

The Age of Imperialism (1870–1914)

Although the Industrial Revolution and nationalism shaped European society in the nineteenth century, imperialism—the domination by one country or people over another group of people—dramatically changed the world during the latter half of that century.

Imperialism did not begin in the nineteenth century. From the sixteenth to the early nineteenth century, an era dominated by what is now termed **Old Imperialism**, European nations sought trade routes with the Far East, explored the New World, and established settlements in North and South America as well as in Southeast Asia. They set up trading posts and gained footholds on the coasts of Africa and China, and worked closely with the local rulers to ensure the protection of European economic interests. Their influence, however, was limited. In the **Age of New Imperialism** that began in the 1870s, European states established vast empires mainly in Africa, but also in Asia and the Middle East.

Unlike the sixteenth- and seventeenth-century method of establishing settlements, the new imperialists set up the administration of the native areas for the benefit of the colonial power. European nations pursued an aggressive expansion policy that was motivated by economic needs that were created by the Industrial Revolution. Between 1870 and 1914, Europe went through a “Second Industrial Revolution,” which quickened the pace of change as science, technology, and industry spurred economic growth. Improvements in steel production revolutionized shipbuilding and transportation. The development of the railroad, the internal combustion engine, and electrical power generation contributed to the growing industrial economies of Europe and their need to seek new avenues of expansion.

The expansion policy was also motivated by political needs that associated empire building with national greatness, and social and religious reasons that promoted the superiority of Western society over “backward” societies. Through the use of direct military force, economic spheres of influence, and annexation, European countries dominated the continents of Africa and Asia. By 1914, Great Britain controlled the largest number of colonies, and the phrase, “the sun never sets on the British Empire,” described the vastness of its holdings. Imperialism had consequences that affected the colonial nations, Europe, and the world. It also led to increased competition among nations and to conflicts that would disrupt world peace in 1914.

Old Imperialism

European imperialism did not begin in the 1800s. In their efforts to find a direct trade route to Asia during the age of Old Imperialism, European nations established colonies in the Americas, India, South Africa, and the East Indies, and gained territory along the coasts of Africa and China. Meanwhile, Europe’s Commercial Revolution created new needs and desires for wealth and raw materials. Mercantilists maintained that colonies could serve as a source of wealth, while personal motives by rulers, statesmen, explorers, and missionaries supported the imperial belief in “Glory, God, and Gold.” By 1800, Great Britain was the leading colonial power with colonies in India, South Africa, and Australia. Spain colonized Central and South America. France held Louisiana and French Guinea, and Holland built an empire in the East Indies.

In the first half of the nineteenth century, colonialism became less popular. The Napoleonic Wars, the struggle for nationalism and democracy, and the cost of industrialization exhausted the energies of European nations. Many leaders also thought that the costs to their respective empires outweighed the benefits, especially the cost of supervising the colonies. However, in the mid-nineteenth century, Europe—especially Great Britain and France—began an economic revival. During the Victorian Era, which lasted from 1837 to 1901, Great Britain became an industrial giant, providing more than 25 percent of the world’s output of industrial goods. In France, Napoleon’s investment in industry and large-scale ventures, such as railroad building, helped to promote prosperity. Thus the Industrial Revolution stirred ambitions in many European countries and renewed their confidence to embark on a path of aggressive expansion overseas.

New Imperialism

From the late 1800s through the early 1900s, Western Europe pursued a policy of imperialism that became known as New Imperialism. This New Imperialist Age gained its impetus from economic, military, political, humanitarian, and religious reasons, as well as from the development and acceptance of a new theory—Social Darwinism—and advances in technology.

Economic Reasons

By 1870, it became necessary for European industrialized nations to expand their markets globally in order to sell products that they could not sell domestically on the continent. Businessmen and bankers had excess capital to invest, and foreign investments offered the incentive of greater profits, despite the risks. The need for cheap labor and a steady supply of raw materials, such as oil, rubber, and manganese for steel, required that the industrial nations maintain firm control over these unexplored areas. Only by directly controlling these regions, which meant setting up colonies under their direct control, could the industrial economy work effectively—or so the imperialists thought. The economic gains of the new imperialism were limited, however, because the new colonies were too poor to spend money on European goods.

Military and Political Reasons

Leading European nations also felt that colonies were crucial to military power, national security, and nationalism. Military leaders claimed that a strong navy was necessary in order to become a great power. Thus, naval vessels needed military bases around the world to take on coal and supplies. Islands or harbors were seized to satisfy these needs. Colonies guaranteed the growing European navies safe harbors and coaling stations, which they needed in time of war. National security was an important reason for Great Britain's decision to occupy Egypt. Protecting the Suez Canal was vital for the British Empire. The **Suez Canal**, which formally opened in 1869, shortened the sea route from Europe to South Africa and East Asia. To Britain, the canal was a lifeline to India, the jewel of its empire. Many people were also convinced that the possession of colonies was an indication of a nation's greatness; colonies were status symbols. According to nineteenth-century German historian, Heinrich von Treitschke, all great nations should want to conquer barbarian nations.

