

UNIT 5: THE AGE OF IMPERIALISM.

THE WORLD BETWEEN 1870-1914

1.- THE II INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

2.- IMPERIALISM.

3.- INTERNATIONAL SITUATION 1870-1914

1.- THE II INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

The Second Industrial Revolution took place between 1875 and 1915 and it became a worldwide phenomenon, since it affected most of Europe, Japan, and the USA.

- **NEW INDUSTRIAL POWERS:**

Great Britain continued to be the strongest commercial and financial power in the world during the “Victorian Era” (1837-1901), building up the largest colonial empire in the world. By 1900, it lost industrial primacy in favour of Germany or USA.

France, recovered after its defeat in the war against Prussia (1870), focused on its imperial expansion during the III Republic and became one of the greatest powers in the world. Tensions with Britain or Germany will soon arise.

Southern Mediterranean countries experienced lesser growth.

Germany became after the unification a powerful nation, with a leading role of its chancellor Otto von Bismarck in the international scenario. Germany became the second most important economic power in the world under Wilhelm II (1888-1914). **Germany's** industrialisation developed thanks to the state intervention and banking.

The **Austro-Hungarian** empire was a dual monarchy, challenged by its multiple nationalities and the rise of disintegrating nationalism, that will be one of the factors of the outbreak of WW1 in 1914. Industrialisation was delayed and limited to the western part of the country.

Russia was ruled by an autocratic tsar, the parliament had no power and the industrialisation was also delayed and limited to some cities. Some improvements were made, as the emancipation of the serfs in 1869.

Japan started to undertake a quick industrialisation and modernisation after the Meiji Revolution (1868). It soon became a major power in Asia, threatening China or Russia.

USA, after the Secession War (1861-65) continued its expansion to the west, whereas the Eastern cities were quickly industrialised. Becoming a leading industrial power thanks to its abundant population, new forms of production (Taylorism, Fordism), mechanisation and abundant natural resources.

- **NEW SOURCES OF ENERGY: electricity and oil.**

- Electricity: used for lighting (EDISON, light bulb 1879) and to power engines.
- Oil: first oil companies,; invention of the petro-powered car (first model was patented by Karl Benz in 1886. It had a combustion engine). Oil will be used for the combustion engines in cars, airplanes...

- **NEW INDUSTRIAL SECTORS:**

- **iron and steel** (used for other new products, such as sewing machines, bicycles, automobiles, airplanes,) **electrical** (important companies were created at that time, such as Philips, Siemens) **chemical**, (plastics, synthetic fibres, explosives, medicines, colourings, soda, fertilisers, dynamite) **food industry** (canning industry).
- Innovations in the traditional ones: **textile** (use of new type of fibres; sewing machine: Singer, 1850)

- Innovations in the **transport sector**: railway grew worldwide , building trans-continental lines (ex: Trans-Siberian railway from Moscow to Vladivostok in 1890); ocean lines were opened thanks to the faster boat voyages , canals were opened to shorten distances (the Suez canal , the Panama canal); the first airplane (Wright brothers, 1903) or the first car (1886) used combustion engines.
- **NEW METHODS OF PRODUCTION : TAYLORISM, FORDISM**
 - Taylorism. It analysed working practices and applied the most efficient one for production.
 - Fordism. It was created by the businessman Henry Ford, who introduced the assembly line (*CADENA DE MONTAJE*) to mass-produce cars. In that line workers or machines assemble parts of a product until the final product is completed.
- **NEW INVENTIONS***: Telegraph** (Samuel Morse, 1836) & wireless telegraph by Guglielmo Marconi in 1896.; **Telephone**. Alexander Graham Bell patented the new invention in 1876); **radio** (Guglielmo Marconi, 1906); **Cinematograph** (Lumière brothers in 1895).
- **NEW BUSINESS STRUCTURES**: cartels, trusts, holdings
 - **Cartels**: grouping of companies that participate in all the different stages of production. They integrate from the extraction of raw materials until the sale of the produce.
 - **Trusts**. Companies involved in the same industrial activity join.
 - **Holdings**. Some companies invest money in other companies to control over different industrial sectors.
 - • Some of those companies eliminated so much competition that they became **monopolies**, where they were the only producers
- **FINANCES**: enormous amounts of capital were needed to maintain the industrial activity; **banks** invested in industry; **banknotes, cheques** were common; the **Stock Market**(*la Bolsa*) was developed as companies sold shares (*acciones*) to investors, who received part of the profits.
- **COMMERCE** grew thanks to improvements in transport systems, railways, steamships; canals were opened to shorten distances (Suez Canal in 1869, , to link the Red Sea and the Mediterranean Sea); the Panama Canal was opened in 1914, to link the Caribbean Sea and the Pacific Ocean.

