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MICHIGAN OPEN BOOK PROJECT
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The Michigan Open Book Project

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Stefanie has been teaching for twenty two years. She received her Bachelors of Arts in Social Studies as well as her Masters in Education Leadership from Grand Valley State University. She is currently teaching at Coopersville High School in sociology, world history, and AP world history. Stefanie has served has the student council advisor, junior class advisor, coach, and Vision Team chair. Stefanie was one of the writers for Performance Assessments of Social Studies Thinking (P.A.S.S.T) for World History. Stefanie resides in Grand Rapids, Michigan with her husband Tom and son Tommy Jr.

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Mike is the High School World History teacher at Shepherd High School in Shepherd Michigan. He has a Bachelors degree in history education from Saginaw Valley State University with minors in Political Science and Sociology. During his time at Shepherd Mike has served as the Model UN and boys golf coach. Mike has also been an item writer for Performance Assessments of Social Studies Thinking (PASST).

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Troy Kilgus serves as the high school social studies chair at Standish-Sterling Central High School. In his eight years of teaching, he has taught various social studies courses including AP US History and multiple levels of French. Mr. Kilgus earned his undergraduate degree in French Education and his Masters in Teaching from Saginaw Valley State University.
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Anne has been a social studies teacher at Cadillac High School since 2005. She has taught World History & Geography, AP World History, Psychology, AP Psychology, and History of the Rock and Roll Era with a particular interest in using instructional technology to engage students and promote literacy. In addition, she has served as the social studies department chair and a student council adviser. She holds a Bachelor of Arts degree from Alma College and a Master of Arts degree in Curriculum, Instruction and Assessment from Walden University. Beyond the classroom, Anne enjoys traveling, reading, and

Adam Lincoln
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Adam began his teaching career at Cadillac High School in Cadillac, Michigan where he taught US History, Global Studies, and AP World History. After 7 years, he moved back home to central Michigan to teach at Ithaca Public Schools. While his main charge has been teaching World History and starting the AP World History program, Adam also teaches 8th Grade History, US History, History in Popular Culture and all sorts of computer science classes. Adam coaches Model United Nations, and runs the Jumbotron at Ithaca Community Stadium during events. Adam has served as a member of the Michigan Council for the Social Studies for over a decade and has worked to unite his twin passions of Social Studies and effectively integrating technology into the classroom. Outside of school, Adam has served on the Content Advisory Committee, as a Social Studies item writer for the Department of Education, and worked for the PASST project. Adam teaches History and Social Studies methods classes at Alma College as adjunct faculty. Apart from the world of education, Adam enjoys spending time with his family especially traveling on new adventures.

Mark Pontoni
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After a long career running a business, I returned to the University of Michigan for my Masters and Certification and began teaching in Owosso 11 years ago. A marriage, a move north, and a couple of job changes later, I now teach at Boyne City. I run a state-wide Model United Nations program attended by over 1000 students annually. I have also been an AP Reader in US Government and Politics, Comparative Government, and World History.
Anthony Salciccioli
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Clarenceville Public Schools
Salciccioli has been teaching since 2001. Throughout these years, he has taught students from grades 6-12 U.S. History, Government, Sociology, Law, Big History, Philosophy and his present course in World History. During his tenure he coached football, wrestling and track and field. He received his B.A. in political science-prelaw from Michigan State University in 1996, a second B.A. in History from the University of Michigan-Dearborn in 2001 and his Master in the Art of Teaching from Marygrove College in 2006. Salciccioli served as the President of the Michigan Council for the Social Studies from 2012-2014 and has been awarded the McConnell History Educator Award in 2014, the Fishman Prize Honor Roll in 2015 and the Gilder Lehrman Michigan History Teacher of the Year in 2016. He is a lifetime resident of Metro Detroit where he attempts to live with joy and purpose along with his wife.

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Tom earned his Bachelors of Science in Education from CMU and his Master in Education from Marygrove. Tom taught at Orchard Lake St. Mary’s before moving to Alpena. Tom has worked in the Alpena district for the past 20 years teaching World History, Advanced Placement European History, Current Events, Michigan/Alpena History, and United States History. During his tenure in Alpena, Tom has served as School Improvement Chair, Social Studies Department Chair, and History Club Adviser. He is a member of the National Council for the Social Studies. Outside of the school day, Tom volunteers with the Water and Woods Boy Scout Field Service Council and the Northeast Michigan Youth Advisory Council.