Humanitarian and Religious Goals

Many Westerners believed that Europe should civilize their little brothers beyond the seas. According to this view, non-whites would receive the blessings of Western civilization, including medicine, law, and Christianity. **Rudyard Kipling** (1865–1936) in his famous poem, “The White Man's Burden” expressed this mission in the 1890s when he prodded Europeans to take up “their moral obligation” to civilize the uncivilized. He encouraged them to “Send forth the best ye breed to serve your captives' need.” Missionaries supported colonization, believing that European control would help them spread Christianity, the true religion, in Asia and Africa.

Social Darwinism

In 1859, **Charles Darwin** (1809–1882) published *On the Origin of Species*. Darwin claimed that all life had evolved into the present state over millions of years. To explain the long slow process of evolution, Darwin put forth the theory of *natural selection*. Natural forces selected those with physical traits best adapted to their environment. Darwin never promoted any social ideas. The process of natural selection came to be known as *survival of the fittest*. The Englishman **Herbert Spencer** (1820–1903) was the first to apply “survival of the fittest” to human societies and nations. **Social Darwinism** fostered imperialistic expansion by proposing that some people were more fit (advanced) than others. The Europeans believed that they, as the white race, were dominant and that it was only natural for them to conquer the “inferior” people as nature's way of improving mankind. Thus, the conquest of inferior people was just, and the destruction of the weaker races was nature's natural law.

Western Technology

Superior technology and improved medical knowledge helped to foster imperialism. Quinine enabled Europeans to survive tropical diseases and venture into the mosquito-infested interiors of Africa and Asia. The combination of the steamboat and the telegraph enabled the Western powers to increase their mobility and to quickly respond to any situations that threatened their dominance. The rapid-fire machine gun also gave them a military advantage and was helpful in convincing Africans and Asians to accept Western control. The following table summarizes the causes of the new imperialism:

Causes of New Imperialism			
Economic	Military/Political	Humanitarian/Religious	Technological
Need for markets	Need for military bases	White man's burden	New medicine
Raw materials	National security	Spread of Christianity	New weapons
Source of investments	Source of pride—nationalism	Social Darwinism (superiority of Western society)	Transportation

Imperialism in Africa

Africa was known as the **Dark Continent** and remained unknown to the outside world until the late nineteenth century because its interior—desert, mountains, plateaus, and jungles—discouraged exploration. Britain's occupation of Egypt and Belgium's penetration of the Congo started the race for colonial possessions in Africa.

Suez Canal

In 1875, Britain purchased a controlling interest in the **Suez Canal** from the bankrupt ruler of Egypt who was unable to repay loans that he had contracted for the canal and modernization of the country. The French, who organized the building of the Suez Canal under Ferdinand de Lesseps in 1859, owned the other shares. The Suez Canal was important because it shortened the route from Europe to South and East Asia. The canal also provided a lifeline to India, which Britain had made part of the British Empire in 1858. In 1882, Britain established a protectorate over Egypt, which meant that the government leaders were officials of the Ottoman Empire, but were really controlled by Great Britain. The British occupation of Egypt, the richest and most developed land in Africa, set off "African fever" in Europe. To ensure its domination and stability in the area, Great Britain extended its control over the Sudan as well.

Exploration of the Congo

In 1878, **Leopold II of Belgium** (b. 1835, ruled 1865–1909) sent Anglo-American newspaperman **Henry Stanley** (1841–1904), to explore the Congo and establish trade agreements with leaders in the Congo River basin. Stanley, in 1871, had "found" the great Scottish explorer and missionary **David Livingstone** (1813–1873), who had traveled throughout Africa for over thirty years. When several years passed without a word from him, it was feared that he was dead. Stanley was hired in 1869 by the *New York Herald*, an American newspaper to find Livingstone. His famous greeting, "Dr. Livingstone, I presume" became legendary, even though there is some question about its authenticity. Stanley's account of their meeting made headlines around the world and helped make him famous. Stanley eventually sold his services to Leopold II, who had formed a financial syndicate entitled **The International African Association**. A strong-willed monarch, Leopold II's intrusion into the Congo area raised questions about the political fate of Africa south of the Sahara. Other European nations were fearful that Belgium wanted to extend control over the entire area.

The Scramble for Africa

Otto von Bismarck (1815–1898), Chancellor of Germany, and **Jules Ferry** (1832–1893), Premier of France and considered the builder of the modern French Empire, organized an international conference in Berlin to lay down the basic rules for colonizing Africa. The **Berlin Conference** (1884–1885) established the principle that European occupation of African territory had to be based on effective occupation that was recognized by other states, and that no single European power could claim Africa. The Berlin Conference led to the “Scramble for Africa.” Between 1878 and 1914, European powers divided up the entire African continent except for the independent countries of Ethiopia and Liberia. Liberia was settled by free slaves from the United States and became an independent republic in 1847. Ethiopia, which was already independent, routed an Italian invasion in 1896. Defeating the Italians assured that the country would stay independent. European countries divided Africa as follows:

France

The French had the largest colonial empire in Africa, over 3 ½ million square miles, half of which contained the Sahara Desert. In 1830, France had conquered Algeria in North Africa. Between 1881 and 1912, France acquired Tunisia, Morocco, West Africa, and Equatorial Africa. At its height, the French Empire in Africa was as large as the continental United States.

