

Volume 2

World History:

Renaissance to Modern Day



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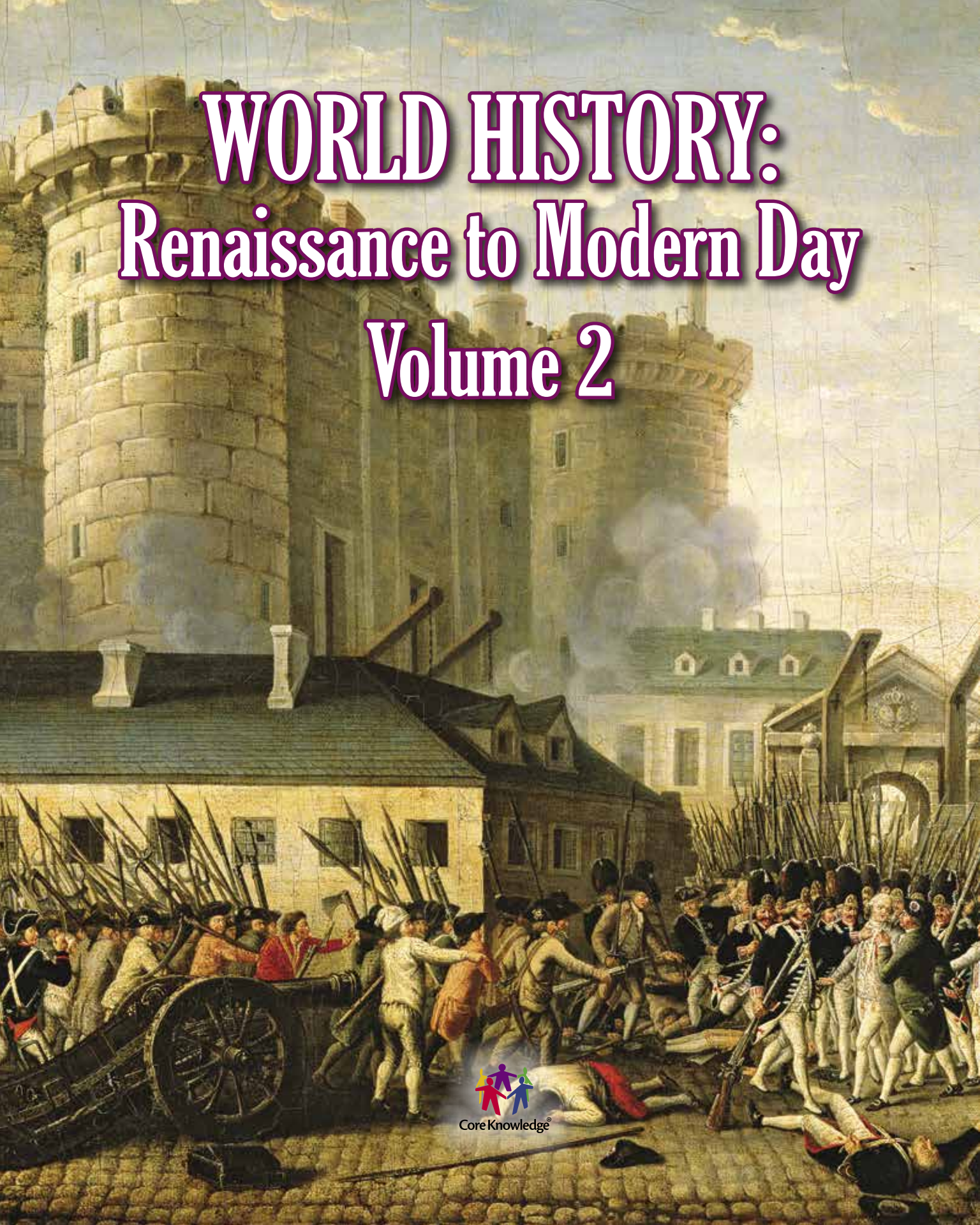
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WORLD HISTORY: Renaissance to Modern Day Volume 2



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WORLD HISTORY: Renaissance to Modern Day

Volume 2



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Chapter 1

The Renaissance and the Reformation

The Big Question

What factors contributed to both the Renaissance and the Reformation?



A Rebirth of Learning

The word Renaissance means rebirth. It is used to describe the years 1300 to 1600 CE in Italy and 1450 to 1650 CE in northern Europe. This era was a “rebirth” because it involved the rediscovery of things learned in centuries past, particularly in ancient Greece and Rome. Europeans rediscovered the literature, philosophy, and culture of the Greeks and Romans. They constructed new buildings using ancient styles and technology and became interested in the study of the past.



The walls of the Sistine Chapel in Vatican City, Italy, are covered in the artwork of Renaissance masters, but it is the chapel's ceiling that gets the most recognition. Painted over the course of four years by Michelangelo Buonarroti, it depicts scenes from the Old Testament.



By the end of the Renaissance, a vast amount of knowledge from the ancient world was once more available to Europeans. This rediscovery and flourishing of culture provided the foundation for the further development of European art and science.



Looking to the Past

Before we learn how ancient knowledge was recovered, we need to understand how it was lost. Educated people in ancient Rome knew both Greek and Latin. Greek was important to the Romans because they highly valued the philosophy, medicine, and mathematics of the ancient Greeks. At the same time, Romans developed their own forms of poetry, drama, philosophy, and political theory in their own language, Latin. Texts in Greek and Latin formed the basis of a wealthy Roman's education. Wealthy and powerful Romans used their education to study subjects that interested them, to make speeches about politics and culture, and to write letters to each other. In these letters, they liked to show off how clever and educated they were.

The government of the Western Roman Empire fell apart in the fifth century CE. Its education system also collapsed. The new rulers of western Europe were warriors

and warlords. They did not have a big government that needed educated people to handle taxes and administer law courts, so there wasn't much practical use for having an education. After the fall of Rome, western Europe fell out of contact with the Greek-speaking Eastern Roman Empire. Greek was read and spoken less and less in the western part of the empire, and the knowledge of many subjects formerly taught in Greek faded.

The main Roman institution that survived the fall of the empire in western Europe was the Catholic Church. Learning was preserved by Catholic monks in **monasteries**. Monks made copies of many Latin books, especially in the age of Charlemagne (747–814 CE). They copied the books that were the most valuable to them, such as Christian texts and works of Latin philosophy that were useful for the education of monks and **clergy**. While monks preserved many Latin texts, an enormous amount of knowledge was still lost.

Vocabulary

monastery, n. a building where a community of monks lives, worships, and works together

clergy, n. in the Christian church, people, such as priests, who carry out religious duties



Catholic monks painstakingly created illuminated manuscripts, like the one above (top image), to preserve valuable texts.

By the twelfth century CE, the increasing wealth and power of European kingdoms had led to a new demand for learning. Schools grew and flourished as a growing need for administrators, lawyers, and experts made education valuable once more.

This era of education was based on Latin texts. Some educated people used their skills in professional jobs, such as law or the priesthood. Others continued expanding their knowledge at schools in major

European cities like Paris, France. Some studied Christianity from a philosophical perspective. Their inquiry turned into a movement known as Scholasticism. Scholastics' knowledge of philosophy came from the few texts by Greek thinkers that had been translated into Latin before the fall of Rome, particularly those of Aristotle (384–322 BCE). Only a few of Aristotle's texts had been translated into Latin; the rest were in Greek. How could the Scholastics access that information?



Find Out the Facts

Who were some of the important figures of Scholasticism, and how did they apply philosophy to Christian thought?

Learning in the Islamic World

While monks in western Europe had preserved Latin writing, Greek texts were copied, read, and studied widely in areas under Muslim rule. When the followers of Islam conquered most of the Eastern Roman Empire in the seventh and eighth centuries CE, they absorbed the Greek-speaking upper class of East Rome into their own realm. As a result, they also absorbed a lot of Greek culture, including Greek texts. Educated Muslims prized these Greek texts for their contributions to medicine, philosophy, and science. Schools flourished for centuries in the Islamic Middle East, North Africa, and Iberia, especially those

The Spread of Islam



The Islamic world stretched for thousands of miles. Major cities like Cordoba, Damascus, Cairo, and Baghdad were centers of culture, learning, and trade.

that taught medicine, astronomy, and other sciences. Muslim scholars had translated the writings of Aristotle, Euclid, Ptolemy, and more into Arabic.

Muslim scholars didn't just preserve Greek learning. They also wrote new works that advanced knowledge beyond that of the Greeks. Ibn al-Haytham (c. 964–c. 1040 CE) was from Basra, Iraq, and lived most of his life in Cairo, Egypt. He wrote many works of mathematics and astronomy but was most famous for his treatise on **optics**, or the science of light and images. Ibn Sina (c. 980–1037 CE), a Persian scholar, wrote about philosophy and medicine. His book, *The Canon of Medicine*, would become a standard medical textbook for many years. Ibn Rushd (1126–98 CE) came from Cordoba, Spain. He wrote on many subjects, including philosophy, law, and medicine. He also composed commentaries on many of Aristotle's writings.