Nick Vartanian
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I teach World History and A.P. World History at Holland High School. I earned my bachelor’s degree in History from Alma College in 2001 and earned my master’s degree in Educational Leadership from Grand Valley State University in 2011. I am the SLIC (Student Leaders Initiating Change) Coordinator at Holland High and serve as Chairperson of the Reading Now Network for Holland High. I am very interested in Project Based Learning and technology integration in the classroom. I was a writer for the Performance Assessments of Social Studies Thinking (PASST) Project. In addition, I have participated in the IChallengeU program, working with students, civic, and community leaders to develop solutions to real problems as posed by area businesses in the greater Holland area.
Melissa Wozniak  
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A proud graduate of both Posen High School and Saginaw Valley State University. #WECARDNIALS I have a love of teaching, learning, reading, family time, traveling, and of LIFE! I love using technology to keep my students engaged, and to keep track of my family members escapades. I hope to someday achieve my ultimate goal of competing on Jeopardy, winning at least one day and making Alex Trebek say my name!!

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Onaway Secondary School  
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Kymberli has a BA in history and political science from Alma College, a MA in education from Michigan State University, and a MA in American History and Government from Ashland University. She was named a James Madison Fellow in 2011, was chosen as the Michigan Council for the Social Studies High School Educator of the Year in 2015, and is a two year member of the iCivics Educator Network. Kymberli teaches at her high school alma mater where her courses include Civics, World History, Current Events, Women’s Studies, and World Cultures, as well as serving on the school’s technology committee and school improvement team. Additionally, she teaches Intro to American Government at North Central Michigan College, and will be expanding to teach a history

Rebecca Bush  
Instructional Consultant  
Ottawa Area Intermediate School District
Rebecca Bush is currently the Social Studies Consultant at the Ottawa Area Intermediate School District (OAISD), where she assists K-12 social studies teachers in developing curriculum, modeling instructional strategies in social studies literacy, and designing district-level formative and summative assessments. Additionally, as Project Director, she has written and received multiple Teaching American History grants, working with teachers throughout an eight-county radius. She has presented at various national conferences on multiple topics surrounding social studies instruction as well as innovative techniques and topics in formative and summative assessment design. Currently she is Co-Project Director of The Performance Assessments of Social Studies Thinking (PASST) Project and assists with the professional development of teacher writers for the MI Open Book Project where she serves as an editor of several of the project’s texts. Rebecca currently leads
Chapter 8

Why did Revolution sweep the world?

1. How did Russia’s social structure and autocratic rule impact its economy?

2. What were some of the social and political problems that occurred as a result of Russia’s industrialization?

3. How did the events of Bloody Sunday mark a turning point for the Russian people?

4. How did political unrest increase after the Revolution of 1905?

5. What were some Parliamentary reforms in Britain between 1815-1848?

6. What values did Queen Victoria represent and how did these values relate to economic reform?

7. What were some of the biggest reforms in British politics under Benjamin Disraeli?

8. How did the series of social reforms in the mid 1800s reflect Queen Victoria’s values?
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TERMS, PLACES, PEOPLE

Colossus
Refugees

Emancipation
Proletariat

Zemstvos

Russification

Pogroms

Russia: Reform and Reaction

By 1815, Russia could claim it was the largest and most populated nation in Europe, along with being a great world power. But, was Russia a great world power? Explorers had been expanding the Russian frontier eastward across Siberia toward the Pacific Ocean since the 1600s. Both Peter and Catherine the Great had acquired lands on the Baltic and Black seas. Tsars in the 1800s had expanded territory into Central Asia resulting in a huge empire that existed within two continents--Europe and Asia. As other nations in Europe looked at the Russian colossus, or giant with mixed
thoughts—economic envy because of Russia’s immense natural resources but fear of expansionist motives under an autocratic government, both Peter and Catherine knew that Russia would need to westernize. However, by the 1800s, although tsars tried to modernize Russia, reforms thought to undermine absolute rule resulted in Russia remaining economically underdeveloped.