Great Britain

Britain’s holdings in Africa were not as large as France’s but it controlled the more populated regions, particularly of southern Africa, which contained valuable mineral resources such as diamonds and gold. In 1806, the British displaced Holland in South Africa and ruled the Cape Colony. However, the British soon came into conflict with the **Boers** (farmers), the original Dutch settlers who resented British rule. In the 1830s, the Boers left British territory, migrated north, and founded two republics—the Orange Free State and Transvaal. The Boers soon came into conflict with the powerful **Zulus**, a native-African ethnic group, for control of the land. When the Zulus and the Boers were unable to win a decisive victory, the British became involved in The Zulu Wars and eventually destroyed the Zulu empire. In 1890, **Cecil Rhodes** (1853–1902), who was born in Great Britain and had become a diamond mine millionaire, became prime minister of the Cape Colony. He wanted to extend the British African Empire from Cape Town to Cairo and decided to annex the Boer Republic. In the **Boer War** (1899–1902), the British, with great difficulty, defeated the Boers and annexed the two republics. In 1910, Britain combined its South African colonies into the Union of South Africa. Whites ran the government, and the Boers, who outnumbered the British, assumed control. This system laid the foundation for racial segregation that would last until the 1990s.

Germany

Late unification delayed Germany’s imperialistic ventures, but it also wanted its place in the sun. Germany took land in eastern and southwestern Africa.

Italy

Italy was another late entry into the imperialistic venture. Italy took control of Libya, Italian Somaliland, and Eritrea, which is the north-most province of Ethiopia, near the Red Sea. Italy’s efforts to gain control of Ethiopia ended in bitter defeat.

Portugal

Portugal carved out large colonies in Angola and Mozambique.

Imperialism in Asia

India

The British took control of India in 1763, after defeating the French in the **Seven Years' War** (1756–1763). The British controlled India through the **British East India Company**, which ruled with an iron hand. In 1857, an Indian revolt, led by native soldiers called *sepoys*, led to an uprising known as the **Sepoy Mutiny**. After suppressing the rebellion, the British government made India part of the empire in 1858, as mentioned previously. The British introduced social reforms, advocated education, and promoted technology. Britain profited greatly from India, which was called the “Crown Jewel of the British Empire.” The Indian masses, however, continued to live close to starvation and the British had little respect for the native Indian culture.

The Dutch held the Dutch East Indies and extended their control over Indonesia, while the French took over Indochina (Cambodia, Laos, and Vietnam). The Russians also got involved and extended their control over the area of Persia (Iran).

China

Since the seventeenth century, China had isolated itself from the rest of the world and refused to adopt Western ways. The Chinese permitted trade but only at the Port of Canton, where the rights of European merchants were at the whim of the emperor. Imperialism in China began with the **First Opium War** (1839–1842), when the Chinese government tried to halt the British from importing opium. This resulted in a war in which Britain's superior military and industrial might easily destroyed the Chinese military forces. The **Treaty of Nanking** (1842) opened up five ports to the British, gave Britain the island of Hong Kong, and forced China to pay a large indemnity. In 1858, China was forced to open up eleven more treaty ports that granted special privileges, such as the right to trade with the interior of China and the right to supervise the Chinese custom offices. Foreigners also received the right of extraterritoriality, which meant that Western nations maintained their own courts in China and Westerners were tried in their own courts.

Between 1870 and 1914, the Western nations carved China into spheres of influence, areas in which outside powers claimed exclusive trading rights. France acquired territory in southwestern China, Germany gained the Shandong Peninsula in northern China, Russia obtained control of Manchuria and a leasehold over Port Arthur, and the British took control of the Yangzi valley. The United States, which had not taken part in carving up China because it feared that spheres of influence might hurt U.S. commerce, promoted the **Open Door Policy** in 1899. **John Hay**, the American Secretary of State, proposed that equal trading rights to China be allowed for all nations and that the territorial integrity of China be respected. The imperial nations accepted this policy in principle but not always in practice. For the United States, however, the Open Door Policy became the cornerstone of its Chinese policy at the beginning of the twentieth century.

By the 1900s, China was in turmoil. There was rising sentiment against foreigners because China had been forced to give up so many political and economic rights. This anti-foreign sentiment exploded into the **Boxer Rebellion** or **Uprising** (1899–1901). The **Boxers** were a secret Chinese nationalist society supported by the Manchu government, and their goal was to drive out all foreigners and restore China to isolation. In June 1900, the Boxers launched a series of attacks against foreigners and Chinese Christians. They also attacked the foreign embassies in Beijing. The imperialistic powers sent an international force of 25,000 troops to crush the rebellion, which ended within two weeks.

