I. The Industrial Revolution in Great Britain (pages 581–583)

A. The Industrial Revolution began in Great Britain in the 1780s for several reasons.

B. Improved farming methods increased the food supply, which drove food prices down and gave families more money for manufactured goods. The increased food supply also supported a growing population.

C. Britain had a ready supply of capital—money to invest—for industrial machines and factories. Wealthy entrepreneurs were looking for ways to invest and make profits. Finally, Britain had abundant natural resources and a supply of markets, in part because of its colonial empire.

D. In the eighteenth century Great Britain had surged ahead in the production of cotton goods. The two-step process of spinning and weaving had been done by individuals in their homes, a production method called cottage industry.

E. A series of inventions—the flying shuttle, the spinning jenny, and the water-powered loom invented by Edmund Cartwright in 1787—made both weaving and spinning faster. It was now efficient to bring workers to the new machines in factories. Cottage industry no longer was efficient.

F. The cotton industry became even more productive after the Scottish engineer James Watt improved the steam engine in 1782 so it could drive machinery. Steam power was used to spin and weave cotton. Steam-powered cotton mills proliferated throughout Britain. The steam engines used coal. Mills no longer had to be located near water.

G. By 1840 cotton cloth was Britain’s most valuable product. Its cotton goods were sold all over the world.

H. The steam engine drove Britain’s Industrial Revolution, and it ran on coal. This led to the coal industry expanding. The coal supply seemed unlimited. Coal also transformed the iron industry. Iron had been made in England since the Middle Ages. Using the process developed by Henry Cort called puddling, industry produced a better quality of iron. The British iron industry boomed. In 1740 Britain produced 17,000 tons of iron. Cort’s process quadrupled production, and by 1852 Britain was producing almost 3 million tons of iron annually.
I. Since they were an efficient way to move resources and goods, railroads were crucial to the Industrial Revolution. The first railroads were slow, but they developed rapidly. The *Rocket* was used on the first public railway line, which opened in 1830. The 32-miles of track went from Liverpool to Manchester, England. The *Rocket* pulled a 40-ton train at 16 miles per hour.

J. Within 20 years trains were going 50 miles per hour, an incredible speed for its time. By 1850 Great Britain had 6,000 miles of track. Building railroads was a new job for farm laborers and peasants. The less expensive transportation lowered the price of goods and made for larger markets. More sales meant more demand, which meant more factories and machines. This regular, ongoing cycle of economic growth was a basic feature of the Industrial Revolution.

K. The factory was another important aspect of the Industrial Revolution because it created a new kind of labor system. To keep the machines going constantly, workers had to work in shifts. Factory owners trained the rural laborers to work the same hours each day and to do repetitive work. One early industrialist said his goal was “to make the men into machines that cannot err.”

---

**Discussion Question**

Eighteenth- and nineteenth-century factories used a great deal of child labor. Social reformers changed the practice in part because children were not able to attend school if they worked long hours. At what age is it all right to let people less than 18 years of age work? (Answers will vary. Accept relevant, thoughtful answers. Since so many high school students now work, discussing whether or not working harms their education might be good.)

---

II. The Spread of Industrialization *(page 584)*

A. Britain became the world’s greatest industrial nation. It produced one-half of the world’s cotton goods and coal.

B. The Industrial Revolution spread to other parts of the world at different speeds. Belgium, France, and Germany were the first to industrialize, principally because their governments built infrastructure such as canals and railroads.

C. The Industrial Revolution hit the United States. In 1800 six out of every seven American workers were farmers. By 1860, the number was only 1 out of every 2. Over this period the population grew from 5 to 30 million people, and a number of large cities developed.

D. The large United States needed a transportation system, and miles of roads and canals were built. Robert Fulton built the first paddle-wheel steamboat, the *Clermont*, in 1807. By 1860 thousands of these boats were on rivers, lakes, and even the ocean.
Daily Lecture and Discussion Notes

Chapter 19, Section 1

E. The railroad was the most important transportation development. America had fewer than 100 miles of track in 1830. By 1860 it had about 30,000 miles of track. The railroad turned the United States into a massive market.