Vocabulary

optics, n. the science that deals with light and images

These Muslim scholars and many others attracted the interest of some Latin-speaking Europeans. When European scholars came to places like Cordoba, they wanted to find copies of Greek texts by the likes of Aristotle, but they were impressed by the work of Muslim thinkers, too. They

translated texts by Muslim writers into Latin and brought them back to Europe.

Writers' Corner

Imagine you have traveled to Cordoba to study and translate texts. Write a letter to a friend in northern Europe explaining the new learning promoted by Muslim scholars.



European scholars brought texts from the Muslim world to centers of learning called **universities**. In the eleventh through thirteenth centuries CE, several universities were founded in cities such as Bologna, Paris, and Oxford. At first, most people who attended university studied law or **theology**. Universities helped create a standard education across Europe. They developed a program of study that included logical reasoning and the debate of ideas.

Vocabulary

university, n. a school where advanced learning is taught

theology, n. the study of religious faith, practice, and experience

Soon, the value of university learning became well known. Rulers and city governments sought to found universities in their own regions, and universities spread across Europe. They continued to serve as centers of learning throughout the Renaissance and Reformation eras and right up to the present day.



Trade and Power

Europe's economy had begun to grow quickly during the eleventh century CE. Italian cities, especially the port cities of Venice and Genoa, were among the first to display this new wealth, which came from trade. Italian merchants took goods from Europe, like English wool, to cities on the southern and eastern Mediterranean Sea. There, they sold their goods and bought more, like spices, silks, and other luxuries. When the merchants returned to Italy, these luxury goods went to markets across Europe. Trade caused more Italian cities to grow. Florence began to produce high-quality woolen fabric, often using wool from English sheep. Florentines sold this fabric across Europe. Florentines also invested their money and became well known as bankers, handling accounts for European rulers as well as private citizens. Their gold coin, the florin, became the most famous in Europe. Italy was not a unified country at the time of the Renaissance. It was made up of several small states. In the south were the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily. Their ruling families came from France and from Aragon. Central Italy, from Rome up to Ravenna on the Adriatic Sea, was known as the Papal States because

they were ruled by the pope and his court. To the north were a variety of city-states that each controlled their own part of the countryside. They competed and fought over territory but also traded with one another.

Each Italian city had its own government and its own traditions, yet they all shared common features. Most of the wealthiest families of the city-states were urban businesspeople. Rich or poor, people took pride in their cities' public buildings, churches, markets, and squares. Italy was the wealthiest region of Europe until the development of American trade after 1500 CE. Venice, Florence, and Rome were among the most important cities of Italy; others included Milan, Genoa, Naples, and Bologna.

Italy During the Renaissance



Italy was divided into several kingdoms and city-states that competed for power and prestige.

Venice was one of the largest and wealthiest cities in Europe. Its geography, a set of islands connected by bridges in a lagoon, made it unique. Thanks to the water surrounding it, it needed no walls for defense. Venice's government was famous for its stability and peaceful rule. The head of state, called the doge, was elected for life from among the city's elites, who were called patricians. Patricians also dominated the economy of international trade; in times of war, they served as military officers. Below them, a second group, called citizens, supplied the city's office staff and other officials. The rest of the residents worked in guilds and trades and as sailors. Venice was powerful during the Renaissance era. It controlled cities along the coast of the Adriatic Sea and several on the Italian mainland, including Padua and Verona. Given Venice's location on the water, it is not surprising that Venetians excelled in trade. They dominated the ports of the eastern and southern Mediterranean Sea and the Adriatic. They brought luxury

goods, including spices and silk fabric, as well as rugs, ceramics, and metalwork, to markets across Europe.

Florence, in Tuscany, developed an international trade in woolen cloth. Florentine merchants used local wool and imported high-quality wool from northern Europe to produce expensive fabric that sold across the continent. This international business required them to use loans and **credit**, so they

Vocabulary

credit, n. a system of buying now and paying later



The production of woolen cloth, shown in this 1570 CE painting by Mirabello Cavalori, was a major part of the Florentine economy.

Writers' Corner



Write a travel journal describing a trip to sixteenth-century CE Venice. Describe the things you see and do and the people you meet on your journey.

excelled at banking as well. Although the Church frowned on lending money at interest, Florentines and other Italian bankers developed international banking networks. Their clients included many European rulers.

Florence was governed by a committee of nine men called priors. They served short terms of two months and were chosen by random drawings. To serve in government, men first had to belong to a guild. Guilds were organizations formed by skilled laborers called artisans. The guilds of Florence were wealthy and influential. They spent their wealth on several important construction and artistic projects in the city. To decide who would get to design a building or create a piece of art, the guilds held competitions. These competitions brought attention to the arts and helped spur artists to excel.

Rome was also a leading Italian city with an interesting history. It had remained a center of political power for much of central Italy since the breakup of the western part of the Roman Empire. The leader of the Catholic Church, the pope, was also the bishop of Rome. Rome was no longer the capital of an empire, but it remained the capital of Church administration. Rome's leading

families had to share power with Church administrators from all over Europe. European pilgrims also came to Rome to worship at its many churches and to celebrate religious holidays.

The papacy was always part of European politics. In addition to governing Rome and its nearby cities, the pope and his advisors, the Curia, were often asked to resolve problems between European rulers. Between 1309 and 1377 CE, the pope and the Curia moved to Avignon in the south of France. Pope Clement V (1260–1314 CE) made the move to escape political problems in Rome and to be closer to his ally King Philip IV of France (1268–1314 CE). Rome suffered from the loss. As Florence and Venice continued to grow and prosper, Rome became smaller and poorer. Both religious and political leaders began to urge the papacy's return.

Pope Gregory XI (1329–78 CE) did return to Rome in 1377 CE, but he died just a year later. The election to replace him turned bitter and produced two rival candidates, one who lived in Rome and the other in Avignon. Rulers disagreed about which to recognize. This split, called the Great Western Schism, lasted until 1417 CE, when a Church council agreed on a single pope, Martin V (1368–1431 CE).



The Humanists

Italy was the home of a new movement in literature and learning that transformed European thought. By around 1300 CE, some urban professionals, mainly notaries and lawyers, were devoting their free time to both reading and writing. They enjoyed the writing of Latin authors and appreciated inspirational writings that urged them to lead good, thoughtful lives. They read poetry, essays, letters, and other literary works by Roman authors like Cicero and Seneca. Cicero's text *On the Orator* describes *humanitas*, or human nature. Cicero's Renaissance readers were fascinated by the idea of *humanitas*. For this reason, scholars in the nineteenth century called them humanists.

Francis Petrarch (1304–74 CE) was an important early humanist. His family was from Florence, but his father worked at the papal court in Avignon, where Petrarch grew up. Petrarch loved writing and became a famous poet. Fascinated by the writers of ancient Rome, he traveled widely to find texts by his favorite authors. He amassed a collection that included works by the historian Livy, the politician Cicero, and

the early Christian bishop St. Augustine of Hippo. Petrarch wrote his own works, too, inspired by the great writers he collected.

Petrarch collected Greek manuscripts as well as Latin ones, but the widespread influence of Greek literature came a generation later. In 1395 CE, Coluccio Salutati (1331–1406 CE), the chancellor of Florence, hired a teacher of classical Greek. Once they started studying Greek, the humanists began reading, collecting, and translating ancient Greek texts.

Works by Homer, Sophocles, Thucydides, and others became more available to readers across Europe. The humanist study of languages extended to Hebrew and, by the late fifteenth century CE, included new scholarship on the Bible and early Christian writers. New editions and translations of the Bible followed.

By the sixteenth century CE, most educated people in Italy were familiar with humanist ideas. The humanist movement spread quickly across the rest of Europe. It also spread to other fields of learning, including the sciences. Some ancient science was known to medieval writers, but the humanists uncovered many more texts. They mastered the contents of these texts and taught them in universities.



New Art and Architecture

The Renaissance is famous for its artistic developments, which were the product of wealth and growth in the Italian cities. Growing cities needed new walls, new churches, and new city halls and other civic buildings. Wealthy citizens wanted fine houses for their families.

Humanists influenced the development of new architectural styles based on ancient buildings. A humanist collector named Poggio Bracciolini (1380–1459 CE) found a copy of a handbook on building by the ancient Roman builder Vitruvius. Poggio brought it to Florence shortly after 1400 CE, and architects began to adapt Roman building styles to their modern world. One of the book's early readers was the humanist and architect Leon Battista Alberti (1404–72 CE). In addition to designing building projects, Alberti wrote his own book on architecture and also one on painting. A friend and colleague of his, Filippo Brunelleschi (1377–1446 CE), designed the dome for the city's cathedral, the largest such dome ever built at the time. It was dedicated in 1436 CE.



The Cathedral of Santa Maria del Fiore is the fourth-largest church in the world. Its dome, shown in this photo, was designed by Brunelleschi.

Painters of this era worked in shops and were members of guilds. They learned by working as apprentices to a master painter. People hired them to paint works of art for local churches, city buildings, or their homes. At the time, people valued art that looked realistic and imitated nature. Alberti's book on painting told painters how to paint more realistically. It was the first book to give the rules for

linear **perspective**, which is what makes a painting look three-dimensional. To paint this way, artists needed to study mathematics. Alberti also told painters that to make their human figures more realistic, they should study the structure of the human body, just as doctors did. Artists began to gain more respect in society because of their learning, and painting with perspective became so popular that artists from across Europe visited Florence and other Italian cities to learn the skill.