The Boxer Rebellion failed, but it convinced the Chinese that reforms were necessary. In 1911, revolutions broke out across the country and the Manchu emperor was overthrown. **Dr. Sun Yat-Sen** (1866–1925), the father of modern China, proclaimed a republic and was named the new president. He advocated a three-point program of nationalism (freeing China from imperial control); democracy (elected government officials); and livelihood (adapting Western industrial and agricultural methods). The Chinese republic faced many problems and for the next thirty-seven years, China would continue to be at war with itself and with foreign invaders.

Japan

Japan was the only Asian country that did not become a victim of imperialism. In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, the Japanese expelled Europeans from Japan and closed Japanese ports to trade with the outside world, allowing only the Dutch to trade at Nagasaki. In 1853, **Commodore Matthew Perry** (1807–1858), an American naval officer, led an expedition to Japan. He convinced the *shogun*, a medieval-type ruler, to open ports for trade with the United States. Fearful of domination by foreign countries, Japan, unlike China, reversed its policy of isolation and began to modernize by borrowing from the West. The **Meiji Restoration**, which began in 1867, sought to replace the feudal rulers, or the shogun, and increase the power of the emperor. The goal was to make Japan strong enough to compete with the West. The new leaders strengthened the military and transformed Japan into an industrial society. The Japanese adopted a constitution based on the Prussian model with the emperor as the head. The government was not intended to promote democracy but to unite Japan and make it equal to the West. The leaders built up a modern army based on a draft and constructed a fleet of iron steamships.

The Japanese were so successful that they became an imperial power. In the Sino-Japanese War of 1894–95, Japan defeated China and forced her to give up her claims in Korea. Japan also gained control of its first colonies—Taiwan and the Pescadores Islands—and shocked the world by defeating Russia in the **Russo-Japanese War** of 1904–1905. Japan's victory was the first time that an Asian country had defeated a European power in over 200 years.

Imperialism in the Middle East

The importance of the Middle East to the new imperialists was its strategic location (the crossroads of three continents: Europe, Asia, and Africa), vital waterways (canals and the Dardanelles), and valuable oil resources. The Europeans divided up the Middle East in the following manner:

- **Great Britain:** Britain's control of the Suez Canal forced her to take an active role in Egypt as well as to acquire the militarily valuable island of Cyprus to secure oil resources for industrial and military needs. The British also secured concessions in Iran, Iraq, Kuwait, Qatar, and Bahrain. Pipelines were built to the Mediterranean Sea and the Persian Gulf.
- **Russia:** Traditionally, Russia sought to gain control of the Dardanelles as an outlet to the Mediterranean Sea and an area of expansion. Russia helped to dismember the Ottoman Empire and gain independence for several Balkan states.
- **Germany:** In 1899, German bankers obtained the Ottoman Empire's consent to complete the Berlin-Baghdad Railroad.

Consequences of Imperialism

The new imperialism changed both Western society and its colonies. Through it, Western countries established the beginning of a global economy in which the transfer of goods, money, and technology needed to be regulated in an orderly way to ensure a continuous flow of natural resources and cheap labor for the industrialized world.

Imperialism adversely affected the colonies. Under foreign rule, native culture and industry were destroyed. Imported goods wiped out local craft industries. By using colonies as sources of raw materials and markets for manufactured goods, colonial powers held back the colonies from developing industries. One reason why the standard of living was so poor in many of these countries was that the natural wealth of these regions had been funneled to the mother countries.

Imperialism also brought confrontation between the cultures. By 1900, Western nations had control over most of the globe. Europeans were convinced that they had superior cultures and forced the people to accept modern or Western ways. The pressures to westernize forced the colonial people to reevaluate their traditions and to work at discouraging such customs as foot binding in China and *sati* in India. **Sati** was the custom in which a virtuous woman (*sati*) threw herself onto her husband's funeral fire in the hope that the sacrificial act would wipe away the

sins of both her husband and herself. Although imperialism exploited and abused colonial people, Western countries introduced modern medicine that stressed the use of vaccines and more sanitary hygiene that helped to save lives and increase life expectancy.

Imperialism created many political problems. European nations disrupted many traditional political units and united rival peoples under single governments that tried to impose stability and order where local conflicts had existed for years, such as in Nigeria and Rwanda. Ethnic conflicts that developed in the latter half of the twentieth century in many of these areas, can be traced to these imperial policies. Imperialism also contributed to tension among the Western powers. Rivalries between France and Great Britain over the Sudan, between France and Germany over Morocco, and over the Ottoman Empire contributed to the hostile conditions that led to World War I in 1914.

European Society at the Turn of the Century

The latter half of the 1800s and the early 1900s saw great changes in all aspects of European society. In the earlier period, the arts had been restricted primarily to the wealthy, who had money and leisure time to enjoy culture. In most industrial countries, the working day had become limited to ten hours a day and a five-and-a-half-day work week. This created more leisure time which earlier generations never had the time to enjoy. A popular leisure activity was a trip to local music halls. These music halls offered a variety of different acts that included singers, dancers, comedians, and jugglers. By 1900, arts, music, and other forms of entertainment reached a wider audience. The invention of the phonograph and records brought music directly to people's homes. During the 1880s, new technology contributed to the rise of motion pictures. By the early 1900s movies quickly became a big business, and by 1910, close to five million Americans attended some 10,000 theatres each day to watch silent movies. The European movie industry experienced a similar growth.

