-class males in 1867. Camillo di Cavour in the Italian state of Piedmont supported industrialization and increased parliament's powers. Otto von Bismarck of Prussia extended the vote to all adult males. Conservatives used the force of nationalism to win support for the existing social order. In Britain and the United States, they won support by identifying with imperial causes. Cavour stimulated nationalist rebellion to unite most of the Italian peninsula under the state of Piedmont. Bismarck fought wars in the 1860s and 1870s that led to German unity in 1871. Other nations also reduced key political issues. The American Civil War of the 1860s ended the dispute over regional rights and abolished slavery. France established a conservative republic based upon full adult male suffrage. Most Western nations by then had parliamentary systems in which basic liberties were protected and political parties contested peacefully for office.

The Social Question and New Government Functions. Government functions expanded after 1870. Civil service exams allowed individuals to win positions through their own talent. School systems generally became compulsive to the age of 12; literacy became almost universal. Wider welfare measures replaced or supplemented private agencies providing assistance for accidents, illness, and old age. A realignment of the political spectrum occurred. Social issues became the key criteria for partisanship. The rise of socialism depended upon working class grievances and reflected Karl Marx's theory that made socialism the final phase of historical development. Leaders in many countries translated his theories into political action. Socialist parties became major forces in Germany, Austria, and France by the 1880s. Some socialists—revisionists—became supporters of parliamentary democracy to achieve their goals. Feminist movements by 1900 also challenged the existing order, sometimes by violent action. Many Western countries extended the right to vote to women during the early decades of the 20th century.

Cultural Transformations. Western culture changed because of consumer emphasis and developments in science and the arts.

Emphasis on Consumption and Leisure. Higher wages and increased leisure time produced important alterations in popular culture. Many working-class males and females accepted middle-class values. The idea grew that pleasure was a legitimate part of life. The productive capacity of factories meant that consumption had to be encouraged. Product crazes occurred; the stimulated consumerism overcame older customs hindering pleasure seeking. Mass leisure culture emerged with popular newspapers,

entertainment, and vacations. Leisure had become a commodity to be regularly enjoyed. The rise of disciplined team sports was one aspect of the change. All the popular interests demonstrated a growing secularism present in all aspects of life.

Advances in Scientific Knowledge. Science continued to gain ground, but many other intellectual movements attempted to explain reality. The size of the intellectual and artistic community expanded and found a growing market for its products. Most of the activity was secular. Western cultural activity had been built on rationalism, and the continuing advances in science kept the tradition alive. In biology, Darwin offered his evolutionary theory, and Einstein advanced the theory of physical relativity. The social sciences advanced as a means of gathering empirical knowledge concerning human affairs. Freud developed his theories of the workings of human unconsciousness.

New Directions in Artistic Expression. Rationalism was not the only intellectual current. Romanticism insisted that emotion and impression were the keys to understanding human experience. By 1900, the abandonment of conventional standards had expanded to painting, sculpture, and music. The split between romanticism and rationalism caused much debate; scientists were supporters of the industrial order, while artists followed experimental paths to finding the reality of modern life. At neither popular nor formal levels did Western culture produce a synthesis during the 19th century.

Western Settler Societies. The Industrial Revolution prompted a major expansion of the West's power. New markets for manufactured goods and new sources of raw materials were needed. Transportation and communication networks intensified the impact of the Western-led world economy. Industrialization also allowed Europeans and their superior weapons to build empires. Massive European immigration created overseas Western societies.

The Emerging United States. The Civil War, 1861–1865, was the most important event in the U.S. in the 19th century. The conflict was the first modern war; industrially produced weapons caused extensive casualties. The Civil War accelerated American industrialization and made the United States a major competitor of the leading industrial nations. New technology greatly elevated American agricultural production and exports. American cultural life was parochial, with little overseas influence.