Vocabulary

perspective, n. a technique used to make something that is flat appear to have depth, in addition to height and width

Renaissance Florence

Florence's wealth was built by the cloth industry, but the city became most famous for its banking. Banking made Cosimo de' Medici (1389–1464 CE) the wealthiest and most powerful man in Florence. The Medici family dominated Florence's politics for decades. Cosimo was a stern ruler, but he also supported both learning and the arts. He helped organize and fund a library, open to general readers, at the Dominican church and cloister of San Marco. He helped pay

for the building of churches, including San Marco and San Lorenzo. He also helped fund the meeting of a major Church council in Florence in 1439 CE. Cosimo's son Piero and his grandson Lorenzo followed in his footsteps. Lorenzo de' Medici (1449–92 CE) is known as Lorenzo the Magnificent because of his patronage of many great thinkers and artists. Among those who benefited from Lorenzo's money and support were Sandro Botticelli (1445–1510 CE), Andrea del Verrocchio (1435–88 CE), Michelangelo Buonarroti (1475–1564 CE), and perhaps the greatest Renaissance artist of them all, Leonardo da Vinci (1452–1519 CE).

Find Out the Facts



What were some of the other notable achievements of Lorenzo de' Medici?



Lorenzo Among the Artists, by Ottavio Vannini, depicts Lorenzo de' Medici surrounded by artists as he admires a Michelangelo sculpture.

Leonardo came to Florence as a youth and became an apprentice to Verrocchio. Like other Florentine artists, he studied perspective and anatomy. He seems also to have studied engineering, a skill often connected with artists and architects, because he moved to Milan in 1482 CE to work as both an artist and an engineer. There, he painted the scene of Jesus and his disciples known as the *Last Supper* to decorate the dining room at Santa Maria delle Grazie. Leonardo eventually returned to Florence, where he painted some of his most famous works, including the portrait known as the *Mona Lisa*. Leonardo also worked in Rome. He spent the last

years of his life in France, working for King Francis I. Wherever he went, he met and befriended other artists, engineers, and mathematicians. Leonardo kept his plans and sketches for flying machines and other inventions in his notebooks alongside sketches for his paintings.

Michelangelo Buonarroti (1475–1564 CE) was another Florentine artist who brought fame to his city as well as himself. He excelled at painting, sculpture, and architecture. In his early twenties, he made his first of several trips to Rome, where he carved his famous marble statue of the Virgin Mary holding her crucified son Jesus, known as the *Pietà*. In Florence, he



The *Last Supper*, painted by Leonardo da Vinci between 1495 and 1498 CE

carved the giant marble statue *David* for the town square. He designed the library at San Lorenzo to hold the great Medici collection of books and undertook many other projects, including the painting of the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel in Rome.

Niccolò Machiavelli (1469–1527 CE) built his career in the service of Florence as a diplomat and administrator. Machiavelli lived in a time of constant war between the cities of Italy. He used his experiences to write works that examined the changes in politics in the modern world. He argued that republics, like ancient Rome or modern Florence, were the best form of government because they promoted the rule of law and because having multiple leaders helped states survive bad fortune. Machiavelli was most famous for his work *The Prince*, in which he argues that in times of conflict, the quickest way to bring about change and the best way for a state to survive is with a ruthless leader. Machiavelli was known for describing political life not as people hoped it might be but as it really was. His realistic

descriptions were startling to many, but his writings are now seen as some of the foundations of modern political science.

Renaissance Rome

When Church officials returned to Rome from Avignon in the mid-fifteenth century CE, they found the city in great need of repair. The papal residence at Rome's cathedral, St. John Lateran, had suffered fire and storm damage, and other buildings and roads were unusable. Rome's reconstruction got underway in the fifteenth century CE, and it was reborn as a Renaissance city.

Rather than trying to restore the Lateran Palace, the Church moved the papal residence and offices to St. Peter's Basilica. Pope Sixtus IV (r. 1471–83 CE) built the papal chapel, the Sistine Chapel. He also built a new bridge across the river Tiber, the first since the days of ancient Rome. Rome was also in need of new churches and new art to go inside them. Artists flocked to the city. As they worked, they

Writers' Corner



Write a response to Machiavelli's ideas about the necessity of ruthlessness in *The Prince*.

Find Out the Facts



Who were the Borgia family, and what role did they play in Rome's politics?

discovered ancient statues and even the first known ancient Roman paintings. The largest single project was the rebuilding of the basilica of St. Peter, which had been built by the Roman emperor Constantine in the fourth century CE.

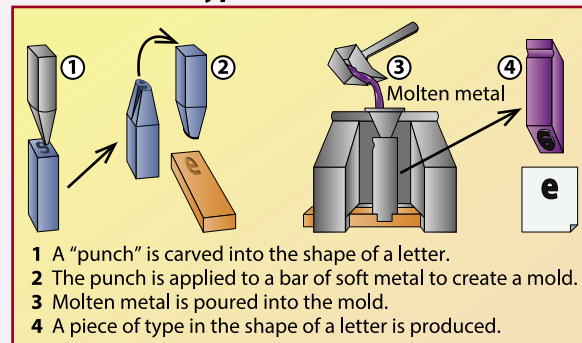
The Printing Press

It might seem that all fifteenth-century trends began in Italy. But one of the most important developments in technology came from the German regions of the Holy Roman Empire, in the city of Mainz. Johannes Gutenberg (d. 1468 CE), a goldsmith by trade, began to print with movable type during the 1440s CE.

The movable-type printing press is not one technology but three. The first, the press itself, had been used by Romans to press grapes and olives to make wine and oil. The second, paper, was more recent. Paper had been developed in East Asia and came to Europe before 1100 CE via Muslim Spain. Papermaking spread slowly, but paper was far less expensive than vellum and parchment, the commonly used materials of the time, which were made from the skins of animals. The third

technology was the type itself. Gutenberg formed single letters and assembled them line by line to compose a page. Then he inked the letters and pressed the paper to them to print the final page.

How to Make Type



Gutenberg used a multistep process to create his lead type.

The new process spread quickly to other cities. Humanists welcomed the chance to print copies of ancient texts. Some cities, including Venice and Frankfurt, became centers of the new print business. Frankfurt also began to host an annual book fair where printers and booksellers could display their works and place orders with one another. That fair continues to this day.

Find Out the Facts

Who brought the printing press to England, and what books did he publish?



Printing made all types of writing available to more people and enabled writers to profit from book sales. There were academic books for students and scholars and books of stories for the general reading public. Bibles were expensive because of their length but didn't cost nearly as much as handwritten versions. Some printers sold individual sections of the Bible, such as Psalms and Gospels, which were less expensive than the entire book. Rulers used the printing press to inform subjects about new laws.

It was clear that print had the power to change people's lives. Along with that power came an interest in controlling it. Authors and editors who had invested time and money in a project did not want to see their efforts stolen by another printer who might copy their finished work and sell it more cheaply. Governments began to issue legal protections called privileges to a press for a set period, such as ten years. This is the ancestor of the modern concept of copyright. Rulers and Church officials also wanted protections against publications that tried to attack government leaders, start rebellions, or promote arguments with which they disagreed.



Religious Reformation

In 1500 CE, Christians across western and central Europe worshipped in similar ways. Religious services were the same from Sicily to Sweden. By 1600 CE, this was no longer true. Some parts of Europe continued to worship as they had for centuries, while others had begun to modernize. Some regions had churches filled with religious art; others had churches that were plain and undecorated. In some regions, religious services were given in Latin. In others, they were given

Dominant Churches and Religions in Europe (Mid-1500s CE)



By the mid-1500s CE, different religious groups dominated different countries and regions in Europe. Jewish people also lived in many parts of the continent.

in the local language. The organization of the Church and its churches varied, too. This era of change is known as the Reformation.

There were several causes of the Reformation. First, although many Europeans cared deeply about their religion, they disagreed about how a Christian should think, act, and worship. Some, for example, wanted beautiful churches and colorful celebrations, while others favored quiet personal prayer and devotion. Second, the Great Schism and the rebuilding of Rome had left the Church short on resources. Third, several religious leaders put forth bold ideas for reforms and attracted many followers. Fourth, new ideas traveled quickly thanks to the printing press and growing literacy rates. Finally, rulers and governments were growing more powerful and more interested in promoting their own interpretations of religion to cement their rule and unite their people.

The most famous and influential reformer was Martin Luther (1483–1546 CE). Luther lived in the Holy Roman Empire, a large realm of semi-independent states that included much of modern Germany. He was a professor of theology at Wittenberg University in Saxony, a monk of the Augustinian order, and a priest. Luther's father had not wanted him to become a monk. Instead, he had hoped that young Martin would become a lawyer to help support his father's prosperous mining business. Martin Luther, however, was deeply religious. He was convinced that he had to become a monk. From an early age, Luther showed he had very strong beliefs about right and wrong. The first time he visited Rome, he was filled with disappointment instead of awe. Rome seemed to Luther an earthly kingdom filled with luxuries, not the heart of the Christian religion.