Middle- and working-class people began to enjoy sports and outdoor activities. European professional soccer clubs were formed. In 1913 at the Football Association Cup finals at the Crystal Palace Stadium in England, Burnet defeated Liverpool 1–0 before a crowd of 120,000 people. The growing interest in sports led to the revival of the ancient Olympic games among countries. In 1896, the first modern Olympics were held in Athens.

Travel, which formerly had been reserved for the wealthy, now became popular with the middle class as doctors, lawyers, teachers, and engineers became part of the industrial society. **Thomas Cook** (1808–1892), an Englishman who had organized his first excursion in 1841 for 500 people to attend a temperance rally for 1 shilling, popularized tours for the middle class. In 1851, he promoted day trips for over 150,000 to the Great Exhibition in London, which had been conceived to symbolize the industrial and economic superiority of Great Britain. Cook's excursions became so popular that he offered trips all over the British Isles, Europe, and North America. By the late 1870s, Cook had organized the first worldwide tour. The success of the Cook Travel Agency symbolized how travel had also become more popular with many segments of society, rather than just the upper class.

Changes in the Arts/Literature

In the early nineteenth century, Romantic artists and writers rejected the rationalism of the Enlightenment and stressed the importance of human emotions and feelings. In the latter half of the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, realism, impressionism, and postimpressionism (expressionism) would dominate the artistic and literary worlds.

Realism

The writers and artists of the Realist movement focused on contemporary everyday life, especially of the urban working classes, neglected in imaginative literature before this time. These writers also stressed that human behavior was influenced by such factors as environment and heredity.

From Romanticism to Realism	
Goals	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To paint the world as it is • To focus on the harsh side of life and on the lives of working-class men and women • To improve the lives of the unfortunate • To reject the Romantic emphasis on imagination
Artists/Works	<p>Gustave Courbet (French, 1819–1877) <i>The Stone Breakers</i> (1849). Colbert’s truthful portrayal of two rough laborers on a country road—leaving out the glamour that most French painters at that time added to their works—helped him become the leader of the Realist movement in painting.</p> <p>Jean François Millet (French, 1814–1875) <i>The Sower</i> (1850). Millet’s paintings focused on the world of the peasant.</p>
Writers/Writings	<p>Charles Dickens (English, 1812–1870) <i>Oliver Twist</i> (serial: 1837–1839), <i>Hard Times</i> (1854). Dickens’ writing often portrayed the lives of slum dwellers and factory workers, including children.</p> <p>Émile Zola (French, 1840–1902) <i>Germinal</i> (1885). Exposed class warfare in French mining industry.</p> <p>George Eliot (Mary Ann Evans) (English, 1819–1880), <i>Middlemarch</i> (1871–1872). Depicted life in English countryside in the 1830s; underlying themes were the status of women, the nature of marriage, the hypocrisy of religion, and the slow pace of political reform to help improve the lives of ordinary people.</p> <p>Gustave Flaubert (French, 1821–1880) <i>Madame Bovary</i> (1856–1857). Described the disappointment of romantic view of marriage as opposed to real life.</p> <p>Leo Tolstoy (Russian, 1828–1910) <i>War and Peace</i>. Depicted how the Napoleonic War affected the ordinary lives of people in Russia.</p>

Impressionism

Impressionism	
Goals	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Advent of photography • To avoid realism when a camera could do the same thing better • To capture the first fleeting or personal impression made at a certain instant
Artists/Works	<p>Pierre Auguste Renoir (French, 1841–1919); <i>Le Bal du moulin de la Galette</i> (1876). Renoir’s paintings captured people in everyday scenes.</p> <p>Claude Monet (French, 1840–1926); <i>Gladioli</i> (1876), a tranquil garden scene effectively using light and colors. Artists favored outdoor scenes for their natural light.</p> <p>Edgar Degas (French, 1834–1917); <i>La classe de danse</i> (The Dance Class), 1873–1874; celebrated Parisian life, from laundresses to cabaret singers to ballet dancers.</p>

Postimpressionism/Expressionism

Postimpressionism (Expressionism)	
Goals	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To carry the emphasis on light and color even further than the Impressionists. • To experiment with bright colors and sharp brush lines to focus on imagination.
Artists/Works	<p>Paul Cézanne (French, 1839–1906) <i>Still Life with a Curtain</i> (1895); bridge between the late nineteenth and twentieth centuries. His analytical approach would later influence cubism.</p> <p>Vincent van Gogh (Dutch, 1853–1890) <i>The Starry Night</i> (1889). Bright colors were a chief symbol of his expressionism. The sky was depicted as an overwhelming display of fireworks and moving vision of his mind’s eye.</p> <p>Paul Gauguin (French, 1848–1903); <i>Fatata te Miti</i> (By the Sea) (1892). Stockbroker-turned-artist Gauguin experimented with Polynesian forms, colors, and legends; painted during his first trip to Tahiti.</p>

New Ideas in Medicine and Science

The late nineteenth century also brought about advances in medicine and science. The following table summarizes some key changes.