A significant obstacle to reform was Russia’s very rigid social structure. Society had been dominated by landowning nobles who rejected any change that would threaten their privilege of nobility. Middle class members of society were too small in number to initiate any institutional change and the majority of serfs were peasants who would forever be enslaved by their masters, many of which were landowners.

**Russia’s Antiquated Systems are Exposed**

During the Crimean War in 1855, Alexander II came into power. This war had broken out after Russia had tried to seize Ottoman lands along the Danube River. As both the British and the French stepped in to assist Ottoman Turks, the Russian army was defeated. It was this war that had exposed Russia’s antiquated ways and its lack of a railroad system and its inefficient military. Upon this exposure, many both inside and outside of Russia believed that drastic changes in the country were needed.

**Emancipation and Other Reforms**

Pressed to initiate reform from every angle, Alexander II finally agreed to certain reforms. In 1861, through a royal decree, emancipation, or freeing of the serfs took place. Although this newly found freedom of the largest social class of Russians created its own set of problems that perpetuated economic poverty because peasants now had to buy the land they had worked for years, emancipation was a turning point that boosted the push by many for further reforms.

Another reform that Alexander instituted was the establishment of a local system of government. **Zemstvos**—elected assemblies were granted responsibilities for the maintenance of local matters involving roads, agriculture, and schools. This reform was seen as significant because it was the first time Russians had experience with self-government.

Other reforms included a reduction in the level of censorship by the government, the implementation of political concepts such as trial by jury. Terms of military service were reduced and brutal discipline was limited. An emphasis on the development of an industrial base was also encouraged, although it would take much time as Russia was still an agrarian nation.
From Reform to Ideas of Revolution

Although Alexander saw his reforms as significant accomplishments, to many Russians, they were not enough. Radicals, with socialist ideas adopted from the West, called for more revolutionary changes. The response by the tsar was repression—just the opposite of what had been demanded. Radicals became angered and some turned to terrorism. On March 13, 1881, terrorists assassinated Alexander II in the streets of St. Petersburg.

Interactive 8.1 Tsar Alexander Assassinated

For a short video on the assassination of Tsar Alexander, click here.

Video Questions-

1. Whose assassination leads to the path of revolution in Russia?
2. Which groups worked to assassinate the tsar?
3. What was the issue the rebel groups had with the tsar’s government?
4. What was the goal the rebel groups hoped to accomplish?
5. How does the assassination impact that goal?

Now on the throne, Alexander III responded to his father’s assassination by reinstating the harsh methods that had been enacted by Nicholas I which included an increased presence of the secret police, strict censorship, and exile of critics to the harsh land of Siberia. An extreme form of nationalism, Alexander III launched his program of Russification which was aimed at suppressing all non-Russian cultures within his empire. This included one language and only one church which was the Russian Orthodox Church. Persecution was suffered by many including Finns, Armenians, Jews, Muslims, Poles, and Ukrainians.

During the 17th century, Russian and Poland had split much of the territory of what is currently Ukraine along the Dnieper River. A century later, Russia’s advance continued under the rule of Catherine the Great, who wanted to expand her empire with the acquisition of fertile riverlands while at the same time collapsing the Ottoman empire so Istanbul would be seen as an extension of Moscow’s reach. In Russia, under Alexander III, persecution of Jews increased as the tsar placed limits on the number who could attend universities and serve in certain professions.
Additionally, they were forced to live in restricted areas of Russia. **Pogroms**, or violent mob attacks by gangs were encouraged by the government and became so prevalent that many persecuted Jews fled Russia and as **refugees**, fled their homeland to seek safety in the U.S.

**Industrialization is Finally seen as Important**

Under Alexander III and then his son Nicholas II, Russia finally began to industrialize. During the 1890s, the government under Nicholas II began to focus on economic development. Railroads were seen as a critical transportation system to connect natural resources to factories and then for the transportation of goods across Russia. Investment was also made in capital to continue to develop transportation methods.

While business leaders and government officials greatly approved of economic growth, both nobles and peasants opposed it, fearful of the changes it might bring to the country. As peasants rushed into cities to work in factories in search of a better life, they found the opposite, often working long hours in dangerous conditions for very little pay. Just like other countries experiencing rapid industrialization, the challenges of urbanization occurred in Russia as well—poor living conditions (slums), poverty, disease, and growing discontent.