F. Labor for the growing factories came from the farm population. Many of the new factory workers were women, who made up more than 80 percent of the workers in textile factories. Factory owners sometimes had whole families work for them.

Discussion Question
Imagine you are an nineteenth-century rural settler in the Ohio Valley, and you see a steamboat for the first time. What is your reaction? (Answers will vary. Accept relevant, thoughtful answers. Many people reported being frightened at first seeing the Clermont because it seemed to be belching fire and churning up the water ferociously. Others were thrilled at the horizons the steamboat opened up.)

III. Social Impact in Europe (pages 585–588)

A. The Industrial Revolution spurred the growth of cities and created two new social classes: the industrial middle class and the industrial working class.

B. Europe’s population nearly doubled between 1750 and 1850 to 266 million. The chief reason was a decline in death from disease. The increased food supply fed the people better, and famine largely disappeared from western Europe.

C. Cities were the home to many industries. People moved in from the country to find work, taking the new railroads. London’s population increased from 1 million in 1800 to 2,363,000 in 1850. Nine British cities had populations over 100,000 in 1850.

D. Many inhabitants of these rapidly growing cities lived in miserable conditions. The conditions prompted urban social reformers to call for cleaning up the cities, a call which would be heard in the second half of the nineteenth century.

E. The Industrial Revolution replaced the commercial capitalism of the Middle Ages with industrial capitalism—an economic system based on industrial production. This capitalism produced the industrial middle class. It was made up of the people who built the factories, bought the machines, and figured out where the markets were. Their characteristics were initiative, vision, ambition, and money making.

F. Industrial workers faced horrible working conditions with hours ranging from 12 to 16 hours a day, six days a week. No one had security on the job, and there was no minimum wage. The hot temperatures in the cotton mills were especially harmful.
Daily Lecture and Discussion Notes
Chapter 19, Section 1

G. In Britain women and children made up two-thirds of the cotton industry’s workforce. The Factory Act of 1833 set 9 as the minimum age to work. Children from ages 9 to 13 could work only 8 hours a day; those between ages 13 and 18 could work only 12 hours.

H. Women took more and more of the textile industry jobs. They were unskilled and were paid half or less than the men. Excessive working hours for women were outlawed in 1844.

I. The employment of women and children was a holdover from the cottage industry system. The laws restricting industrial work for women and children led to a new pattern of work, therefore.

J. Married men were now expected to support the family, and married women were to take care of the home and perform low-paying jobs in the home, such as taking in laundry, to help the family survive.

K. The pitiful conditions for workers in the Industrial Revolution led to a movement called socialism. Under socialism, society, usually government, owns and controls the means of production—natural resources, factories, and the like.

L. Early socialism was largely the idea of intellectuals who believed in the equality of all people and who wanted to replace competition with cooperation. Later socialists like Karl Marx thought these ideas were not practical and called those who believed them utopian socialists.

M. A famous utopian socialist was Robert Owen, a British cotton manufacturer. He believed people would show their natural goodness if they lived in a cooperative environment. Owen transformed a factory town in Scotland into a flourishing community. A similar attempt at New Harmony, Indiana, failed in the 1820s.

Discussion Question
Capitalism and socialism have different views about what brings the best out in people. Is socialism correct that cooperation does so, or is capitalism correct that competition does so? (Answers will vary. Accept relevant, thoughtful answers.)
Daily Lecture and Discussion Notes

Chapter 19, Section 2

**Did You Know?**
As British prime minister, Benjamin Disraeli believed that the Conservative Party could save aristocratic traditions while cautiously adopting democratic reforms. The Disraeli-backed Reform Bill of 1867 extended the vote to all male homeowners and most men who rented property.