New Ideas in Medicine and Science		
Name	Major Ideas	Results
Joseph Lister (British, 1827–1912)	Infections connected to filthy conditions; he insisted that staff keep hospital clean.	Doctors began to use sterilized medical instruments; European and American hospitals developed a standard of cleanliness.
Louis Pasteur (French, 1822–1895)	Germ theory—connection between microbes and disease	Developed vaccines against rabies, as well as the process of pasteurization, which kills diseases carrying bacteria in milk.
Dmitri Mendeleev (Russian, 1834–1907)	Organized all known elements arranged in order by weight—lightest to heaviest	Periodic table still used by scientists today.
Marie Curie (Polish/French, 1867–1934) Pierre Curie (French, 1859–1906)	Studied radioactivity	In 1910, four years after the death of her husband, Marie Curie isolated radium. In 1911, she won the Nobel Prize in Chemistry for the discovery of radium and polonium.

Women and the Struggle for Voting

By the 1890s, several industrial countries had universal male suffrage. However, no countries allowed women to vote. Since the 1840s in the United States, women such as **Susan B. Anthony** (1820–1906) and **Elizabeth Cady Stanton** (1815–1902) had organized campaigns for women’s rights. In Great Britain, there was a split over the question of *suffrage* (voting rights) for women. Both men and women thought that women’s suffrage was too radical a break with the past. Some claimed women did not have the mental ability to be involved in politics. **Queen Victoria** (1819–1901) called the struggle for suffrage wicked. Women also disagreed on how to achieve it.

In 1903, **Emmeline Pankhurst** (1858–1928) of Great Britain formed the Women’s Social and Political Union (WSPU). The WSPU believed that after years of peaceful protest only aggressive or militant action would bring victory. The term *suffragette* was applied to the radical members of the WSPU. Besides peaceful demonstrations, many of these suffragettes heckled speakers in Parliament, cut telegraph wires, smashed windows, and burned public buildings. Pankhurst and her daughters Christabel (1880–1958) and Sylvia (1882–1960) were arrested and jailed many times. In jail, the Pankhursts went on hunger strikes to dramatize their cause. In June 1913, one radical suffragist died when she threw herself in front of the king’s horse at the English Derby.

In France, **Jeanne-Elizabeth Schmahl** (1846–1915) founded in 1909 the French Union for Women’s Suffrage. She rejected the militant tactics of the English movement and favored legal protests. French women did not gain the right to vote until after World War II. When Great Britain entered World War I, Pankhurst suspended her activities. When the war ended in 1918, Parliament granted the right to vote to women over the age of 30. In 1928, the required age was lowered to 21, making the voting age for both sexes the same.

Chronology of the Age of Imperialism

1763	End of Seven Years' War; Great Britain gains control of India.
1830	France occupies Algeria.
1839	The First Opium War begins.
1842	The First Opium War ends with the Treaty of Nanking.
1849	Gustave Courbet paints <i>The Stone Breakers</i> .
1850	Jean François Millet paints <i>The Sower</i> .
1850	The Taiping Rebellion in China begins; Chinese civil war against the Manchu rulers (Qing Dynasty); millions are killed.
1851	Great Exhibition in London celebrates the technological achievements of Great Britain.
1853	Commodore Perry opens up trade with Japan.
1857	The Sepoy Mutiny against British rule in India takes place.
1858	India comes under direct rule by Great Britain.
1869	Suez Canal completed.
1870	Cecil Rhodes arrives in Cape Town, South Africa.
1872	Thomas Cook organizes his first trip around the world. It takes 222 days.
1872	Claude Monet paints <i>Impression, Sunrise</i> .
1874	Edgar Degas paints <i>The Dance Class</i> .
1875	Great Britain gains control of the Suez Canal and begins to establish a protectorate over Egypt (in 1882).
1882	British land troops in Egypt.
1884–1885	International Berlin Conference on meets to establish guidelines for European imperialism in Africa.
1885	Germany controls German East Africa.
1886	British take over Burma.
1889	Vincent van Gogh paints <i>The Starry Night</i> .
1892	Pierre Auguste Renoir paints <i>Girls at the Piano</i> .
1897	Paul Gauguin paints <i>Where Do We Come From? What Are We? Where Are We Going?</i>
1897	First Zionist Conference meets in Basel, Switzerland.
1899–1901	The Boxer Rebellion in China against Westerners takes place.
1899	Open Door Policy is proposed by United States for China.
1899–1902	Boer War; British crush rebellion by Dutch farmers in South Africa.
1904–1905	Russo-Japanese War; Japan takes Korea and Port Arthur from Russia.
1910	Union of South Africa is formed.
1911–1912	Manchu Dynasty overthrown; Dr. Sun Yat-Sen is named president of Chinese Republic.