**Growing Discontent Leads to Revolution in 1905**

As war broke out between Russia and Japan, news of Russia’s military disasters quickly spread. It was this issue that was responsible for the eruption of discontent, created by years of oppression by the Russian government. As the working class or proletariat went on strike demanding better working conditions, liberals called for reforms to overhaul the oppressive government.

**Interactive 8.2 Russian Revolution of 1905**

For an excellent description of what happened next, watch this short video:
Results of the Revolution

The manifesto by Nicholas that announced sweeping reforms established a Duma, or an elected national legislature. While it won over many moderates it isolated Socialists; these divisions would help the tsar, who had no intention of allowing any group or social class challenge his rule. When the Duma first met in 1906, Nicholas quickly dissolved it because its leaders had criticized the government and appointed a new prime minister under the guise of restoring order. Under Peter Stolypin, arrests, pogroms, and executions began once again.

In order to gain the support of the peasant class, Stolypin established agricultural reforms. Watch this brief video to learn about Stolypin’s agrarian reforms and the result of such reforms.

Unfortunately, Stolypin’s reforms were “too little, too late,” from the standpoint of meeting the broad needs of a huge majority of the Russian people. Unrest grew and in 1911, Stolypin was assassinated in the streets of Russia. Dumas continued to meet during this time, but by 1914, as Russia was an autocracy, simmering unrest was about to reach a boiling point.

Stolypin wasn’t the only person responsible for the brewing unrest of the Russian people. Both Grigori Rasputin, a religious wanderer who gained considerable influence over Alexandra, the wife of Tsar Nicholas II, and the Tsar himself were responsible for a divided aristocracy, resulting in an autocratic regime riddled with corruption.

For details about the mysterious Rasputin and his impact on the Romanov family, watch this video:
Late in 1915, the Tsar dissolved the Duma and left to fight in World War I. Alexandra took over the throne and continued autocratic rule. The continued suppression of rights for the Russian people and food shortages led the people to revolt. The Russian Revolution of 1917 involved the collapse of an empire under Tsar Nicholas II and the rise of Marxian socialism under Lenin and his Bolsheviks. It sparked the beginning of a new era in Russia that had effects on countries around the world.

The impact of the Russian Revolution cannot be understated from both the standpoint of the country of Russia and the impact that it had on WWI. (You will return to a study of this significant event in a following chapter about WWI.) Even though a hundred years have passed since the revolution, it is important to compare the similarities of the Romanov rule and that of Russia’s current president, Vladimir Putin.

**Interactive 8.5 Putin’s Russia**

While viewing the following video, reflect upon the significant similarities between both regimes, past and present.
Section 2

Reform in Britain

QUESTIONS TO GUIDE INQUIRY

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7. What were some of the biggest reforms in British politics under Benjamin Disraeli?

8. How did the series of social reforms in the mid 1800s reflect Queen Victoria’s values?

TERMS, PLACES, PEOPLE

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<th>House of Commons</th>
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With the Industrial Revolution in full swing (as it had started in the 1770s), in 1815, Britain was a constitutional monarchy consisting of a parliament and two political parties. As many might assume that because Britain possessed a constitution it had a democratic government, that was not the case. Granted, the House of Commons was comprised of elected members, less than 5% of the population had the right to vote. With a tight alignment between economic and social class and political privileges, those who dominated politics at the time were wealthy nobles, squires, or country landowners. The House of Lords, mainly comprised of hereditary nobles and high ranking clergy, had veto power over any bill passed by the House of Commons.

Along with economic and social distinctions as factors determining voting rights, religion was also a factor. For example, Catholics and non-Anglican Protestants could not vote or serve in Parliament. During the 1820s, reformers tried to put an end to religious restrictions on voting; after many intense debates, Parliament finally granted equal political rights to Catholics and non-Anglican Protestants.

The next battle came from the perspective of social reform to make Parliament more representative of Britain’s population, consisting of multiple social classes. During the second phase of Britain’s industrial revolution, the last craft industries became industrialized. Additionally, mass-produced consumer goods expanded along with a growing service sector (e.g., teachers, waiters, lawyers, police, clerks,
etc.); gradually, by the end of the 19th century, a middle class had emerged. This caused population centers to shift with some rural towns losing so many people that there were very few voters or none at all. **Rotten boroughs**, rural towns that sent members to Parliament despite having few or no voters, continued to exist while simultaneously, highly populated newly industrialized cities such as Birmingham and Manchester had no seats allocated in Parliament.

