

UNIT 5 KEY TERMS

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

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.

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 (the Reign of Terror) of the French Revolution. Wife: Marie Antoinette, also executed.

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.

Thomas Paine: Wrote both Common Sense and Rights of Man, thus participating in both the American and French Revolutions

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 Napoleonic France to restore the European balance of power.

Holy Alliance: alliance between Russia, Prussia, and Austria in defense of the established order; formed by the most conservative monarchies of Europe during the Congress of Vienna.

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 that 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.

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.

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. Father of Communism. Wrote Communist Manifesto and Das Capital.

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. Provided foundation for secularization of the West.

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.

Friedrich Nietzsche: German philosopher of the late 19th century who challenged the foundations of Christianity and traditional morality. He was interested in the enhancement of individual and cultural health, and believed in life, creativity, power, and the realities of the world we live in, rather than those situated in a world beyond.. “Beyond Good and Evil,” “God is Dead”

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.

Kingdom of Mataram: controlled most of interior Java in the 17th century; weakness of the state after the 1670s allowed the Dutch to expand their control over all of Java.

Sepoys: Indian troops, trained in European style, serving the British East India Company.

Raj: the British political establishment in India.

Plassey (1757): battle between the troops of the British East India Company and the Indian ruler of Bengal; British victory gave them control of northeast India.

Princely states: ruled by Indian princes allied with the Raj; agents of the East India Company were stationed at their courts to ensure loyalty.

Nabobs: name given to British who went to India to make fortunes through graft and exploitation; returned to Britain to live richly.

Charles Cornwallis: British official who reformed East India Company corruption during the 1790s (yes, the same Charles Cornwallis who had earlier surrendered to Washington at Yorktown)

Isandhlwana (1879): Zulu (Southern Africa) defeat of a British army; one of the few indigenous victories over 19th-century European armies.

Tropical dependencies: Western European possessions in Africa, Asia, and the South Pacific where small numbers of Europeans ruled large indigenous populations.

Settler colonies: colonies—as South Africa, New Zealand, Algeria, Kenya, and Hawaii—where minority European populations lived among majority indigenous peoples.

White racial supremacy: belief in the inherent superiority of whites over the rest of humanity; peaked in the period before World War I.

Great Trek: migration into the South African interior of thousands of Afrikaners seeking to escape British control.

Boer republics: independent states—the Orange Free State and Transvaal—established during the 1850s in the South African interior by Afrikaners.

Cecil Rhodes: British entrepreneur in South Africa; manipulated the political situation to gain entry to the diamonds and gold discovered in the Boer republics.

Boer War (1899–1902): fought between the British and Afrikaners; British victory and post-war policies left Africans under Afrikaner control.

James Cook: his voyages to Hawaii from 1777 to 1779 opened the islands to the West.

Kamehameha: Hawaiian prince; with British backing he created a unified kingdom by 1810; promoted the entry of Western ideas in commerce and social relations.

Toussaint L'Overture: leader of the slave rebellion on the French island of St. Domingue in 1791; led to the creation of the independent republic of Haiti in 1804.

Miguel de Hidalgo: Mexican priest who established an independence movement among Indians and mestizos in 1810; after early victories he was captured and executed.

Augustín de Iturbide: conservative Creole officer in the Mexican army who joined the independence movement; made emperor in 1821.

Simon Bolívar: Creole military officer in northern South America; won victories against the Spanish in Venezuela, Colombia, and Ecuador between 1817 and 1822 that led to the independent state of Gran Colombia.

Gran Colombia: existed as an independent state until 1830 when Colombia, Venezuela, and Ecuador became separate independent nations.

José de San Martín: leader of movements in Rio de la Plata that led to the independence of the United Provinces of the Rio de la Plata by 1816; later led independence movements in Chile and Peru.

Caudillos: leaders in independent Latin America who dominated local areas by force in defiance of national policies; sometimes seized the national government.

Monroe Doctrine: United States declaration of 1823 that any attempt by a European country to colonize the Americas would be considered an unfriendly act.

Guano: bird droppings utilized as fertilizer; a major Peruvian export between 1850 and 1880.

Positivism: a philosophy based on the ideas of Auguste Comte; stressed observation and scientific approaches to the problems of society.

Antonio López de Santa Anna: Mexican general who seized power after the collapse of the Mexican republic in 1835.

Manifest Destiny: belief in the United States that it was destined to rule from the Atlantic to the Pacific.

Mexican-American War: (1846–1848); American expansion leads to dispute over California and Texas.

Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo (1848): ratified by the United States; Mexico lost one-half of national its territory.

Benito Juárez: Indian lawyer and politician who led a liberal revolution (La Reforma) against Santa Anna; defeated by the French who made Maximilian emperor; returned to power from 1867 to 1872.

Maximilian von Habsburg: Austrian archduke proclaimed Emperor of Mexico as a result of French intervention in 1862; after the French withdrawal he was executed in 1867.

Fazendas: coffee estates that spread into the Brazilian interior between 1840 and 1860; caused intensification of slavery.

Modernization theory: the belief that the more industrialized, urban, and modern a society became, the more social change and improvement were possible as traditional patterns and attitudes were abandoned or transformed.

Dependency theory: the belief that development and underdevelopment were not stages but were part of the same process; that development and growth of areas like western Europe were achieved at the expense of underdevelopment of dependent regions like Latin America.