I. The Congress of Vienna *(pages 589–590)*

A. When the great powers of Austria, Prussia, Russia, and Great Britain met at the Congress of Vienna in 1814, they wanted to restore the old order after Napoleon’s defeat.

B. Prince Klemens von Metternich was the Austrian foreign minister who led the Congress. He said he was guided at Vienna by the principle of legitimacy: legitimate monarchs deposed by Napoleon would be restored in the interest of peace and stability.

C. Some countries accepted the principle of legitimacy and some did not.

D. The participants in the Congress of Vienna also rearranged European territories to form a new balance of military and political power to keep one country from dominating Europe. To balance Russian territorial gains, Prussia and Austria were given new territories, for example.

**Discussion Question**
What would prevent a country from accepting the principle of legitimacy? *(Some countries did not want to have the old monarchies restored.)*

II. The Conservative Order *(pages 590–591)*

A. The arrangement worked out at the Congress of Vienna curtailed the forces set loose by the French Revolution. Those who saw this as a victory, such as Metternich, held a political philosophy called conservatism.

B. Conservatism is based on tradition and social stability. Conservatives wanted obedience to traditional political authority and believed that organized religion was important to an ordered society. They did not like revolution or demands for rights and government representation.

C. The powers at the Congress agreed to meet in the future to take steps to keep the balance of power in Europe. These meetings came to be called the Concert of Europe.
Daily Lecture and Discussion Notes

Chapter 19, Section 2

D. Most of the great powers eventually adopted the principle of intervention: countries had a right to intervene where revolutions were threatening monarchies. Britain rejected the principle, saying countries should not interfere in the internal affairs of other states. Austria, Prussia, Russia, and France did crush revolutions and restore monarchies.

Discussion Question
When does a country have the right to intervene in another country’s internal affairs, if ever? (Answers will vary. Accept relevant, thoughtful answers. To get discussion started, bring up such situations as the recent African massacres and Cambodia after the Vietnam War.)

III. Forces of Change (pages 591–592)

A. The forces of liberalism and nationalism were gathering to bring about change from the old order.

B. Liberalism is based principally on Enlightenment principles and held that people should be free of government restraint as much as possible. The chief liberal belief was the importance of protecting the basic rights of all people. Liberals believed these civil rights should be guaranteed, as they are in the American Bill of Rights.

C. Liberals also avidly supported religious toleration and the separation of church and state. Liberals tended to favor constitutional forms of government because they believed in representative government.

D. Liberals thought that the right to vote and hold office should be given only to men who owned property—middle-class men. Liberals feared mob rule, wanted to share power with the landowning classes, and had no desire to share power with the lower class.

E. Nationalism was an even more powerful force for change in the nineteenth century. It arose out of people’s awareness of belonging to a community with common institutions, traditions, language, and customs. This community is called a nation. On the view of nationalism, citizens owe their loyalty to the nation, not a king or other entity.

F. Nationalists came to believe that each nationality should have its own government. Countries that were divided into principalities, as Germany was, should have unity with a centralized government; subject people, such as the Hungarians, should have their own nation.

G. Conservatives feared what such changes would do to the balance of power in Europe and to their kingdoms. The conservatives repressed the nationalists. In the first half of the nineteenth century, liberalism was a strong ally of nationalism because liberals believed in self-government. This alliance gave nationalism a wider scope.
Daily Lecture and Discussion Notes

Chapter 19, Section 2

H. In 1830 French liberals overthrew the Bourbon monarchy and established a constitutional monarchy with Louis-Philippe as king. Nationalism was the chief force behind rebellions in Poland and Italy, and a revolution in Belgium.

Discussion Question
What differentiates nineteenth-century liberalism from contemporary liberalism?
(Answers will vary. Accept relevant, thoughtful answers. One clear difference is that nineteenth-century liberalism believed in minimal government, but contemporary liberalism tends to look to the government to solve social problems.)