**Initial Acts of Reform**

By 1830, the Whig Party, mostly comprised of middle class individuals with strong business interests, clashed with members of the Tory Party which largely consisted of nobles, land owners, and others whose income came from roots of agriculture over reforms in Parliament. Finally, in 1832, the **Great Reform Act** was passed by members of Parliament. Although a property requirement for voting was still retained, the Act did do the following:

1. Seats in the House of Commons were redistributed, eliminating rotten boroughs and granting representation to large cities and towns.

2. Suffrage was granted to more men, thus enlarging the electorate, or the body of people allowed to vote.

Although a greater voice in politics was given to middle class men, The Great Reform Act of 1832, did not bring about full democracy as land-owning nobles continued to remain a powerful force in both governmental affairs as well as Britain’s economy.

From the standpoint of both rural and urban workers, many demanded more substantial change as the Reform Act did not benefit them. In the 1830s, a group of protesters known as **Chartists** created the People’s Charter. The petition called for universal male suffrage, annual elections for Parliament, salaries for members of Parliament, and secret ballot voting. Upon presentation of thousands of signatures on petitions during two separate occasions, Parliament ignored the petitions. Capitalizing on the wave of revolution that swept across Europe in 1848, the Chartists organized a march on Parliament to present a third petition. Although the march was suppressed due to fear of violence, Parliament would later pass laws including most of the Chartists proposed reforms.

**The Victorian Age Brings About a Different Type of Reform**

From 1837 to 1901, Queen Victoria set the tone for what is known today as the Victorian age. Although the Queen really did not exercise much political power, her reign brought about reforms, many of which were social in nature. Because her reign lasted 63 years (far exceeding the reign of any other British monarch until Queen Elizabeth who recently celebrated her Sapphire Jubilee,
marking 65 years on the throne in 2015), the best summary of her accomplishments and reforms occurs in this video:

Interactive 8.6 The Era of Queen Victoria

British Politics Embraces a New Era of Reform

While Queen Victoria continued to push for greater economic and social justice, a new era of politics in Britain was emerging in the 1860s as old political parties regrouped under new leadership. Benjamin Disraeli united members of the Tory Party into a more modern Conservative Party. William Gladstone did the same for members of the Whig Party as it evolved into the modern Liberal Party. Over a 12 year span (1868-1880), Disraeli and Gladstone would alternate as prime minister as the majority party in Parliament swung back and forth. Each, however, fought for important political reforms.

- Expanding Suffrage--through the Reform Bill of 1867, many working class men gained the right to vote, doubling the size of Britain’s electorate thanks to Disraeli and the modern Conservative Party.

- Extended Suffrage--in the 1880s, Gladstone and the Liberal Party extended, through reform, the right to vote by farmworkers and most other men in the country. By the end of the century, along with almost-universal male suffrage, the secret ballot and most other goals of the Chartists had been achieved.

- Parliamentary democracy--the country had transformed itself from that of a constitutional monarchy to one of a parliamentary democracy--a form of democracy in which executive leaders such as a prime minister and cabinet, are
selected by a legislature (usually parliament) and are responsible to the members of parliament.

- Limiting the power of the House of Lords--a bill passed by a Liberal government in 1911, limited the power of the House of Lords which was seen by a majority of the people as a victory for democracy.

**Economic and Social Reforms in Britain soon Follow**

Along with significant political reforms that benefited the middle, working, and poorer classes, social and economic reforms also occurred. During the mid-1800s, Parliament had passed free trade laws. Free trade is when trade between countries occurs without any quotas, tariffs, or other restrictions. Free traders--middle class business leaders believed that Adams Smith’s laissez faire policy would lead to an increase in prosperity for everyone. The abolishment of tariffs would create larger markets in which merchants everywhere could sell their goods while also benefiting consumers from open competition. Unfortunately, by the end of the century, economic hard times in the country led Britain (as well as other European countries) to reimpose protective tariffs on many goods.