Sample Multiple-Choice Questions

- Which of the following countries was not involved in the effort to secure colonies in Africa, Asia, and the Middle East at the end of the nineteenth century?
 - Germany
 - Belgium
 - Italy
 - Austria
 - England
- Which statement best expresses the motive for nineteenth-century European imperialism?
 - Living space was needed for the excess population in Western Europe.
 - European leaders believed imperialism was an effective method for reducing the number of wars.
 - European nations would benefit from some aspects of the conquered nation's culture.
 - Imperialism would benefit the economies of the colonial powers.
 - European nations wanted democratic governments throughout the world.
- Bismarck organized the Berlin Conference in 1884–85 to
 - establish rules for dividing up Africa among the European countries.
 - limit Russian expansion on the continent.
 - work with the Africans to seek trade agreements.
 - prevent Belgium from taking over the Congo.
 - stop the spread of United States influence in Africa.
- During the 1900s, Emmeline Pankhurst was associated with
 - improvement in education.
 - the Romantic literary movement.
 - the advocacy of cleanliness in hospitals.
 - a radical struggle for women's suffrage.
 - support for overseas expansion.
- The nineteenth-century phrase, "the white man's burden," reflects the idea that
 - Asians and Africans were equal to Europeans.
 - Asians and Africans would be grateful for European help.
 - imperialism was opposed by most Europeans.
 - Europeans had a responsibility to improve the lives of their colonial people.
 - democracy was the best form of government for Asia and Africa.
- "As many more individuals of each species are born than can possibly survive; and as consequently, there is a frequently recurring struggle for existence, it follows that any being, if it vary however slightly in any manner profitable to itself, under the complex and sometimes varying conditions of life, will have a better chance of surviving, and thus be naturally selected. From the strong principle of inheritance, any selected variety will tend to propagate its new and modified form."

The author of the above passage is

 - Charles Darwin.
 - Herbert Spencer.
 - Karl Marx.
 - Ivan Pavlov.
 - Gregor Mendel.
- Which of the following was a result of the Sepoy Mutiny or rebellion in 1857?
 - The British East India Company raised taxes.
 - India declared its independence.
 - India adapted Christianity.
 - The British East India Company took direct control of India.
 - The British government ended the rule of the British East India Company.

8. Which statement best describes an effect of the Opium Wars on China?
- A. The British expelled all Chinese from Hong Kong.
 - B. The British victory led to spheres of influence in China.
 - C. The British ended the importing of opium into China.
 - D. The British established a parliamentary democracy in China.
 - E. Chinese isolation increased.
9. The Boxer Rebellion of the early twentieth century was an attempt to
- A. eliminate poverty among the Chinese peasants.
 - B. bring Western-style democracy to China.
 - C. restore trade between China and European nations.
 - D. introduce communism.
 - E. remove foreign influences from China.
10. A major goal of the Meiji Restoration was to focus on
- A. isolating Japan from the influence of foreign ideas.
 - B. existing peacefully with their Asian neighbors.
 - C. increasing the emperor's power by returning Japan to a feudal political system.
 - D. modernizing Japan's economy to compete with Western nations.
 - E. encouraging European powers to open up trading rights in China.

Multiple-Choice Questions: Answers and Explanations

1. **D.** Austria did not take an active role in the struggle for colonies. Germany, Belgium, Italy, and England established colonies in Africa, Asia, and the Middle East.
2. **D.** The statement that best expressed the motive for nineteenth-century European imperialism is that imperialism would benefit the economies of the colonial powers. During the Age of Imperialism, a global economy developed. From the industrialized European nations' mass-produced goods, investment capital was directed to the colonies. In return, the people of Asia and Africa provided natural resources and cheap labor. Rubber, copper, and gold came from Africa, cotton and tin from southwest Asia. These raw materials spurred the growth of European industries and financial markets. The colonies also provided new markets for the finished products of the Industrial Revolution. Tools, weapons, and clothing flowed out of the factories and back to the colonies, whose raw materials had made them possible. Although imperialists argued that living space was needed for the excess population of Europe, no European country after 1870 acquired any colony to which European families wished to move in large numbers. The millions who left in the late nineteenth century persisted in heading for the Americas, where there were no European colonies.

Imperialism was not an effective method of reducing the number of wars. In 1896, Ethiopia defeated Italy in its attempt to conquer the region. In 1898, Great Britain and France almost went to war over the Sudan in Africa. In 1905, Germany and France clashed over Morocco. European countries believed that Western civilizations were superior to the civilizations of colonial people. Colonial officials rejected the cultures of the conquered peoples and tried to impose Western customs and traditions on the colonies. European countries did not establish democratic governments in Asia and Africa, but instead ruled directly or indirectly through local rulers without the consent of the people.