Científicos: advisors to Díaz's government who were influenced strongly by positivist ideas.

Spanish-American War: fought between Spain and the United States beginning in 1898; resulted in annexation of Puerto Rico and the Philippines; permitted American intervention in the Caribbean.

Panama Canal: the United States supported an independence movement in Panama, then part of Colombia, in return for the exclusive rights for a canal across the Panama isthmus. Took over construction of Canal from the French

Selim III: Ottoman sultan (1789–1807); attempted to improve administrative efficiency and build a new army and navy; assassinated by Janissaries.

Mahmud II: 19th-century Ottoman sultan who built a private, professional army; crushed the Janissaries and initiated reforms on Western precedents.

Tanzimat reforms: Western-style reforms within the Ottoman Empire between 1839 and 1876; included a European-influenced constitution in 1876.

Abdul Hamid: Ottoman sultan (1878–1908) who tried to return to despotic absolutism; nullified constitution and restricted civil liberties.

Ottoman Society for Union and Progress: Young Turks; intellectuals and political agitators seeking the return of the 1876 constitution; gained power through a coup in 1908.

Mamluks: rulers of Egypt under the Ottomans; defeated by Napoleon in 1798; revealed the vulnerability of the Muslim world.

Muhammad Ali: controlled Egypt following the French withdrawal; began a modernization process based on Western models, but failed to greatly change Egypt; died in 1848.

Khedives: descendants of Muhammad Ali and rulers of Egypt until 1952.

Suez Canal: built to link the Mediterranean and Red seas; opened in 1869; British later occupied Egypt to safeguard their financial and strategic interests.

Al-Afghani and Muhammad Abduh: Muslim thinkers in Egypt during the latter part of the 19th century; stressed the need for adoption of Western scientific learning and technology and the importance of rational inquiry within Islam.

Mahdi: Muhammad Achmad, the leader of a Sudanic Sufi brotherhood; began a holy war against the Egyptians and British and founded a state in the Sudan.

Khalifa Abdallahi: successor of the Mahdi; defeated and killed by British General Kitchener in 1898.

Compradors: wealthy group of merchants under the Qing; specialized in the import-export trade on China's south coast.

Lin Zexu: 19th-century Chinese official charged during the 1830s with ending the opium trade in southern China; set off the events leading to the Opium War.

Opium War: fought between Britain and Qing China beginning in 1839 to protect the British trade in opium; British victory demonstrated Western superiority over China.

Taiping Rebellion: massive rebellion in southern China in the 1850s and 1860s led by Hong Xinquan; sought to overthrow the Qing dynasty and Confucianism.

Cixi: conservative dowager empress who dominated the last decades of the Qing dynasty.

Boxer Rebellion: popular outburst aimed at expelling foreigners from China; put down by intervention of the Western powers.

Sun Yat-sen: (1866–1925); Chinese revolutionary leader, of scholar-gentry background.

Decembrist rising: unsuccessful 1825 political revolt in Russia by mid-level army officers advocating reforms.

Crimean War (1854–1856): began with a Russian attack on the Ottoman Empire; France and Britain joined on the Ottoman side; resulted in a Russian defeat because of Western industrial might; led to Russian reforms under Alexander II.

Emancipation of the serfs: Alexander II in 1861 ended serfdom in Russia; serfs did not obtain political rights and had to pay the aristocracy for lands gained.

Zemstvoes: local political councils created as part of Alexander II's reforms; gave middle-class professionals experience in government but did not influence national policy.

Trans-Siberian railroad: constructed during the 1870s and 1880s to connect European Russia with the Pacific; increased the Russian role in Asia.

Intelligentsia: Russian term for articulate intellectuals as a class; desired radical change in the Russian political and economic system; wished to maintain a Russian culture distinct from the West.

Anarchists: political groups that thought the abolition of formal government was a first step to creating a better society; became important in Russia and was the modern world's first large terrorist movement.

Russo-Japanese War: 1904; Russian expansion into northern China leads to war; rapid Japanese victory followed.

Lenin (Vladimir Ilych Ulyanov): Russian Marxist leader; insisted on the importance of disciplined revolutionary cells.

Bolsheviks: literally the majority party, but actually a minority group; the most radical branch of the Russian Marxist movement; led by Lenin.

Russian Revolution of 1905: defeat by Japan marked by strikes by urban workers and insurrections among the peasantry; resulted in temporary reforms.

Duma: Russian national assembly created as one of the reforms following the Revolution of 1905; progressively stripped of power during the reign of Nicholas II.

Terakoya: commoner schools founded during the Tokugawa shogunate to teach reading, writing, and Confucian rudiments; by mid-19th century resulted in the highest literacy rate outside of the West.

Matthew Perry: American naval officer; in 1853 insisted under threat of bombardment on the opening of ports to American trade.

Meiji Restoration: power of the emperor restored with Emperor Mutsuhito in 1868; took name of Meiji, the Enlightened One; ended shogunate and began a reform period.

Diet: Japanese parliament established as part of the constitution of 1889; able to advise government but not control it.

Zaibatsu: huge industrial combines created in Japan during the 1890s.

Sino-Japanese War (1894–1895): fought in Korea between Japan and Qing China; Japanese victory demonstrated its arrival as new industrial power.

Yellow peril: Western term for perceived threat from Japanese imperialism.