By the early 1900s, Parliament passed a series of reforms aimed at aiding the working class. Better working conditions, increased safety regulations, and the abolishment of child labor greatly benefited the men, women, and children whose labor were the source of support of Britain’s new industrial society. Additionally, as union membership soared between 1890-1914, union leaders were able to help secure higher wages and shorter hours for workers.

In addition to multiple economic reforms, a wide variety of social reforms occurred as well. One such reform was the **abolition movement**. Although in 1807, Britain became the first European power to abolish the slave trade, although banning the slave trade did not end slavery. Finally in 1833, Parliament passed a law banning slavery in all British colonies.

The criminal justice system also experienced reform during this era. In the early 1800s, many crimes were classified as **capital offenses**--severe crimes that were punishable by death. Because more than 200 crimes fell into the capital offense category, juries often refused to convict criminals because the punishment was so stringent. Executions were held in public which often drew huge crowds and those executed rarely received a proper burial. These situations prompted reformers to push for the reduction of those offenses that had been considered capital offenses and the death penalty was reserved only for crimes such as murder, treason, piracy, and arson. Many petty criminals (those charged with minor crimes) were sent to penal colonies--settlements for convicts in newly acquired British territories such as Australia and New Zealand. By 1868, Parliament ended public hangings and additional reforms
improved conditions in prisons and outlawed imprisonment because a person owed a debt.

Other social reforms in the late 1800s and early 1900s, included multiple laws that continued to improve public health and living conditions in large cities for the working class. Free education for elementary children was legislated and government jobs were granted to those who were qualified as opposed to those born into a certain family or had amassed a significant amount of wealth.

In the early 1900s, Britain also passed additional welfare reforms to secure the well-being of the poor and disadvantaged. Modeled after the reforms of Bismarck in Germany, accident, health, and unemployment insurance protected workers. The middle class was encouraged by all of Britain’s reforms and believed that democracy was finally working.

**Women’s Suffrage is Finally Secured**

In Britain, as in many cases around the world, women met fierce opposition in their fight for the right to vote. Initially, under the leadership of Millicent Garrett Fawsett in 1897, and later in 1903, under the leadership of Emmeline Pankurst, suffragists—the term used to describe a person who supported women’s suffrage, utilized many civil disobedience strategies to appeal to Parliament to gain the right to vote. When continued civil protests failed, tactics became more aggressive and violent. Although the outbreak of WWI in 1914, provided the opportunity for suffragettes—the term used in a derogatory manner to describe a person organizing militant activities and using violent tactics, to temporarily halt what many describe as terrorist actions, by 1918, Parliament voted to grant voting rights to women over 30 who owned property. By 1928, all women were granted the right to vote.

Although the strategies and degree of uniformity of suffrage movements around the world differed, the work needed to gain suffrage crossed boundaries worldwide. Because the same struggle was occurring in the U.S. during the same time period, comparisons have been made with particular regard to the tactics used. An excellent video that provides insight on the suffrage movement in England and examines the significance in the change in tactics from those of peaceful protest to that of violent means can be found here:

**Interactive 8.7 Did violent protest get women the vote?**

**Ireland’s Instability Initiates Issues**

Although Britain had undergone major economic, social, and political reforms that were viewed by the middle and lower classes as prime examples of democracy in action, another
significant change was happening right next door in Ireland. As you watch this video about Ireland’s instability as an agricultural nation, ask yourself this question: How do the tenants of nationalism conflict with the idea of home rule, or local self-government and how does Ireland’s instability play into this conflict?

Once again, the outbreak of WWI would temporarily halt the question of what was to become of relations between Ireland and Britain. And although WWI was known as “The War to end all Wars” on an international scale, issues surrounding nationalism would turn many countries against one another in the years that followed “The Great War.”
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TERMS, PLACES, PEOPLE

Bourgeoisie  Coalitions
Constitutional monarchy  Anti-Semitism
Universal male suffrage  Libel
Ceded  Zionism

After the 1848 Revolution in which Napoleon III rose to power, the Second Empire was established. As the nephew of Napoleon, many from multiple tiers of social class and ideologies saw him as a capable leader initially. The bourgeoisie, or the middle class, believed he would be a strong leader, capable of restoring order. To the lower class, his promise to end poverty was appealing. Regardless of class stature, the masses were attracted to him as a leader because of his name, associated with memories of glory days of past when France dominated Europe. However, unlike his uncle, Napoleon would not return glory to France as an empire.