IV. The Revolutions of 1848 (pages 592–594)

A. Despite changes after 1830, the conservative order still dominated much of Europe. The growing forces of nationalism and liberalism erupted again in the revolutions of 1848.

B. France had severe economic problems beginning in 1846, causing hardships to the lower class. At the same time, the middle class wanted the right to vote. Louis-Philippe refused to make changes and opposition grew.

C. The monarchy was overthrown in 1848. Moderate and radical republicans—people who wanted France to be a republic—set up a temporary government. It called for the election of representatives to a Constituent Assembly that would draw up a new constitution. Election would be by universal male suffrage—all adult men could vote, not just the wealthy.

D. The provisional government also set up national workshops to give the unemployed work. When almost 120,000 people signed up, the treasury was drained and the frightened moderates closed the workshops.

E. Workers took to the streets, and in bitter fighting the government crushed the worker revolt. Thousands were killed or sent to Algeria, France’s prison colony.

F. The new constitution, ratified in November of 1848, set up the Second Republic, with a single legislature elected by universal male suffrage. A president served for four years. Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte (called Louis-Napoleon), the famous ruler’s nephew, was elected president.

G. The Congress of Vienna had recognized 38 independent German states, called the Germanic Confederation. The 1848 cries for change led many German rulers to promise constitutions, a free press, and jury trials. An all-German parliament, the Frankish Assembly, met to fulfill the liberal and nationalist goal of creating a constitution for a unified Germany.
H. Since the members had no way to force the rulers to accept the constitution, the Frankish Assembly failed.

I. The Austrian Empire was a multinational state with a collection of peoples joined only by the Hapsburg ruler. The Germans played a leading role in governing Austria, even though they were only one-fourth of the population.

J. The Austrian Empire had its problems. In March 1848, demonstrations led to the ouster of Metternich, the quintessential conservative. Revolutionary forces took control of the capital, Vienna, and demanded a liberal constitution. The government gave Hungary its own legislature as a gesture of appeasement. In Bohemia, however, Czechs demonstrated for their own government.

K. In June, Austrian military forces crushed the Czech rebellion in Prague. The rebels in Vienna were defeated by October. With the help of 140,000 Russian soldiers, the Austrians crushed the Hungarian rebels by 1849.

L. The Congress of Vienna had set up nine states in Italy. Revolt against Austria broke out in Lombardy and Venetia. Revolutionaries in other Italian states took up arms. By 1849, however, Austria had established the old order throughout Italy.

M. In Europe in 1848, popular revolts led to constitutional governments. The revolutionaries could not stay united, however, and conservative rule was reestablished.

Discussion Question
Why were men reluctant to extend the vote to women? (Answers will vary. Accept relevant, thoughtful answers. Some men believed women did not have the rationality to participate meaningfully in politics, and no doubt other men simply did not want to upset the social order of patriarchy.)
Did You Know? The liberal British philosopher John Stuart Mill was educated exclusively by his father, also a famous philosopher. At the age of eight, after he had read all the works of the historian Herodotus in the original Greek, Mill began to study Latin, geometry, and algebra. By age 12 he was reading Plato and Aristotle in Latin. Mill had a mental breakdown as a young adult, and later claimed that he pulled himself out of his psychological troubles by reading romantic poetry.

I. Breakdown of the Concert of Europe (pages 596–597)

A. The nationalist goals of the 1848 revolutionaries would be achieved later. By 1871 both Germany and Italy were unified, a change caused by the Crimean War.

B. The Crimean War was rooted in a conflict between Russia and the Ottoman Empire, which controlled much of the Balkans in southeastern Europe. The power of the Ottoman Empire declined in the nineteenth century.

C. Russia wanted to expand into the Balkans so it could have access to the Dardanelles and the Mediterranean Sea, giving it the naval might to be the great power in eastern Europe. Russia invaded the Turkish Balkan provinces of Moldavia and Walachia, and the Ottomans declared war on Russia. Great Britain and France, fearing Russia's ambitions, allied with the Ottomans. The Crimean War was on.