3. **A.** The Berlin Conference established ground rules for dividing up Africa among the European nations. In 1884–1885, European leaders met in Berlin to avoid conflicts among themselves. They agreed that European powers could not claim any part of Africa unless they set up a government office there. Europeans were also forced to send officials who exerted their power over local rulers. Leopold II, king of Belgium, wanted the Berlin Conference to recognize Belgium's control of the Congo Free State. Russia was not one of the European countries involved in the division of Africa. The Europeans did not invite any Africans to the Berlin Conference. Africans were not given any role in how Europe divided up the continent. The United States was never interested in extending its influence in Africa. The United States' area of imperial control was in Latin America and the Caribbean.
4. **D.** Emmeline Pankhurst was a radical in the efforts of women to gain the right to vote. As the leader of the Women's Social and Political Union in the early 1900s, she used militant methods, such as breaking windows and committing arson, to help women fight for the right to vote. Some resented her aggressive methods, but Emmeline Pankhurst believed that only extreme measures would help women achieve their goal. She is not associated with any literary, health, or artistic movement in European history.
5. **D.** "The White Man's Burden" reflects the idea that Europeans had a responsibility to improve the lives of their colonial people. In the 1890s, Rudyard Kipling's poem expressed the belief that Europeans had a sacred civilizing mission to bring the benefits of Western society to the impoverished people of the regions that they colonized. Kipling's poem encouraged Europeans to give unselfish service in distant lands. European civilization had reached unprecedented heights and they had unique benefits to bestow on all less advanced people. The phrase, "the white man's burden," was based on the perceived inferiority of Asians and Africans. It never considered the gratitude of Asians and Africans for Europe's help. It was expected that these areas would openly embrace Western civilization. This attitude permeated imperialism and there was never the belief that democracy should be the form of government in Asia and Africa. Imperialism was based on one country conquering a weaker one.

6. **A.** Charles Darwin is the author of this passage. In his book *On the Origins of Species by Means of Natural Selection* (1859) Darwin maintains that according to the idea of natural selection the populations that tend to survive are those that are the fittest or best adapted to their environment. The surviving members of a species produce offspring that share their advantage. Over generations, the species may change. In this way new species evolve. Darwin's idea of change through natural selection came to be called the Theory of Evolution. Herbert Spencer was the first to use the term "survival of the fittest" and is associated with Social Darwinism. Karl Marx is considered the father of Communism. Ivan Pavlov was a nineteenth-century Russian biologist who broke new ground in the social science of psychology. Gregor Mendel was a nineteenth-century German scientist who is considered to be the founder of the study of genetics.
7. **E.** The Sepoy Mutiny or Rebellion resulted in the British government ruling India directly as a colony. The British controlled India through the British East India Company until 1857. The British, who crushed the Sepoy Native Indian Troops, changed their policy after 1857. The government ended the rule of the British East India Company in 1858 and assumed control of the colony, ruling British India as a colony and ruling the native states indirectly as protectorates through British advisors. The British East India Company did not raise taxes since it did not control India after 1858. India did not achieve independence until after World War II. Hindu, not Christianity, is the major religion of India.
8. **B.** British victory in the Opium Wars led to spheres of influence in China. In 1839, when the Chinese tried to outlaw the opium trade, the British refused, and continued to import the drug. This led to the Opium Wars. The Chinese were easily defeated and signed the Treaty of Nanking (1842). The British annexed Hong Kong and secured the right to trade at four Chinese ports in addition to Canton. These trading ports became spheres of influence in which European nations secured exclusive trading privileges. After 1870, France, Germany, and Russia gained spheres of influence in China. These spheres of influence opened up China to trade rather than isolating it. The British remained in control of Hong Kong until 1997 and did not establish democracy in China.
9. **E.** The Boxer Rebellion of the early twentieth century was an attempt to remove foreign influences from China. In the 1890s, anti-foreign feelings were high in China because many Chinese resented the growing influence of foreign powers such as Great Britain, France, and Germany. In 1899, the Chinese formed a secret society called the Boxers (or Society of Righteous and Harmonious Fists), whose goal was to remove the foreigners who were destroying their lands with new technology such as telegraphs and machinery. The Boxers did not want any program to deal with poverty nor to promote democracy in China. They wanted to end trade with European nations. The Boxers were not Communists.
10. **D.** During the Meiji Restoration beginning in 1867, Japan's leaders focused on modernizing Japan's economy in order to compete with Western nations. Japan reversed its policy of isolation, ended feudalism, and began to modernize by borrowing from the Western powers. The goal of the Meiji leader, or enlightened ruler, was to make Japan a strong military and industrial power. Japanese leaders sent students abroad to Western countries to learn about their form of government, economies, technology, and customs. The government also brought foreign experts to Japan to improve industry. The Japanese adopted a constitution based on the model of Prussia with the emperor as the head. The new government was not intended to bring democracy, but to unite Japan and make it equal to Western powers. The Meiji Restoration did not isolate Japan from the influence of foreign ideas. The Japanese leaders borrowed Western ideas and adapted them to fit the needs of Japanese society. The Japanese introduced Western business methods but encouraged cooperation rather than competition among companies. Japan's modernization contributed to its rise as an imperial country. In 1895, the Japanese attacked and defeated China in the Sino-Japanese War. In 1904–1905, Japan clashed with Russia and defeated the Russians. In 1910, Japan annexed Korea.