Limits to Individual Liberties

At the surface level, Napoleon III’s Second Empire appeared to be a constitutional monarchy--a monarchy governed according to a constitution that limits and defines the powers of those who are sovereign. However, Napoleon ruled almost like a dictator, appointing his own cabinet, the upper house of the legislature, and many officials. Even though the assembly was elected by universal male suffrage (women had not obtained the right to vote), officials appointed by Napoleon III “managed” elections so that supporters of the emperor would win. Newspapers endured strict censorship by the government and debate was limited. By the 1860s, the emperor started to ease up on some of the imposed
controls such as those on censorship and granted some powers back to the legislature.

**Economic Growth under Napoleon III**

Similar to most countries in Europe, France did prosper at mid-century. Investment in industry was promoted and large-scale ventures that improved France’s infrastructure such as the building of railroads and the urban renewal of the city of Paris were significant achievements. Additionally, a French entrepreneur named Ferdinand de Lesseps organized the building of the Suez Canal.

Although the Suez Canal did not touch French soil, its successful construction, many French hoped, would bring Egypt as a nation, closer to the French as it was becoming a more developed nation.

Additionally, workers were also able to enjoy some of the benefits of economic growth to the country. Labor unions were legalized by Napoleon at the same time that public education had been expanded to now include females. A small public health program was also created. However, despite some improvements to society, similar to other industrialized nations, many still lived in poverty.

**Foreign Relations**

Along with few improvements in domestic affairs, Napoleon had even more failures in foreign affairs. In the 1860s, his attempt to turn Mexico into a French satellite by placing an Austrian Hapsburg prince named Maximilian on the throne backfired. Mexican patriots resisted fiercely and the United States also protested this move. After four years of resistance, Maximilian was overthrown and shot by Mexican patriots.

Another attempt to add territory to France also backfired on Napoleon. Although the regions of Nice and Savoy had been ceded, or formally surrendered to France in return for French assistance to Italian nationalists in the defeat of Austria, a united
Italy later emerged as a rival on France’s border. France and Britain ended up winning the Crimean War, but it was little compensation for French losses. France ended up with only a small foothold in the Middle East.

Simultaneously, France was growing concerned about its rival, Prussia. Prussia’s leader, Otto van Bismarck was able to manipulate the French, along with its leader, Napoleon into war in 1870. For more details about this disastrous conflict for France, watch his short, but informative video.

Interactive 8.8 The Franco Prussian War

The Paris Commune

In response to the newly elected National Assembly’s costly peace with Germany, Communards, or rebels established the Paris Commune. The patriots rejected the harsh peace that the National Assembly had signed with Germany. Many of the most radical dreamed of the creation of a new socialist order. Naturally, the Paris Commune was ordered by the National Assembly to disband. When the Communards refused, government troops were sent to retake the city. A civil war raged for weeks which included the burning of several government buildings and the slaughter of many hostages. Ultimately, the government killed approximately 20,000 rebels. The suppression of the commune only deepened the social divisions that had already existed within the country.

Even though the Third Republic was originally set up as a provisional or temporary government, it remained in place for 70 years. Consisting of a bicameral or two-house legislature, the Chamber of Deputies or lower house was elected through universal male suffrage. In tandem with the Senate, the president of the republic was elected. The president of the republic, however, had very little power, serving mostly as a figurehead. Real power existed with the premier or prime minister.
Unlike Britain’s two-party system, France had multiple parties which reflected the wide chasm between classes and priorities. This proved to be quite problematic—with so many parties and such splits in philosophies of those parties, no single party could win a majority within the legislature. This led to coalitions, or alliances between the parties. Once a coalition could control enough votes, it could then name a premier and form a cabinet. While there were benefits to multiple party and coalition systems, drawbacks also existed. For example, if a party were to desert a coalition, a majority in the legislature could be lost. For that reason, many coalition governments were unstable. Within the first ten years of the reign of the Third Republic, 50 different coalition governments were formed and fell.

Political Scandals also played a part in weakening trust in the government. From an economic standpoint, France had made progress during this time period. Debt owed to Germany as part of the peace treaty from the war with Prussia had been paid and the French had expanded their overseas empire. However, a series of political scandals between 1880 and 1890 severely shook the public’s trust in the government.