One of the things that made Luther upset about the Church was the sale of **indulgences**. The Church needed money



Think Twice

Which of these five reasons explains how the ideas of the Reformation spread far and wide?

Vocabulary

indulgence, n. the removal or reduction of certain punishments for sin, linked to a special act of penance

to fund the repair and rebuilding of Rome. One of the methods used to raise money was to ask people to pay a fee after receiving forgiveness and doing **penance** for a sin or wrongdoing. Luther thought this was not what Christian worship should be about. He felt the Church was leading people astray.

Vocabulary

penance, n. an act, such as praying, done to show regret over some wrongdoing



Martin Luther hung his ninety-five theses directly on the gates of Wittenberg Cathedral in present-day Germany.

Indulgences were not the only thing that angered Luther. He composed a list of ninety-five disagreements with Church doctrine. This list is referred to as Luther's ninety-five theses. At the time, people who wanted to debate a topic posted notices on the door of a church where everyone could see them. Luther wanted a debate, so he tacked his theses onto the church door at the end of October 1517 CE.

The issues became even more public than Luther had expected. At the debate, Luther said some things that were called heresy, or directly contrary to Christian teachings. He refused to back down and even declared that any Church that disagreed with his statements was not the real Church at all. Luther was condemned as a heretic, someone who preaches heresy, in 1521 CE. The emperor, Charles V (1500–58 CE), ordered his arrest, but the Duke of Saxony disobeyed this order and protected Luther in a remote castle. There, Luther translated the New Testament into German and wrote works that were printed and widely read.

Luther developed a full set of religious ideas with the help of another theologian named Philip Melancthon (1497–1560 CE).

They argued that people were saved by faith alone (*sola fide*), that one should look to the Bible and only the Bible (*sola scriptura*) when settling religious questions, and that all people had the spiritual responsibility that had once been reserved for the clergy (priesthood of all believers). This meant that there was no need for priests, nuns, monks, or even monasteries.

Some of the princes who ruled areas of the Holy Roman Empire supported Luther's reforms; others hoped to gain control of the lands held by the monasteries should they close. But Emperor Charles V did not support Luther. The result was a civil war that ended in 1556 CE with the decision that local rulers could decide for everyone in their region whether to follow Luther or Catholic practices.

In the cities of northern Europe, other religious leaders preached reform and sought to change their regional church practices with the help of their local governments. John Calvin (1509–64 CE) was the most important of the next generation of reformers. Like Luther, he studied theology and was heavily influenced by the writings of other theologians, including Luther himself.

Calvin was studying in Paris when the king of France, out of fear that the religious civil war that threatened the Holy Roman Empire would spread to his own kingdom, began persecuting would-be reformers. Calvin fled to the French-speaking city of Geneva, Switzerland, which was reforming its local church practices. Calvin spent most of the rest of his life in Geneva, where he published his main work of theology and worked with the city's clerics and city council.



French theologian and reformer John Calvin

Calvin and his followers shared some ideals with Luther. They believed in *sola scriptura*, looking solely to the Bible and not to later Christian writers for authority. They read Paul's letter to the Romans very closely, and like Paul, they believed that an all-powerful God knew who would be saved. Calvinists called this group of people the elect. Calvin's reforms spread through cities along the river Rhine into parts of France, Scotland and England, and parts of central Europe.

Rome's leaders were slow to respond. They were distracted by the wars in Italy; Rome itself took severe damage when it was looted by Holy Roman Emperor Charles V's troops in 1527 CE. In 1537, Rome's leaders called a Church council that included Calvinists, Lutherans, and other reformers as well as Church leadership. However, disagreements and wars postponed the council until 1545. The attendees disagreed about the agenda. Some wanted to address problematic practices of the Church, such as indulgences. Others wanted to discuss the theological ideas of the reformers. The groups who opposed Church doctrine and authority came to be known collectively as Protestants. Those

who supported Rome and continued to meet at the council called themselves Catholics. As theologians wrote to clarify and explain the beliefs of each religious faction, political leaders enforced their religions of choice in their homelands.

Think Twice



Why were the reformers called Protestants?



Politics and Religion

The idea that rulers should direct the religion of their subjects was not new. Early modern rulers increasingly saw the regulation of religion as part of their rights and responsibilities. Iberia, or modern Spain, provides an example. Since about 700 CE, much of Iberia had been ruled by Muslims originally from North Africa. These Muslim rulers had allowed Jews and Christians to live in their realm as long as they paid an additional tax. Tens of thousands of Jews lived in Muslim Iberia. Then, between the eleventh and sixteenth centuries CE, the Christian nobles in the north fought and expanded their control into the region, diminishing Muslim

influence. Granada, the last area under Muslim control, was conquered by Castilian troops under the reign of Ferdinand II of Aragon (1452–1516 CE) and Isabella I of Castile (1451–1504 CE), who decided to unite their realm under Christianity. In 1492 CE, Ferdinand and Isabella decreed that all Jews in their kingdoms must convert to Christianity or leave. More than a hundred thousand Spanish Jews were forced to leave Spain. They dispersed to North Africa, Belgium, the Netherlands, and areas in Italy and the Ottoman Empire.



Find Out the Facts

What happened to Spain's Jewish and Muslim populations in the sixteenth century CE?

Some cities also began to regulate Jewish residential areas to keep them separate from Christians. In 1516 CE, the city of Venice began to require Jews in the city to live in one neighborhood, called the Ghetto. Other cities created similar restricted neighborhoods, which were also called ghettos.

The differences among Christians after the Reformation also complicated political life. Each group saw the others as heretical and believed that eliminating the others was

the right thing to do. In France, the spread of Calvinism led to violence. Many city dwellers and nobles became Calvinists, also known in France as Huguenots. Fighting broke out between Huguenots and Catholics in the mid-sixteenth century after the sudden death of King Henry II (1519–59 CE).

Find Out the Facts



Why were French Calvinists called Huguenots?

England also faced violence when reform issues mixed with politics. Henry VIII (1492–1547 CE) was driven by his desire to have a son as the heir to his throne. His wife, Catherine of Aragon, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, had borne only one surviving daughter, Mary. Henry wanted to end the marriage so that he could marry Anne Boleyn. He had to ask permission from the pope to do so. Church officials refused because they had already made a special agreement for the marriage with Catherine. So Henry declared himself head of the Church of England, annulled his marriage to Catherine, and married Anne Boleyn in 1532 CE. His ministers scrambled to reshape Church

doctrine. As part of his reforms, Henry VIII dissolved England's monasteries and seized the land and wealth of around eight hundred religious houses. Henry eventually had a son, Edward VI (1537–53 CE), by his third wife, Jane Seymour. Reforms of Church belief and practice continued throughout his life and during the years of Edward VI.



Think Twice

How did Henry VIII's government benefit from his religious reforms?



Henry VIII

After Edward VI's death, Henry's oldest surviving child was his firstborn daughter, Mary I (1516–58 CE). Mary, the daughter of Catherine of Aragon, had remained Catholic, so she returned England to Catholicism. Some English Protestants fled to Protestant regions of Europe, but many others were killed. When Mary died in 1558 CE, she was succeeded by Elizabeth I (1533–1603 CE), the daughter of Anne Boleyn. Elizabeth ended Mary's Protestant **purges** and restored a Protestant



Henry VIII's six wives included Anne Boleyn, who, like his first wife, bore him a female heir.

Vocabulary

purge, n. removal from a group or place in a sudden or violent way

character to the Church of England. Now Catholics feared for their lives.

England's royal family had a complicated history. Just like Mary I and Elizabeth I, some succeeding members of England's royal family followed Catholic practices, while others leaned toward Protestantism. There was always a risk that doctrine of the Church of England could change again. This tension caused a century of unrest, revolution, and political violence as additional religious practices and opinions came to light. Some of the religious communities that formed during this period took advantage of the colonization of North America to start new communities there.