D. Heavy losses caused the Russians to seek peace. In the Treaty of Paris of 1856, Russia agreed to have Moldavia and Walachia placed under the protection of all the great powers.

E. The Crimean War destroyed the Concert of Europe. Austria and Russia had been the two powers maintaining order, but now they were enemies because Austria had not supported Russia in the Crimean War due to its own interests in the Balkans.

F. Russia withdrew from European affairs for the next 20 years. Austria had no friends among the great powers, and Germany and Italy now could unify.

Discussion Question

What contemporary alliances and organizations try to keep stability in the world? (Three good answers are the United Nations (UN), the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), and the Organization of American States (OAS).)
II. Italian Unification (pages 597–598)

A. In 1850 Austria was still the dominant power on the Italian Peninsula. After 1848 people looked to the northern Italian state of Piedmont to lead the fight for unification.

B. The king of Piedmont named Camillo di Cavour his prime minister. Cavour pursued economic expansion, which gave the government enough money to support a large army. He then made an alliance with the French emperor Louis-Napoleon, knowing his army by itself could not defeat Austria, and provoked the Austrians into invading Piedmont. It was 1859.

C. The conflict resulted in a peace settlement that made Piedmont an independent state. Cavour’s success caused nationalists in other northern Italian states to overthrow their governments and join their states to Piedmont.

D. In southern Italy a new patriotic leader for unification emerged—Giuseppe Garibaldi. He raised an army of one thousand volunteers, called Red Shirts because of the color of their uniforms.

E. France ruled the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies (Sicily and Naples). A revolt broke out in Sicily against the Bourbon king, and Garibaldi and his forces landed on the island. By July 1860 they controlled most of the island. They marched up the mainland and Naples soon fell. Garibaldi turned his conquests over to Piedmont, and in 1861 a new Kingdom of Italy was proclaimed. King Victor Emmanuel II, who had been king of Piedmont, was crowned ruler.

F. Italy’s full unification would mean adding Venetia, held by Austria, and Rome, held by the pope and supported by the French. The Italian state allied with Prussia in the Austro-Prussian War of 1866. When Prussia won, it gave Venetia to the Italians. France withdrew from Rome in 1870. The Italian army annexed Rome that same year, and Rome became the capital of the united Italy.

Discussion Question

Is the democratic idea of political legitimacy coming from the consent of the governed the true basis of political authority, or are there other bases for authority? (Answers will vary. Accept relevant, thoughtful answers.)

III. German Unification (pages 598–599)

A. Germans looked to Prussia for leadership in unification. In the 1860s King William I tried to enlarge the already powerful Prussian army. When the legislature refused to levy the tax, William I appointed a new prime minister, Otto von Bismarck.
Daily Lecture and Discussion Notes

Chapter 19, Section 3

B. Bismarck often is seen as the greatest nineteenth-century practitioner of realpolitik, or practical politics with little regard for ethics and an emphasis on power. He ignored the legislature on the matter of the army, saying that “Germany does not look to Prussia’s liberalism but to her power.”

C. Bismarck collected taxes and strengthened the army. From 1862 to 1866, he governed Prussia without legislative approval. With Austria as an ally, he defeated Denmark and gained territory. He then created friction with Austria, and the two countries went to war in 1866. The highly disciplined Prussian army defeated the Austrians soundly less than a month after war was declared.

D. Prussia organized northern German states into a North German Confederation. The southern German states signed military alliances with Prussia for protection against France, even though Prussia was Protestant and southern Germany was Catholic.

E. Prussia dominated all of northern Germany. Problems with France soon developed. France feared a strong German state. From a misunderstanding between Prussia and France over the candidacy of a relative of the Prussian king for the throne of Spain, the Franco-Prussian War broke out in 1870. Prussia and its southern German allies handily defeated the French. Prussian armies advanced into France, capturing the king (Napoleon III) and an entire army.