**The Dreyfus Affair and Calls for a Jewish State**

By 1894, the most serious and divisive scandal was underway. Alfred Dreyfus, a high-ranking army officer, had been accused of spying for Germany. At his highly publicized, military trial, neither Dreyfus nor his lawyer had been allowed to see the evidence that had been gathered against him. Dreyfus, the first Jewish person to climb to such a high position in the army, was despised by the military elite. Even though Dreyfus proclaimed his innocence, a court convicted him of treason and sentenced him to life to be served on Devil’s Island—a desolate island that served as a military prison off the coast of South America. Soon after his conviction, his family began the appeals process. The case split the country between social and political groups—intellectual pro-republican leaders clashed with conservative pro-army factions. Two years later, new evidence was uncovered that pointed to someone other than Dreyfus as the person who had spied, yet the army refused to grant Dreyfus a new trial.

In January 1898, Émile Zola, a French novelist published J’accuse…!, a rallying cry of support for the exoneration of Dreyfus. Zola charged the army and the government with suppressing the truth about the details surrounding the Dreyfus
Affair. Zola was convicted by the government of **libel**, or knowingly publicizing damaging or false statements. Zola fled into exile.

Eventually Dreyfus supporters, known as “Dreyfusards,” were able to make progress, illustrating that the evidence against Dreyfus had been forged. In 1906, Dreyfus was cleared by a French court of all charges and his military honors were restored. Although it was seen as a victory, the political scars that had damaged French politics would take some time to heal.

From the social perspective, the Dreyfus Affair reflected the rise of **anti-Semitism** throughout Europe. Due to both the French Revolution and The Enlightenment, religious toleration had been emphasized. Because of that, some Jews had been able to obtain jobs in government and universities; others had achieved success in business and banking. However, most Jews continued to live in poverty throughout Europe.

By the late 1800s, anti-Semitism was again prominent throughout Europe. Members of the lower middle class who held insecurities both economically as well as socially and were swept up in an intense nationalist wave throughout Europe, constituted the majority of those who grew increasingly intolerant for outsiders and developed a violent hatred for Jews.

Even though anti-Semitism had existed for hundreds of years, the Dreyfus Affair and the pogroms in Russia stirred Theodor Herzl, a Hungarian Jewish journalist living in France at the time, to help launch modern **Zionism**, a movement devoted to rebuilding a Jewish state in Palestine. By 1897, Herzl had organized the First Zionist Congress in Basel, Switzerland with approximately 200 people representing 17 countries.
Even though the country had been extremely shaken by the social and political implications of the Dreyfus Affair, France eventually achieved some reforms in the early part of the 20th century. From an economic and social perspective, hours and wages were regulated for workers, including the improvement of working conditions. Public elementary schools were also established which reduced the religious power of the Roman Catholic Church, which up until that time had regulated education in France.

Another result of the Dreyfus Affair in France was the separation of church and state. During the affair, Republicans saw the church as a conservative force that was opposed to progressive government policies. After the affair, the government closed schools run by the church along with many monasteries and convents. In 1905, a law was passed to separate church and state. The result was that Jews, Catholics, and Protestants were all free to worship as they chose and none would receive any special treatment from the government.

Thanks to the Napoleonic Code, French women possessed very few legal rights. By 1890, a women’s rights movement was growing in number and fervor. As a result, some gains were made for women. For example, by 1896, married women were granted the right to their own earnings. Like in Great Britain and the United States, women’s suffrage became a huge social and political issue, although unlike the U.S. and Britain, radical tactics were not employed and a majority of men were adamantly opposed to women gaining this political right. Women in France would not gain the right to vote until after WWII.

By 1914, France was the largest Democratic country in Europe with basic human rights guaranteed by a constitution. Generally, France’s economy was prosperous and its overseas holdings ranked second in the world, behind that of Britain. However, due to political instability through the rise and fall of coalition governments, the threat posed by German industrial might, and the desire to avenge French defeat in the Franco-Prussian War, left France in a precarious position. As the countries of Europe would soon be plunged into a world war, France’s might as a world power would soon be tested.

Interactive 8.9 Chapter 7 Analysis Activity

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