European Settlements in Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. The three British colonies received many immigrants during the 19th century. They established parliamentary governments, vigorous commercial economies, and followed European cultural patterns. Canada, after continuing friction between British rulers and French inhabitants, formed a federal system with the majority of the French residing in Quebec. The Australian colonies developed after 1788 amidst an indigenous hunting-and-gathering population. Agricultural development and the discovery of gold spurred population growth and the economy. A federal system of government emerged by 1900. In New Zealand, missionaries and settlers moved into Maori lands. The Maori were defeated by the 1860s. General good relations followed, and New Zealand developed a strong agricultural economy and a parliamentary system. The three territories remained part of the British Empire and were dependent on its economy. Basic European cultural forms prevailed.

Thinking Historically: Two Revolutions: Industrial and Atlantic. During the long 19th century, two major revolutionary movements launched from Western Europe with implications in other parts of the world: the Industrial and Atlantic revolutions. The Industrial Revolution began in Britain and featured economic and technological progress based on new power structures developed during the scientific revolution. The Atlantic revolutions include the American Revolution and the French Revolution both which impacted Europe. In addition, the Atlantic revolutions include the Haitian Revolution, and the Latin American wars of independence. These revolutionary movements reflected the new forces of nationalism and liberalism. Combined with the Industrial Revolution, they will have a big impact on world history.

Diplomatic Tensions and World War I. The power balance within Europe was altered by the rise of Germany. Bismarck realized this and created a complex alliance system to protect Germany. European nations expended their energies in an overseas expansion that by 1900, covered most of the globe. Latin America remained independent, but was under extensive United States interest. Most of Africa was divided among European nations. China and the Middle East were the scenes of intense competition

among the great powers. Imperial rivalries were a part of the tensions among Europeans. Britain worried about the growth of the German navy and Germany's surging economy. France, to escape diplomatic isolation, drew closer to Britain and Russia.

The New Alliance System. By 1907 the great powers were divided into two alliance systems. Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy were in the Triple Alliance; Britain, Russia, and France formed the Triple Entente. All powers built up military strength. Each system was dependent upon an unstable partner. Russia suffered from revolution in 1905; Austria-Hungary was plagued by ethnic nationality disputes. Both nations were involved in Balkan disputes. Balkan nations had won independence from the Ottomans during the 19th century, but hostility persisted among them, while nationalism threatened Austria-Hungary and its Slav population. Continuing crises finally led to the assassination of an Austrian archduke by a Serbian nationalist. The response of the nations in the two European alliances resulted in World War I.

Diplomacy and Society. The West had long been characterized by political rivalries, and during the 19th century its nation-states system, free from serious challenge from other states, became unstable. Western society was strained by an industrialization that increased the destructive capacity of warfare. Political leaders, more worried about social protest among the masses, tried to distract them by diplomatic successes. Many among the masses, full of nationalistic pride, applauded such actions. The idea of violence appealed to the West's increasingly disciplined society.

GLOBAL CONNECTIONS: Industrial Europe and the World. Growing European power during the 19th century transformed the world. The European pattern became a controversial global model. Conservatives feared the resulting changes, but nationalists realized that emulation could be utilized to counter Europe's power. Western ideologies were used against colonial controls and economic exploitation.

KEY TERMS

Population revolution: huge growth in population in western Europe beginning about 1730; prelude to industrialization.

Proto-industrialization: preliminary shift away from an agricultural economy; workers become full-or part-time producers who worked at home in a capitalist system in which materials, work, orders, and sales depended on urban merchants; prelude to the Industrial Revolution.

American Revolution: rebellion of the British American Atlantic seaboard colonies; ended with the formation of the independent United States.

French Revolution: overthrow of the Bourbon monarchy through a revolution beginning in 1789; created a republic and eventually ended with Napoleon's French Empire; the source of many liberal movements and constitutions in Europe.

Louis XVI: Bourbon ruler of France who was executed during the radical phase of the French Revolution.

Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen: adopted during the French Revolution; proclaimed the equality of French citizens; became a source document for later liberal movements.

Guillotine: introduced as a method of humane execution; utilized during the French Revolution against thousands of individuals, especially during the Reign of Terror.

Maximilien Robespierre: leader of the radical phase of the French Revolution; presided over the Reign of Terror; arrested and executed by moderate revolutionaries.