The **consequences** of finance Capitalism were very relevant, as it promoted a high industrial productivity, which encouraged **consumerism**; additionally there was an increase of the **trade imbalance** between developed and less-developed countries (which provided raw materials to developed countries at low prices); there were also social conflict in periods where unemployment increased.

- **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.

- **SOCIAL DEVELOPMENTS.**

Between 1870 and 1914, the European population accelerated its growth (300→400 million people) As a consequence, **emigration** to America or Australia became common, reducing unemployment and social conflicts in the countries of origin. Besides, rural exodus resulted in a constant **urbanisation**. Cities introduced certain innovations (sewage system, lighting, paving, rubbish collection...) improving the quality of life. However, the differences between the workers and bourgeoisie neighbourhood were very important.

In Paris during the Second Empire (1852–70), Georges-Eugène, Baron Haussmann, became the greatest of the planners on a grand scale, advocating straight arterial boulevards, advantageous vistas, and a symmetry of squares and radiating roads. The resulting urban form was widely emulated throughout the rest of continental Europe. In Spain, some examples of a similar urban planning were the [Eixample of Barcelona](#), directed by Ildefonso Cerda or the *Barrio de Salamanca* in Madrid.

- **WOMEN AND THE STRUGGLE FOR VOTING.**

By the 1890s, several industrial countries had universal male suffrage. However, no countries allowed women to vote. In Great Britain, there was a split over the question of suffrage (voting rights) for women. Many men and women thought that women's suffrage was too radical, claiming that 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 **Great Britain**, Emmeline Pankhurst (1858–1928) 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, burned public buildings or went on hunger strikes when they were on jail. In June 1913, one radical suffragist died when she threw herself in front of the king's horse at the English Derby.

However, in **France**, women fighters rejected the militant tactics of the English movement and favoured legal protests. After World War I (1918), the British 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. French women did not gain the right to vote until after World War II (1944). In Spain, they got it during the Second Republic (1931). See the [MAP OF WOMEN'S SUFFRAGE](#) in <https://brilliantmaps.com/womens-suffrage-world/>.

- **EVOLUTION OF THE LABOUR MOVEMENT.**

In Western Europe, the situation of the proletariat improved. Laws were passed regulating working hours, reducing child labour and establishing protection measures (accidents compensation, retirement pensions, minimum wages, etc. Besides, mass production brought about in the II Industrial revolution lowered prices of many goods, which allowed the proletariat, along with the increase in wages, to improve their quality of life.

Labour movement was reinforced with the recognition of freedom of assembly and association. States also legalised workers associations. Labour parties emerged, whose aim was to access political power and promote democratic and social reforms. The first and most influential labour party was the German Social Democratic Party (SPD), founded in 1875. There were other labour parties in France, UK, Italy or Spain. (the PSOE was founded by Pablo Iglesias in)

Labour internationalism was revived after the breakout between Marxists and anarchists during the First International held in London in 1874. **Second International** met in Paris in **1889** and lasted until the outbreak of World War I in 1914. Only socialists were allowed to attend this meeting. They initiated the 8-hour working day campaign. They also elected 1 May as the day to claim for the workers' rights (**International Workers' Day**). In 1910 they also fixed 8 March as the **International Women's Day**. Despite these achievements, there were internal struggles between the supporters of a workers' revolution (Marxists purists) and the defenders of reaching power through democratic elections (revisionists). The International also condemned Capitalism, Imperialism and war.

II- IMPERIALISM

In 1914, most of the world was controlled by European nations, mostly Great Britain and France. Other countries had also colonies, such as Germany, Belgium, the Netherlands, Italy, Portugal, Spain, the USA, and Japan.

2.1.- The **causes** that allowed imperialism were:

→ **Economic**, as many raw materials were needed for the growing industrial sector and new markets were sought for the industrial products.