F. Paris surrendered and an official peace treaty was signed in 1871. France paid 5 billion francs and gave up the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine to the new German state. The French burned for revenge over the loss of these territories.

G. The southern states joined the North German Confederation. On January 18, 1871, in the Hall of Mirrors in the palace of Versailles, William I of Prussia was proclaimed kaiser, or emperor, of the Second German Empire (the first was the Holy Roman Empire).

H. The Prussian monarchy and army had achieved German unity, giving the new state its authoritarian and militaristic values. This military might combined with industrial resources made the new state the strongest power on the European continent.

Discussion Question
What characteristics of German National Socialism are found in the Prussian state? (Authoritarianism, militarism, and the emphasis on obedience to state authority.)

turn

268
IV. Nationalism and Reform in Europe \( (\text{pages 600–602}) \)

A. Great Britain avoided the revolutionary upheavals of the first half of the nineteenth century. In 1815 the aristocratic classes dominated Parliament. In 1832 Parliament extended the vote to include male members of the industrial middle class, giving them an interest in ruling Britain. Further social and political reforms stabilized Britain through the 1860s.

B. Britain's continued economic growth also added to its stability. After 1850, the industrial middle class was prosperous and the wages of the industrial working class were beginning to climb.

C. The British feeling of national pride was reflected in Queen Victoria. Her reign from 1837 to 1901 is the longest in English history. Her sense of duty and moral respectability were reflected in her era, known as the Victorian Age.

D. After 1848 events in France moved towards restoring the monarchy. In the 1852 plebiscite, or popular vote, 97 percent voted to restore the empire. Louis-Napoleon became Napoleon III, emperor of the Second Empire.

E. Napoleon III’s government was authoritarian. He controlled the armed forces, police, and civil service. Only he could introduce legislation or declare war. He limited civil liberties and focused on expanding the economy. Government subsidies built railroads, harbors, canals, and roads. Iron production tripled.

F. He also did a vast rebuilding of Paris, replacing old narrow streets with wide boulevards. The new Paris had spacious buildings, public squares, an underground sewage system, a public water supply, and gaslights. It was modern.

G. Opposition to the emperor arose in the 1860s. Napoleon III liberalized his regime, giving the legislature more power, for example. After the Prussians defeated the French, however, the Second Empire fell.

H. The multinational state of Austria had been able to frustrate the attempts of its ethnic groups for independence. After 1848 and 1849, the Hapsburg rulers restored centralized, autocratic government.

I. However, the Prussian victory over Austria forced Austria to make concessions to the strongly nationalistic Hungarians. The result was the Compromise of 1867. It created the dual Austria-Hungary monarchy. Each component had its own constitution, legislature, bureaucracy, and capital—Vienna for Austria and Budapest for Hungary. Holding the two states together was a single monarch (Francis Joseph), a common army, foreign policy, and a shared financial system.

J. Domestically, Hungary had become an independent state. Other states were not happy with the compromise.
Daily Lecture and Discussion Notes

Chapter 19, Section 3

K. At the beginning of the nineteenth century, Russia was a highly rural, autocratic state with a divine-right monarch with absolute power. In 1856, however, Russia was defeated in the Crimean War. Even conservatives knew that Russia was falling behind western Europe and needed to modernize.

L. Czar Alexander II made reforms. On March 3, 1861 he freed the serfs with an emancipation edict. Peasants could now own property and marry as they wished. The government bought land from the landlords and provided it to the peasants.

M. Landowners often kept the best land for themselves, however, and the new system was not helpful to peasants. Emancipation had led to an unhappy, land-starved peasantry following old ways of farming.

N. A group of radicals assassinated Alexander II in 1881. His son and successor turned against reform and returned to the old methods of repression—soldiers, secret police, censorship, and the like.

Discussion Question
How could Alexander II have more effectively freed the serfs? (He could have found ways to guarantee that the peasants received good and sufficient land.)