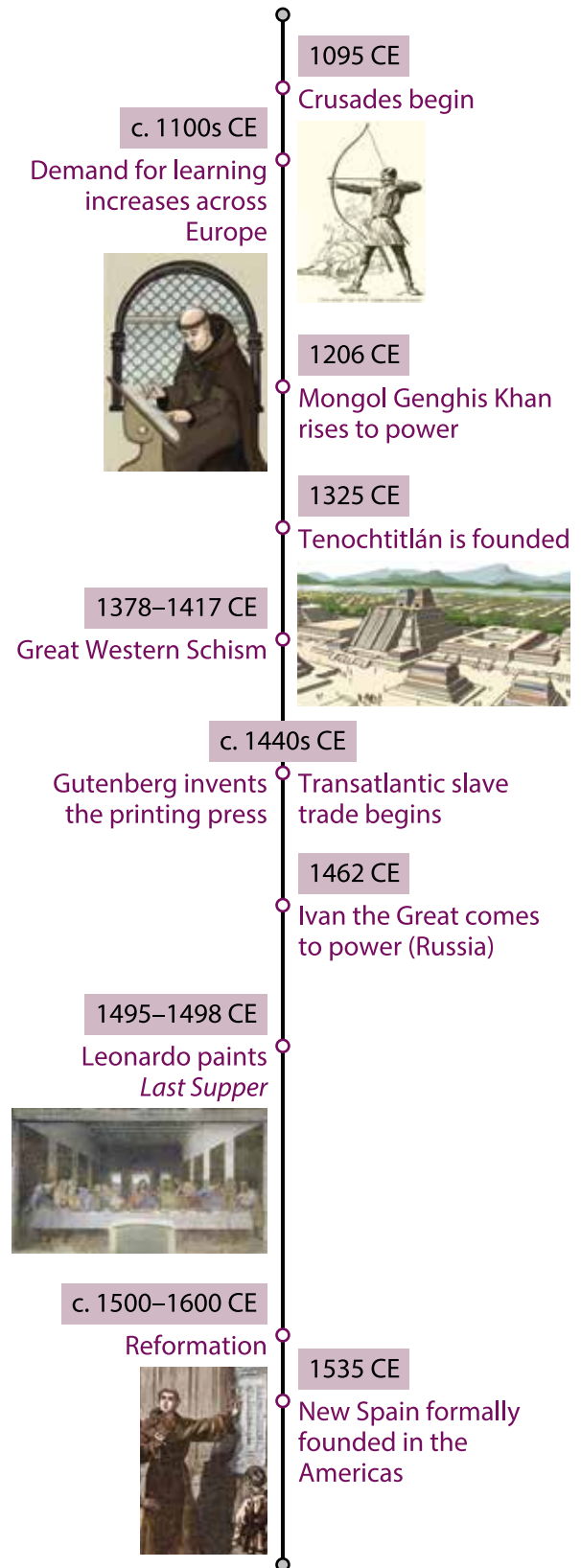


Find Out the Facts

What were some of the Protestant movements that first arose in England?

Control of the Press

Early modern rulers and governments sought to regulate the flow of information as ideas about Reformation spread. From the reign of England's Elizabeth I onward, English printers were not permitted to print books that supported Catholic ideas or institutions. Geneva, where Calvin



lived, also regulated its presses. Some of the most famous cases involved Rome's efforts to control print in Catholic regions. The *Index of Forbidden Books*, published in 1559 CE, completely banned some works, including the writings of Luther and Calvin. Other texts had offending passages blocked out. Such bans remained in place in many parts of Europe beyond the eighteenth century CE.



Think Twice

Why were these ruling groups so threatened by the printed word?

In some instances, these bans involved scientific works. The most notorious case involved the great Italian astronomer and physicist Galileo Galilei (1564–1642 CE). He made important discoveries in physics but didn't truly become famous until he heard about a new invention that used lenses to magnify faraway objects. Using self-built telescopes, Galileo studied the heavens and made new discoveries, including the craters on the moon and the moons of Jupiter. He published his findings in a 1610 CE book, *The Starry Messenger*. His discoveries brought attention and fame, and



Galileo's research supported the Copernican theory that Earth and other planets orbit around the sun.

Galileo was awarded a position as court mathematician and astronomer by the Grand Duke of Tuscany.

These appointments were not without controversy. In his writings, Galileo argued that what he had observed in the sky supported theories held by Nicolaus Copernicus (1473–1543 CE). Copernicus had argued in his book *On the Revolutions of the Celestial Spheres* (1543 CE) that the traditional model of astronomy accounted poorly for

the evidence of observation. The ancient astronomer Ptolemy had developed the usual model, which placed Earth at the center; the sun, moon, and planets circled around it. Copernicus argued that placing the sun at the center was more consistent with what astronomers could see and measure. Galileo's publication brought new attention to these theories, which some Roman theologians thought conflicted with information in the Bible. The Roman court condemned Copernicus's position and ordered Galileo to stop discussing Copernican theories. Copernicus's books were also **censored**.

Vocabulary

censor, v. to remove or prohibit books, art, films, or other media that the government finds offensive, immoral, or harmful

Nonetheless, Galileo returned to work and in 1632 CE published another book, *Dialogue Concerning the Two Chief World Systems*. The two systems in the title were those of Ptolemy and Copernicus, and Galileo once again supported the Copernican model. A new court convened and found Galileo guilty of

violating the court's earlier order. He was placed under house arrest and was forbidden to publish. Galileo's *Dialogue* was banned. Yet Galileo did have his supporters. The Grand Duke of Tuscany allowed him to live and teach in his villa outside of Florence. He published his final work, *Two New Sciences*, in Leiden.

The Renaissance and Reformation transformed Europe. The era in which European religion was dominated by a single united church was over, allowing dozens of religious beliefs and ideas to flourish. The efforts of people like Galileo and many others would create a scientific revolution that reshaped the way we see and interact with the world. Feeding these ideas were greater contacts with other places and peoples outside of Europe, especially with Muslims. These ideas spread with trade and travel, which made European rulers both wealthier and more ambitious. In the fifteenth century CE, ambitious and adventurous Europeans were also embarking on an age of exploration using new ships and navigational technologies. As they traveled, they brought the ideas of the Renaissance and many of the new religious concepts with them.

Chapter 2

Exploration, Trade, and Settlement

The Big Question

How did competition among rival European powers shape patterns of trade, settlement, and colonization?



The Age of Sail

Beginning in the 1400s CE, explorers, traders, and merchants from Europe began to head out into the world in greater numbers than ever before. To them and the powerful rulers who funded their voyages, the world was filled with opportunities to amass wealth and power. But for the Indigenous peoples and cultures the Europeans encountered, contact often resulted in violence, disease, death, and displacement. The actions of people in this period helped shape the modern world and usher in the foundations of a truly global system of trade and contact.



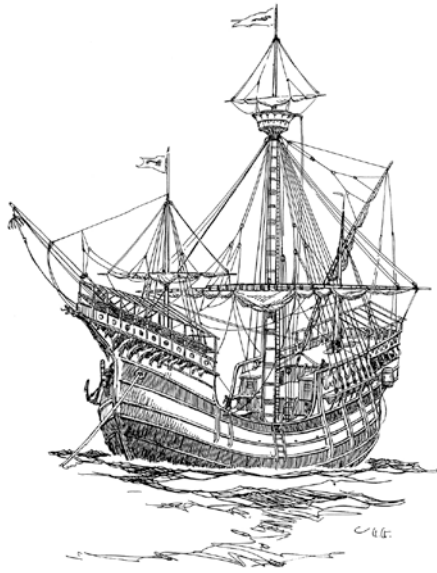
The Monument to the Discoveries in Lisbon, Portugal, depicts the people who made Portugal's age of sea exploration possible. Thirty statues of notable figures, including Prince Henry the Navigator, Vasco da Gama, and Ferdinand Magellan, stand along the prow of a caravel.



The age of exploration that began in the 1400s CE is also sometimes called the age of sail. New sailing ships outfitted with the most current navigational technologies facilitated explorers and traders to cross ever greater distances on the sea. The ships also carried weapons, equipment, and ideas that were products of the era's Scientific Revolution.

Europeans had been sailing the seas for centuries. In the 1400s CE, technological developments allowed European sailors to go farther than ever before. For most of the Middle Ages, shipbuilding and ship designs did not change very much in Europe. By the 1300s CE, however, a larger type of ship was being built and used by the great traders of the Mediterranean Sea, including those based in Portugal, Spain, and the Italian cities of Genoa and Venice. These ships were known as carracks. With three or four masts and square sails, they were larger and more seaworthy than many medieval ships and allowed sailors and traders to travel farther with larger crews and cargoes. Those who used them saw a direct increase in their fortunes. A smaller ship, called a caravel, was also developed around this time.

The sails used by these new ships had been improved from what was used in the ancient and medieval eras, when European



Carrack



Caravel

ships had square-shaped sails. The problem with a square sail is that it only allows the ship to be pushed along by the direction of the wind. The carracks added a triangular *lateen* sail to the rear of the sail arrangement, and the caravels used lateens on two or three masts. Lateen sails could be blown from either side, which allowed ships to be powered forward against the direction of the wind using a sailing technique called tacking. When tacking, sailors moved the ship in a zigzag pattern so that the lateen sails could pick up the wind.

Larger ships with more sophisticated sails could go farther than before, but to explore the world, these crews needed better tools for navigation. For centuries, sailors had

determined their location by observing the movement of the stars and planets in the night sky. Those observations could be made more accurately with the invention of the sextant. Another useful navigation tool involved the use of Earth's magnetic field. In the medieval period, Europeans worked out that a magnetic rock called a lodestone, if attached to a stick and allowed to float in water, would point northward. Eventually, this simple tool was refined and turned into a smaller, portable device called a **compass**, which allows the observer to quickly determine which direction is north.

Vocabulary

compass, n. a device that uses a magnetized pointer to show direction



Think Twice

Why is it important to know which direction is north?

Gunpowder weapons, such as cannons and muskets, also played a role in promoting European exploration. While early European cannons were large and unreliable, by the 1400s CE, they had become small, accurate, and reliable enough to be standard equipment on warships. Sailors and soldiers depended not only on guns (like early muskets) but also on quality armor that protected them from injury during battle. These technologies and others provided the means for European exploration and conquests. But the reasons why Europeans set out, the directions they traveled, and what they did when they got there varied among the different groups and the different periods of European exploration.