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.

→ **Political and strategic**. The power and prestige of a country was measured in the number of colonies which were controlled: the possession of colonies was an indication of a nation's greatness; colonies were status symbols. In addition, some of these countries also wanted to control strategic points for the commercial routes, such as Great Britain. (Suez Canal)

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.

→ **Demographic**, as colonies could relieve Europe's population growth. Migration reduced unemployment and social conflicts in the countries of origin. However, although imperialists argued that living space was needed for the excess population of Europe, the millions who left in the late nineteenth century persisted in heading for the Americas, where there were no European colonies.

→ **Cultural and ideological** as the western world had the duty to civilise the rest of the planet.

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. Another important influence was 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.

2.2.- The **types of domination** were diverse:

- a) **colonies**, completely controlled and exploited by the metropolis and they did not have any autonomy; Most of the African territories were colonies.
- b) **protectorate**, where local authorities were fully respected in home affairs, whereas the rest of the matters were controlled by the metropolis (Morocco, Egypt or Indochina)
- c) **Dominions**: areas with a large-scale European population. They were granted autonomy although they were supervised by the metropolis. It was exclusive of Great Britain, which practised that in Canada, New Zealand, Australia, and South Africa;
- d) **settler colonies**, fully annexed to the metropolis as a part of it (ex: Algeria, which was integrated to France)

2. 3.-The **biggest colonial empires** were the British and the French empires.

- The British Empire included colonies in N.America, Asia (India), Oceania (N.Zeland, Australia) and Africa (controlling a vast territory from El Cairo to Cape Town).
- France: Africa (Senegal→ Somalia in the east), Asia (Indochina)
- Portugal, Italy, Germany ,Japan and Spain also wanted to establish colonies.



A) In Africa, The French had the largest colonial empire, over 3 1/2 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 '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. They eventually migrated north and founded two republics.



A relevant character in the British expansion in Africa was Cecil Rhodes (1853–1902), a 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 in South Africa (the *apartheid*).

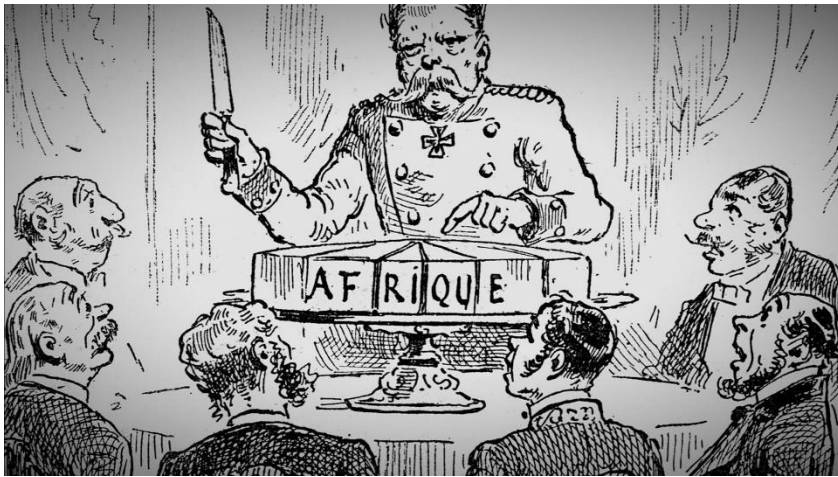
Britain and France were involved in the **Suez canal project**. In 1875, Britain purchased a controlling interest in the Suez Canal from the bankrupt ruler of Egypt who was unable to repay loans that he had contracted for the canal and modernization. of the country. The French, who organized the building 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.

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 was another late entry into the imperialistic venture. It 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.

Belgium led the exploration of the Congo basin. King Leopold II of Belgium sent the Anglo-American newspaperman Henry Stanley, to explore the Congo and establish trade agreements with leaders in the Congo River basin. Stanley had become famous for having found in 1871 the great Scottish explorer and missionary David Livingstone , who had travelled 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 in 1878. 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.





and given to Leopold II of Belgium; it was prohibited to trade with slaves; it was compulsory to occupy the territory with European population so that it was effective; the possession of the coast allowed conquering its inland. This principles benefited the most powerful countries: Great Britain and France.

B) In Asia 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, the British suppressed an Indian revolt, and later made India part of the empire in 1858, calling India 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).