V. Nationalism in the United States (pages 602–603)

A. The U.S. Constitution had committed the country to both nationalism and liberalism. Unity was not easy to achieve, however.

B. From the beginning, Federalists and Republicans fought bitterly over the division of powers between the federal and state levels in the new government. The Federalists wanted a strong central government, the Republicans wanted strong state governments.

C. With the War of 1812 against the British, a surge of national feeling covered up these divisions. The election of Andrew Jackson opened a new, more democratic era of American politics. The right to vote was extended to all adult white males, regardless of property.

D. By the mid-nineteenth century, the issue of American unity was threatened by slavery. The South’s economy was based on growing cotton using slave labor, and the South was determined to keep the status quo. Abolitionism, a movement to end slavery, arose in the North and challenged the South.

E. In 1858 Abraham Lincoln had said that “this government cannot endure permanently half slave and half free.” He was elected president in 1860. A month later South Carolina voted to secede (withdraw) from the United States. Six more southern states did the same, setting up the rival Confederate States of America. War broke out between North and South.
F. The American Civil War (1861 to 1865) was bloody. Over 600,000 soldiers died. The Union wore down the Confederacy. In 1863 President Lincoln issued the Emancipation Proclamation, freeing the slaves. On April 9, 1865, the South surrendered and national unity prevailed in the United States.

Discussion Question
Does race still divide the United States, even though slavery is long over? (Answers will vary. Accept relevant, thoughtful answers. Make sure students use examples and specifics when discussing this highly emotional issue.)

VI. The Emergence of a Canadian Nation (page 603)
A. Canada passed from the French to the British at the end of the Seven Years’ War. By 1800 most Canadians favored more independence from British rule.
B. There were serious problems among the Canadian colonists. Upper Canada (modern Ontario) was English speaking, while Lower Canada (modern Quebec) was French speaking.
C. After two Canadian rebellions against the government in 1837 and 1838, the British Parliament formally joined Upper and Lower Canada into the United Provinces of Canada. It was not self-governed.
D. John Macdonald, the head of Upper Canada’s Conservative Party, was a strong voice for self-rule. The British gave in, fearing American designs on Canada. In 1867, Parliament passed the British North American Act, which established the new nation, the Dominion of Canada. It had its own constitution.
E. John Macdonald was the first prime minister of the new Dominion. Canada possessed a parliamentary system and ruled itself, though foreign affairs were in the hands of the British government.

Discussion Question
Canada and America shared the experience of opening up western frontiers after becoming nations. What effect did this shared experience have on each nation? (The dominant effect was making each country economically stable and rich, for the most part, due to the vast resources in each country’s frontier.)
Daily Lecture and Discussion Notes

Chapter 19, Section 4

Did You Know? Debate about Darwin’s theory of evolution reached a pinnacle of emotion at an 1860 meeting at Oxford University. Biologist T.H. Huxley responded to a prominent opponent of evolution’s sarcastic query about Huxley’s ancestry with the withering statement that he would prefer to have as a grandfather “a miserable ape” than a man who used his intelligence and influence “for the mere purpose of introducing ridicule into a grave scientific debate.”

I. Romanticism (pages 605–607)

A. At the end of the eighteenth century, the intellectual movement known as romanticism emerged in reaction to Enlightenment ideas. The Enlightenment had stressed reason for discovering truth. The romantics emphasized feelings and imagination as sources of knowing.

B. For romanticism, emotions were truly knowable only by the person experiencing them. Romantic works often feature figures isolated from society but sure about the worth of their inner lives. Romanticism also stressed individualism, the belief that each person is unique. Many romantics rebelled against middle-class conventions.