The Portuguese Navigators

The Portuguese were some of the most successful early European explorers. After reconquering European lands controlled by Muslim rulers in 1249 CE, the Christian leaders of Portugal wanted to expand

further. Portugal's primary goals included expanding their control of lands in Africa, securing access to wealth and trade, and spreading Christianity.

An early patron of Portuguese exploration was Henrique, the third son of Portugal's king. Prince Henrique sponsored so many explorers that he is known as *Henrique o Navegador*, or Henry the Navigator. From an early age, Henry was committed to funding ships and expeditions. He used his great wealth to assemble experts in all sorts of fields—shipbuilders, navigators, mapmakers, and mathematicians. It was Henry's team that came up with the design for the caravel. Henry then paid for expeditions to find new lands to add to a growing Portuguese empire.

Portuguese exploration was also inspired by the desire to find a sea route to northern China, which the Portuguese called Cathay. Europeans knew about China thanks to the writings of Marco Polo. The land-based Silk Road was the primary trading route between Europe and Asia, but the journey from Portugal was long and difficult. While searching for a potential sea route to Cathay, Portuguese navigators happened upon and began to explore the coasts of Africa. These early

Portuguese expeditions provided the foundations for later exploration and the growth of a Portuguese empire.

Henry's explorers documented their voyages in great detail. This created a store of knowledge that was used and enhanced with each subsequent trip. The Portuguese established colonies and outposts in the places they visited, which they used to make money off their explorations. For example, the Portuguese found enough gold in Africa to begin minting a solid gold coin. They also began to capture and enslave Africans and bring them back to Europe.

Portugal's mission of exploration continued after Henry's death. In 1482 CE, Diogo Cão came upon the mouth of the Congo River. He was disappointed to learn that it did not lead him all the way to Cathay. Bartolomeu Dias became the first European to find and pass the Cape of Good Hope, the southern tip of the African continent. His expedition found the path for seafarers to make their way east to India and Cathay by navigating around Africa.



Find Out the Facts

Why is the southern tip of Africa called the Cape of Good Hope? What was its original name?

Early Portuguese Exploration



In 1497 CE, Portugal's rulers sent an expedition led by Vasco da Gama to make contact and begin trade with India. Da Gama's voyage rounded the Cape of Good Hope and explored East Africa, including lands we now know as Mozambique, Mombasa in Kenya, and Mogadishu in Somalia. Da Gama arrived in Calicut, India, in 1498 CE. He contacted the ruler of Calicut, but he was not able to make a trade agreement. Da Gama returned to Portugal and relayed what he had

found. A second expedition, led by Pedro Álvares Cabral, had more success. Cabral was able to trade for spices in the Indian city of Cochin. Da Gama made a second voyage in 1502 CE. He was determined to demonstrate the power of the Portuguese.

Da Gama's and Cabral's voyages in East Africa and India had a simple goal—to seize control of all trade in the Indian Ocean for the Portuguese. To achieve this, they attacked several locations on the East African coast and set up their own trading posts, which they called factories. They also established forts to protect Portuguese traders from their Muslim, African, and Indian rivals. The Swahili-speaking peoples of East Africa, who had lived in city-states on the coast for centuries, saw their societies decline as a result of Portuguese actions.



Find Out the Facts

In which modern countries is Swahili still spoken?

One unintended consequence of Portugal's desire to dominate Indian trade was the country's claim to Brazil. Cabral was given detailed instructions about how to follow da Gama's route to India. Part of these instructions said to avoid a

region in West Africa where there was little wind and a risk of ships getting stuck. To avoid this region, Cabral's ships headed in a southwest direction. They went so far southwest, however, that they ended up on the Brazilian coast in South America. The Portuguese claimed this land as their own, eventually naming it Brazil, after brazilwood, which was the first profitable export the Portuguese found there. By the mid-1500s CE, Brazil had become a very important part of the Portuguese Empire.



The Spanish Cross the Atlantic

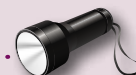
The Portuguese were not the only Europeans who exploited and explored the oceans in the 1400s CE. Christopher Columbus, a sailor from the Italian trading city of Genoa, believed that a route to Cathay could be found not by sailing to the east but instead by heading west from Europe. Hoping to get the money to test his theories, he proposed his ideas to European rulers. He eventually found patrons in King Ferdinand II and Queen Isabella I of Spain. Isabella and her court were not totally convinced by Columbus's claims, but they decided that the risk was worth the potential

rewards, which included access to the great wealth of Cathay, undermining the power of Muslim states, and the spread of Christianity in the name of the Spanish crown.

Columbus set out on his first voyage with three ships, the *Niña*, the *Santa Maria*, and the *Pinta*, in August 1492 CE. The expedition sailed to the Canary Islands before heading west. Columbus and his crew arrived in the Bahamas on October 12. Determined to get to Cathay, they continued on until they came to the island of Cuba. After realizing that Cuba was neither Japan nor China, Columbus set off once again and landed on an island called Ayti—the root of the modern name Haiti—by the people who lived there. These people, the Taino, inhabited Cuba, Jamaica, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands. Columbus assumed that he had successfully made his way to somewhere near Cathay and that the Taino were Indians. Columbus named this island Hispaniola, the Spanish island.

At first, Columbus did not realize that he had not landed in Asia. He was the first European to make contact with the Taino, whose population at the time numbered between one and two million. Columbus did not spend long on Hispaniola before returning to Spain with some treasure and news of his success. He arrived with a cargo of strange animals, gold, spices, and people he had enslaved in Hispaniola. These signs of success caused Columbus's patrons to outfit him for another voyage in September 1493 CE.

Find Out the Facts



Research the sorts of things that Columbus introduced to Europeans.

Writers' Corner



Imagine you are at the Spanish court when Columbus returns from his first voyage. Write a description of what you see when Columbus presents his findings to the court.



Think Twice

Why do you think Columbus and other explorers renamed most of the places they visited instead of using the locations' Indigenous names?

Columbus's second and third voyages confirmed to him and the Spanish that there were plentiful opportunities in the Americas. Ferdinand and Isabella were quick to seek legal authority to

declare that everything in the Americas belonged to them. They asked Pope Alexander VI to issue commands that everything to the west of a line drawn near the Cape Verde Islands rightfully belonged to Spain. This line stretched about 320 miles from north to south. This upset the Portuguese, whose own interests in the Americas had not been acknowledged in the pope's orders. In 1494 CE, Spanish and Portuguese representatives met at the city of Tordesillas in Spain to divide the world between themselves. The Treaty of Tordesillas declared that everything to the west of the line drawn at the Cape Verde Islands belonged to Spain, while everything to the east belonged to Portugal. The treaty was later amended to make Portugal's claim to Brazil official. The treaty settled the dispute between Spain and Portugal, and the two did not argue about it again. The treaty also meant that all other European powers had to seek new ways to settle in the Americas. For the millions of people who already lived in the Americas, it meant that the crowns of Spain and Portugal considered themselves the true rulers of the Americas and were free to conquer and exploit its peoples and lands.

Think Twice

Whose interests were left out of the treaty's agreements?



Spain in the Americas

From Columbus onward, the Spanish secured and extended their rule over the lands they found in the Americas. This included a ruthless series of campaigns against native peoples, including the Taino. The Spanish enslaved the Indigenous people and put them to work; those who resisted were killed. The Europeans also had diseases that the Taino and other Indigenous peoples had no immunity to. It is believed that the Taino were reduced in number from maybe two million when the Portuguese arrived in the Americas to only a few thousand by 1520 CE. They were all but wiped out by 1550 CE. Those who did survive mixed with other island inhabitants, including Europeans and enslaved Africans, and Taino culture itself eventually vanished. The Spanish gradually spread from their foothold in the Caribbean to the rest of the Americas. The first stable settlement on the South American continent, Santa

María de la Antigua, was established in the Isthmus of Panama by Vasco Núñez de Balboa. Today he is recognized for being the first European to see the east coast of the Pacific Ocean, but Balboa is also remembered for the brutal ways he extracted wealth from native peoples of the region. He led raiding parties to acquire gold and people to enslave and often used torture and trickery to get information he could use against neighboring peoples.