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. Between 1870 and 1914, the Western nations carved China into spheres of influence: 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.

. By the 1900s, 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** (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. A republic was proclaimed under nationalist and democratic principles.

Japan was the only Asian country that did not become a victim of imperialism. Fearful of domination by foreign countries, Japan began to modernize by borrowing from the West. The **Meiji Restoration**, which began in 1867, started the modernisation and industrialisation of Japan. 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, built a modern army and a fleet of iron steamships. The Japanese were so successful that they became an imperial power. It will soon confront and defeat China (Sino-Japanese War of 1894–95) and Russia, (Russo-Japanese War of 1904–1905). Japan’s victory was the first time that an Asian country had defeated a European power.

- c) The importance of the **Middle East** to the new imperialists was its strategic location (the crossroads of three continents: Europe, Asia, and Africa), and valuable oil resources. **Britain's** control of the Suez Canal forced her to take an active role in Egypt. They also secured their influence in Iran, Iraq, Kuwait, Qatar, and Bahrain. Pipelines were built to the Mediterranean Sea and the Persian Gulf. **Russia**, that wanted to get access to the Mediterranean through the straits in the Black Sea, helped to dismember the Ottoman Empire and gain independence for several Balkan states. **Germany**, obtained the Ottoman Empire's consent to complete the Berlin-Baghdad Railroad increasing its influence in the region.

2.4.- The **consequences**



IN THE RUBBER COLLS.
(Reproduced from 'The Graphic' 1907)

A) **consequences** for the colonies were :

- local governments were mostly substituted by authorities from the metropolises;
 - traditional agriculture was changed into plantations to get more production for exportation;
 - growth of the cities in the colonies;
 - development of the metropolitan educational system which involved the destruction of the native culture;
 - intensive exploitation of the territory and people by the colonisers.
 - Racism grew since white people became the elite in the colonies;
- development of the metropolitan educational system which involved the destruction of the native cultures.

c) For the coloniser metropolises:

- many raw materials were obtained for industry,
- trade increased and many Europeans moved to the colonies.
- Additionally, there were nationalist problems in the colonies derived from the colonial situation (the *Cipayos revolt* in India)
- Tensions arose among colonial powers
 - :the *Fashoda crisis (1898)*, when the French and the British army met at the village of Fashoda (Sudan) in their goal of creating a continuous-land empire;
 - problems between Italy and France due to the control of Tunisia
 - problems in Morocco between France and Germany (Agadir, 1911)
 - tensions between Russia and Japan led to the Russo-Japanese War (1905) in order to control some areas of Manchuria and Korea. It was finally won by Japan;
 - conflicts between Great Britain and Russia in order to control Afghanistan, which eventually became a buffer state between both two powers.

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.

III- INTERNATIONAL SITUATION 1870-1914.

Two different political systems coexisted between 1870 and 1914: parliamentary systems in Western Europe and USA and autocratic systems in Central and Eastern Europe.

There were no wars in Europe between 1870-1914, but **tensions** increased due to: 1. economic competence (Germany/UK); 2. territorial claims (Alsace&Lorraine by France; Balkans); 3. military development (Germany); 4. colonial conflicts (France//Germany in Morocco), 5. Nationalism (pangermanism, Balkans (Russia/A-H Empire/Ottoman Empire). (→ see ppt with graphs)

We can divide this periods into two phases:

- 1870-1890: the **Bismarckian systems**, established by the powerful German chancellor Otto von Bismarck in order to guarantee the German supremacy in Europe trying to prevent conflict in Europe. How? isolating France (who was resentful after having been defeated in the Franco-Prussian war, 1870)
→ **alliances with Russia, Austria and Italy**. Finally, these alliances didn't work because Russia and Austria both wanted to expand in the Balkans.
- 1890-1914: **The Armed Peace**, with William II as German Kaiser (Bismarck was dismissed in 1890). The new German international policy known as *Weltpolitik* involved a **worldwide German intervention**. As a result of German expansionism, tensions increased between Germany and other countries. Consequently and feeling threatened, France set up new alliances with Russia and UK.
Tensions brought about several crisis in Morocco (France/Germany) and in the Balkans: Austria would annexed Bosnia in 1908, while Serbia became the most powerful Balkan state protected by Russia. The confrontation between Austria and Russia will move towards the outbreak of WW1 in 1914.