Napoleon Bonaparte: army officer who rose in rank during the wars of the French Revolution; ended the democratic phase of the revolution; became emperor; deposed and exiled in 1815.

Congress of Vienna: met in 1815 after the defeat of France to restore the European balance of power.

Liberalism: political ideology that flourished in 19th-century western Europe; stressed limited state interference in private life, representation of the people in government; urged importance of constitutional rule and parliaments.

Radicals: followers of a 19th-century western European political emphasis: advocated broader voting rights than liberals; urged reforms favoring the lower classes.

Socialism: political ideology in 19th-century Europe; attacked private property in the name of equality; wanted state control of the means of production and an end to the capitalistic exploitation of the working class.

Nationalism: European 19th-century viewpoint; often allied with other “isms”; urged the importance of national unity; valued a collective identity based on ethnic origins.

Greek Revolution: rebellion of the Greeks against the Ottoman Empire in 1820; a key step in the disintegration of the Turkish Balkan empire.

French Revolution of 1830: second revolution against the Bourbon dynasty; a liberal movement which created a bourgeois government under a moderate monarchy.

Belgian Revolution of 1830: produced Belgian independence from the Dutch; established a constitutional monarchy.

Reform Bill of 1832: British legislation that extended the vote to most male members of the middle class.

James Watt: devised a steam engine in the 1770s that could be used for production in many industries; a key step in the Industrial Revolution.

Factory system: intensification of all of the processes of production at a single site during the Industrial Revolution; involved greater organization of labor and increased discipline.

French Revolution of 1848: overthrew the French monarchy established in 1830; briefly established the second French Republic.

Revolutions of 1848: the nationalist and liberal movements within the Habsburg Empire (Italy, Germany, Austria, Hungary); after temporary success they were suppressed.

Louis Pasteur: discoverer of germs and of the purifying process named after him.

Benjamin Disraeli: British politician; granted the vote to working-class males in 1867; an example of conservative politicians keeping stability through reform.

Camillo di Cavour: architect of Italian unification in 1858; created a constitutional Italian monarchy under the King of Piedmont.

Otto von Bismarck: conservative prime minister of Prussia; architect of German unification under the Prussian king in 1871; utilized liberal reforms to maintain stability.

American Civil War (1861–1865): fought to prevent secession of the southern states; the first war to incorporate the products and techniques of the Industrial Revolution; resulted in the abolition of slavery and the reunification of the United States.

Social question: issues relating to workers and women, in western Europe during the Industrial Revolution; became more critical than constitutional issues after 1870.

Karl Marx: German socialist who saw history as a class struggle between groups out of power and those controlling the means of production; preached the inevitability of social revolution and the creation of a proletarian dictatorship.

Revisionism: socialist thought that disagreed with Marx's formulation; believed that social and economic progress could be achieved through existing political institutions.

Feminist movements: sought legal and economic gains for women, among them equal access to professions and higher education; came to concentrate on the right to vote; won initial support from middle-class women.

Mass leisure culture: an aspect of the later Industrial Revolution; decreased time at work and offered opportunities for new forms of leisure time, such as vacation trips and team sports.

Charles Darwin: biologist who developed the theory of evolution of the species; argued that all living forms evolved through the successful ability to adapt in a struggle for survival.

Albert Einstein: formulated mathematical theories to explain the behavior of planetary motion and the movement of electrical particles; about 1900 issued the theory of relativity.

Sigmund Freud: Viennese physician who developed theories of the workings of the human unconscious; argued that behavior is determined by impulses.

Romanticism: 19th-century western European artistic and literary movement; held that emotion and impression, not reason, were the keys to the mysteries of human experience and nature; sought to portray passions, not calm reflection.

American exceptionalism: historical argument that the development of the United States was largely individualistic and that contact with Europe was incidental to American formation.

Triple Alliance: alliance between Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy at the end of the 19th century; part of the European balance of power system before World War I.

Triple Entente: agreement between Britain, Russia, and France in 1907; part of the European balance of power system before World War I.

Balkan nationalism: movements to create independent states and reunite ethnic groups in the Balkans; provoked crises within the European alliance system that ended with the outbreak of World War I.