Elsewhere, Hernán Cortés led an expedition to Mexico. In a swift and brutal campaign, he defeated the Aztec rulers and conquered their capital of Tenochtitlán, after which he became the ruler of a massive territory that spanned the Caribbean and Mexico. In 1531 CE, the great Inca Empire of the Andes was invaded and conquered by the Pizarro brothers. A new term was used to describe these men: *conquistadors*. They reflected the worldview of the Spanish monarchy at the time. The conquest mentality of Spain's rulers spurred them to support conquistadors because the conquistadors promised to bring them wealth and territory. European technology, native peoples' lack of immunity to European diseases, and existing weaknesses within their communities gave conquistadors

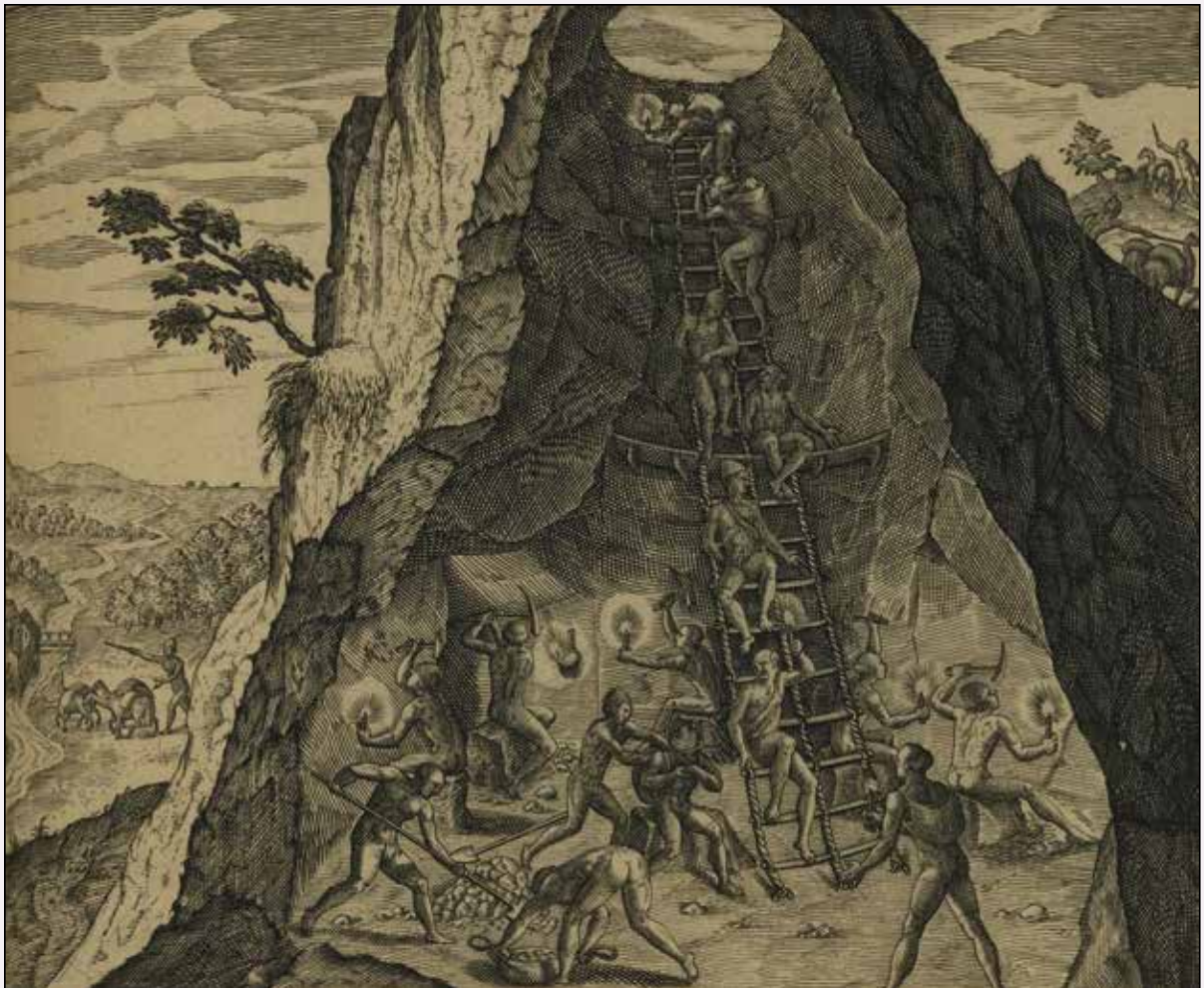
a massive advantage. These factors set the stage for attacks, conquest, and exploitation of the peoples and civilizations of the Americas.

The Spanish used their new populations, both enslaved and free, to work to enrich themselves and the Spanish crown. At the time, European economic policies were based on mercantilism, or the idea that the nation with the most wealth in gold and silver would be the most powerful. The purpose of empire and trade was simply to get as much of these precious metals as possible. In addition to a focus on the locations of the Aztec and Inca Empires, Spanish colonization focused on the mining centers of Potosí in current-day Bolivia and Zacatecas in Mexico, attempting to extract as much silver as possible from these areas.

One man who arrived as a conquistador became renowned for denouncing European abuse of Indigenous peoples in the Americas. Bartolomé de Las Casas had been given land in Cuba in 1513 CE. He was an *encomendero*—a person who had an *encomienda*, which was a reward that the Spanish crown gave to conquistadors. It consisted of land and the labor of the Indigenous people who lived on that land.

Las Casas was horrified by the Spanish treatment of the Indigenous. He gave his enslaved workers to Cuba's governor and returned to Spain to plead for reforms in the treatment of Indigenous peoples. While abuse of the Indigenous peoples did not end, Las Casas managed to get the Council of the Indies and King Charles V to enact the New Laws of the Indies for the Good Treatment and Preservation

of the Indians in 1542 CE. The New Laws abolished Indigenous slavery and also ended the exploitative encomienda system. Ironically, Las Casas's campaign to publicize the abusive way the Spanish treated the Indigenous peoples came to be used by Protestant England to try to prove that Spanish Catholics were inherently violent and wicked. This line of thought became known as the Black



This 1601 CE engraving shows how Inca people removed silver from a mine in Bolivia.

Legend, and it was used by Europeans to rally against Spain rather than to secure better treatment for Indigenous peoples.



Find Out the Facts

Find out more about Bartolomé de Las Casas. What was the name of the book he wrote? What was his proposal for improving the treatment of Indigenous peoples?



Circumnavigating the Globe

The Portuguese were slower than the Spanish to develop their interests in the Americas. This was partly because of the Treaty of Tordesillas and partly because of their interests in the East. Following Vasco da Gama's voyages, the Portuguese set up bases in India at Cochin and then in Goa, which allowed them to head farther eastward. In 1512 CE, Portuguese adventurers arrived at the Maluku islands, which are part of modern Indonesia. Because of the valuable spices they found there, the Portuguese called these islands the Spice Islands. Subsequent expeditions added more colonies to the Portuguese Empire, including Sri Lanka, Macau, and Malaysia.

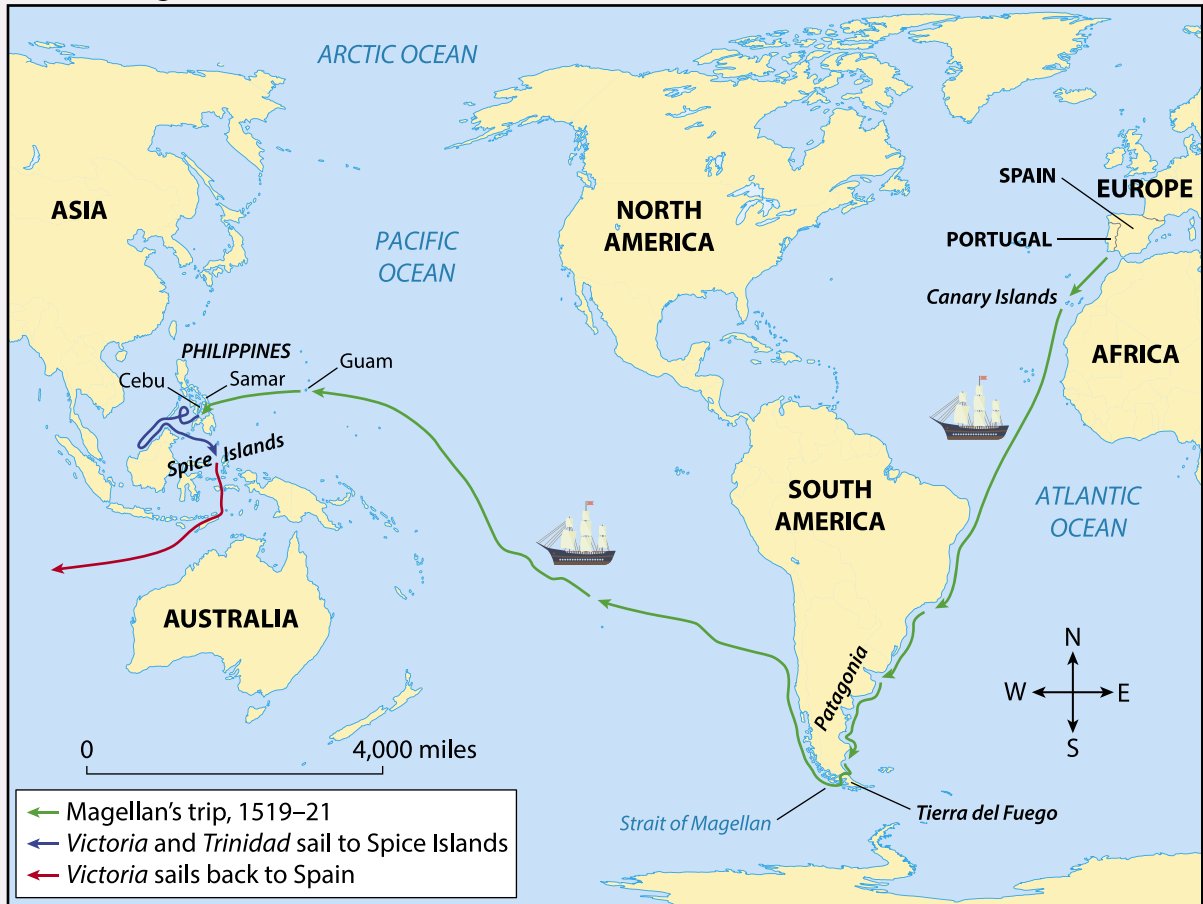
A Portuguese explorer, Fernão de Magalhães, or Ferdinand Magellan, led the first expedition that successfully **circumnavigated** the globe. Magellan originally worked for the Portuguese but was employed by Spain at the time he made his famous journey. Magellan and his fleet set out from Spain toward Brazil in 1519 CE. After a long journey, Magellan and his crew finally found a strait that linked the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. That strait is now called the Strait of Magellan.