By 1914, Europe was divided into two blocks:

The **Triple Alliance** :
Germany, Austria, Italy

- The **Triple Entente**: France, Russia, UK.

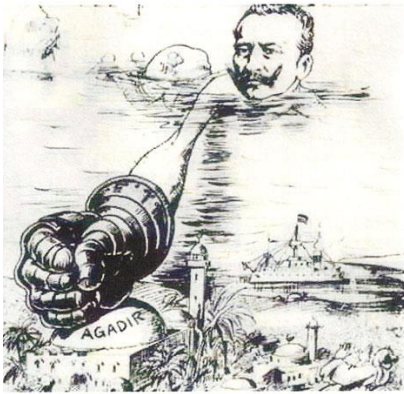
Label the map with the alliances established before WWI.



CONCLUSION: THE WAY TO IWW

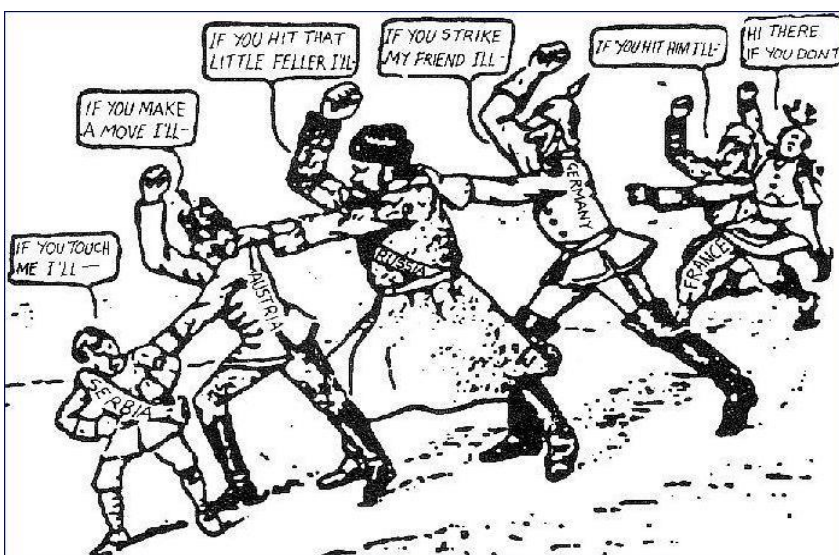
As we have seen throughout the unit, there were some conflicts that affected these countries in this period. The most important were:

- **Moroccan crises.** Germany and France wanted to get control over Morocco and they were about to begin a war. Germany declared itself as defender of the Moroccan independence so that France may not control it. In the Algeiras Conference (1906) it was decided that a protectorate should be established in Morocco by Spain (north) and France. In 1911 Germany denounced France because it had not respected all the agreements of Algeiras. The German battleship *Panther* was sent to the Moroccan port of Agadir to press France. France finally ceded a part of Congo to Germany in order to avoid a war.



- **Balkan crises.** They were conflicts between the nations in the Balkans, mostly the Ottoman Empire, Bulgaria, Greece, Serbia, Montenegro, and Austria-Hungary.

- Crisis of 1908. Austria-Hungary took advantage of an internal revolution in the Ottoman Empire and annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina. Russia did not like the annexation because it considered itself the protector of the Slavs. None the less it had to cede. Bulgaria also took advantage to proclaim its total independence from Turkey.
- Balkan Wars (1912-1913). 1st Balkan War (1912). Serbia, Bulgaria, Greece, and Montenegro allied in order to expel the Ottoman Empire from the Balkans. o Turkey was defeated very quickly. 2nd Balkan War (1913). There were disputes between the previously allied countries. Hence, Serbia, Montenegro, and Greece declared war on Bulgaria because of the control of the Balkans. Bulgaria was defeated and a need of revenge grew in that country.



Serbia became the most powerful and influential country in the Balkans, which was also protected by Russia. Crisis of 1914. It was the final crisis since the heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne, the Archduke Franz Ferdinand was assassinated in Sarajevo by a pro-Serbian activist, Gavrilo Princip (28 June 1914). Austria-Hungary sent an ultimatum to Serbia that was not accepted. It involved the outbreak of the First World War.