C. Many romantics also had a deep interest in the past, and revived medieval architectural styles, such as with the Houses of Parliament in London. Sir Walter Scott’s novel of clashes among medieval knights, Ivanhoe, was wildly popular. By focusing on their nation’s past, many romantic writers reflected nineteenth-century nationalism. The exotic, unfamiliar, and extreme attracted romantics, as is seen in Gothic literature such as Mary Shelley’s Frankenstein and the works of Edgar Allen Poe.

D. Romantics viewed poetry as the direct expression of the soul. Romantic poetry gave expression to a vital part of romanticism, the love of nature. This is clearly seen in the poetry of William Wordsworth. The worship of nature caused romantics to criticize the new science, which they believed reduced nature to a cold object of mathematical study that had no room for the imagination or the human soul.

E. In Shelley’s novel, Frankenstein’s monster was a symbol of the danger of science’s attempt to conquer nature. Romantics feared that industrialization would alienate people from their inner selves and the natural world.

F. Romantic artists shared two basic beliefs: art reflects the artist’s inner soul and art should abandon classical reason for warmth and emotion. Eugène Delacroix was the most famous romantic painter in France.
G. To many, music was the most romantic art because it probed so deeply into human emotions. Ludwig van Beethoven was one of the greatest composers of all time. While his early work was more classical, his later music, beginning with his Third Symphony, embodied the drama and power of romanticism. He felt music had to reflect deep feeling.

Discussion Question
The English romantic poet John Keats believed that beauty is truth, and truth is beauty. What is the truth in beauty, if any? (Answers will vary. Accept relevant, thoughtful answers. Keats believed that beauty was the outward expression of an inward reality and wholeness, and in that way beauty was the expression of truth.)

II. A New Age of Science (pages 607–608)

A. The Industrial Revolution increased interest in scientific research. By the 1830s science had made discoveries that benefited all Europeans.

B. The Frenchman Louis Pasteur proposed the germ theory of disease, laying the foundation for modern medical research. The Russian Dmitry Mendeleyev classified all the materials elements then known by their atomic weights. The Englishman Michael Faraday was laying the foundation for the use of electric current.

C. Europeans’ increasing faith in science and the material world weakened their religious faith. Secularization increased throughout the nineteenth century. No one did more to create a picture of humans as material beings than Charles Darwin. In 1859 Charles Darwin published his On the Origin of Species by Means of Natural Selection. Darwin proposed his principle of organic evolution. Species of animals and plants develop through a struggle for existence. Those that adapt better survive, in a process Darwin called natural selection.

D. Darwin argued in The Descent of Man that human beings had animal origins. Darwin’s ideas were controversial, but over the years many scientists and intellectuals have accepted them.

Discussion Question
Why were Darwin’s ideas controversial? (Some argued they made human beings ordinary objects of nature, others said there was no place for moral values in a Darwinian world, and others condemned Darwin for displacing God from creation.)
III. Realism (pages 608–609)

A. The belief that the world should be viewed realistically is related to the scientific outlook and the modern “politics of reality.” Realism became a movement in the arts as well.

B. Literary realists rejected romanticism. They wanted to depict actual characters from real life, not exotic, past heroes. The French author Gustave Flaubert perfected the realist novel, most famously in Madame Bovary where he criticizes stifling, conformist small-town life in France.

C. The British novelist Charles Dickens wrote highly successful realist novels focusing on the lower and middle classes in Britain’s early Industrial Age. He described the brutal realities of urban poverty.

D. The French painter Gustave Courbet was the most famous realist painter, portraying scenes of workers, peasants, and the wives of saloon keepers. He would paint only what he could see. Many objected to his paintings as ugly and found his painting of human misery scandalous. To Courbet, no subject was too ordinary, too harsh, or too ugly.

Discussion Question
Some people believe that realist art contradicts the mission of art to beautify the world. Is this position correct or not? (Answers will vary. Accept relevant, thoughtful answers. One tack to explore is the claim that any form of life—ugly or beautiful—has to be recognized, and so recognized artistically. The ancient African-Roman playwright Terrance expressed this view well when he said, “Nothing human is foreign to me.”