Vocabulary

circumnavigate, v. to travel completely around something (such as Earth), especially by water

Exploring the Pacific Ocean was difficult, and many of Magellan's crew fell ill or even died. By the time they made it to the island of Guam, Magellan's crew had not had fresh food for almost one hundred days. The voyage headed to the Philippines, where Magellan died in a fight with the inhabitants. The expedition continued until two of Magellan's ships made it to the Maluku islands. From there, the few survivors of Magellan's crew limped their way home across familiar routes to get back to Spain. Only eighteen of the 270 members of the original expedition survived the journey.

Circumnavigation of the Globe, 1519–22 CE



Writers' Corner



Imagine you are one of the survivors of Magellan's expedition. Write a descriptive account of your experiences for your friends and family.

England and France Compete

The other powerful countries of Europe were not content to let Spain and Portugal divide up the world between

themselves. They set their sights on building their own empires. In northern Europe, the rival kingdoms of England and France sought to outdo one another in sea exploration. They each sought their own route to the Far East, but they used a different strategy from that of the Spanish and Portuguese. They wanted to find a "northwest passage" around the Americas through the Arctic Ocean. While the Portuguese traveled south around Africa (eastward) and South America (westward), the English and French hoped

to find a way east by going north. Both had excellent reputations when it came to sailing, and both countries adopted the new innovations developed in Italy, Spain, and Portugal.

It was in search of a northwest passage that English king Henry VII funded an expedition led by another sailor from Genoa, Giovanni Caboto, or John Cabot. Like Columbus, Cabot thought he could find a route to India and China by sailing westward. Cabot set sail from England in 1497 CE, first sailing around Ireland before heading west. According to historians, Cabot and his crew landed in Newfoundland in late June of that year. This makes him the first modern European to have set foot on mainland North America. Like Columbus, Cabot believed he had landed somewhere in the East.

Meanwhile, the French were funding their own expedition, led by the Italian explorer Giovanni da Verrazzano. Verrazzano sailed to the Americas in 1524 CE. He came to Cape Fear, in what is now North Carolina, and then sailed north along the east coast of continental North America. Verrazzano was the first European to explore several places along the coast, including what is now New York Harbor.

Following Verrazzano's voyage, the French established a colony in North America called Gallia Nova, or New France, in the region that is now Quebec.

For most of the 1500s CE, the English and French colonies in North America were small and poor. Unlike the Spanish, the French and English did not find large empires of Indigenous peoples. Many of their early colonies failed. Both nations had more success in the 1600s CE. The English and French established colonies throughout North America and the Caribbean, and they both supported efforts to raid Spanish ships carrying gold, silver, and other treasures from the Spanish Empire. The English established their first successful American colonies in lands they named Virginia after the "virgin queen," Elizabeth I. The French explored the Mississippi River. In 1671 CE, the French government declared that the interior of the North American continent belonged to France.

English merchants created the East India Company with the intention of funding voyages to bring back spices and other valuables from India and nearby nations. By 1612 CE, the company had defeated the Portuguese traders who resided in India and secured its own rights to

trade with India's rulers. The East India Company's activities brought a rich trade in silk, cotton, tea, dyes, and other goods. The company also became significantly involved in enslaving people in East Africa, Indonesia, and elsewhere, both to work

for the company and to be sold for profit. By the 1700s CE, the East India Company had developed into a full-fledged British regime that controlled India and its wealth. Wherever the English were, the French were nearby. The struggle between the two

Settlements in the New World, 1650 CE



rivals led to a global conflict from 1756 to 1763 CE. In the United States, the conflict is known as the French and Indian War, but the rest of the world calls it the Seven Years' War. The two nations were fighting for control of North America and India. In the end, the French lost most of their lands in North America, including Canada, Florida, and the lands east of the Mississippi River, which all went to the British. Louisiana was given to Spain. France's trading posts and rights were also given to the British.

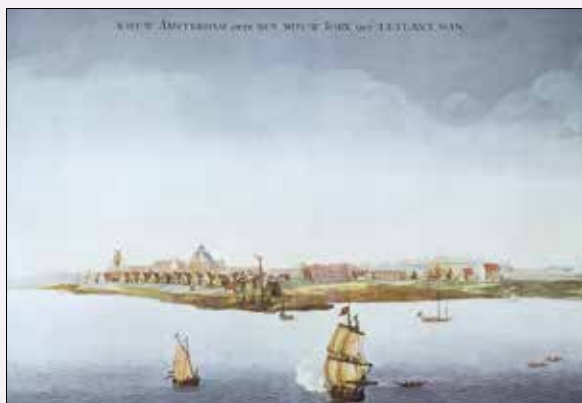


Find Out the Facts

What were the major events of the Seven Years' War, and who was involved?

The Emergence of the Dutch

When the British East India Company tried to enter the spice trade, they ran into serious competition from one of northern Europe's other great naval powers: the Dutch. The Dutch were experts at seafaring, as they had been making trading and fishing vessels for centuries. They were involved in trade networks in the North Sea and in the states of the Baltic, including the rich cities of the German Hanseatic League.



This 1650 CE lithograph shows New Amsterdam on the island of Manhattan when it was still under Dutch control. It was renamed New York by the English in 1664 CE.

At the beginning of the 1600s CE, the Dutch began to aggressively expand. Like its English counterpart, the Dutch East India Company was established to carry out trade, set up trading posts, and wage war against anyone who got in its way. The company was initially very successful. In 1619 CE, the Dutch established a base at what is now Jakarta in Indonesia. From there, they conquered the other islands of Indonesia. The Dutch gradually expanded their control outward to include the island they knew as Formosa (modern Taiwan) and many other ports. They continued to take over Portugal's trading empire. Before long, the Dutch controlled Malaysia and several provinces in east India. They also made trade agreements with Vietnam and Japan. By 1645 CE, the Dutch were the most powerful trading empire in Southeast Asia.

To further secure their trading routes, the Dutch East India Company turned the Cape of Good Hope, in present-day South Africa, into a Dutch colony. This was the first permanent European settlement in southern Africa, and it eventually grew to become Cape Town. Cape Town's job was to supply Dutch ships sailing to and from the East Indies. As time went on, Dutch settlers in the Cape Colony began to develop their own identity and culture, becoming known as Afrikaners (a South African of Dutch descent who speaks Afrikaans) or Boers (after the Dutch word for farmer). The Afrikaner population of the Cape Colony was small at first. By 1707 CE, 1,779 Europeans lived in the Cape. Much of the work in the colony was done by enslaved people taken from elsewhere in Africa.

The Dutch also set up colonies in the Americas. Like England and France, the Dutch were interested in finding a northwest passage. In 1609 CE, the Dutch paid English explorer Henry Hudson to look for such a route. Hudson and his crew sailed until they found the river that is now called the Hudson (in present-day New York State). Although Hudson did not discover a northwest passage, he made a survey of the surrounding area, including parts of the modern states of New Jersey,

New York, Delaware, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Connecticut. The Dutch claimed this territory and named it New Netherland. This colony was successful in attracting settlers not only from the Netherlands but from all over Europe. It quickly grew in size and wealth, becoming a target for rivals, including the English. After a conflict between the Netherlands and England, New Netherland was taken over by the English. New Amsterdam, one of the largest and richest settlements of New Netherland, was renamed New York, the name it still bears today.



The Transatlantic Slave Trade

Explorers visiting the Americas, Africa, and the East Indies encountered a whole range of items that had been either very rare or totally unknown in Europe. Foodstuffs such as potatoes, tomatoes, sugar, coffee beans, cocoa beans, peppers, corn, and spices; crops such as tobacco; and expensive silks and fine dyes were exciting and desirable to Europeans. It was quickly realized that producing these items in large quantities could make the people who controlled their production and sale very wealthy. European colonies

were set up in the Americas partially to provide bases where large amounts of these crops and goods could be produced for European markets. Initially, few Europeans lived in these colonies. It was expensive, difficult, and dangerous to transport large numbers of Europeans to overseas colonies. Europeans attempted to use the Indigenous populations of places they conquered as forced labor, but many Indigenous people died from European diseases or fled inland.

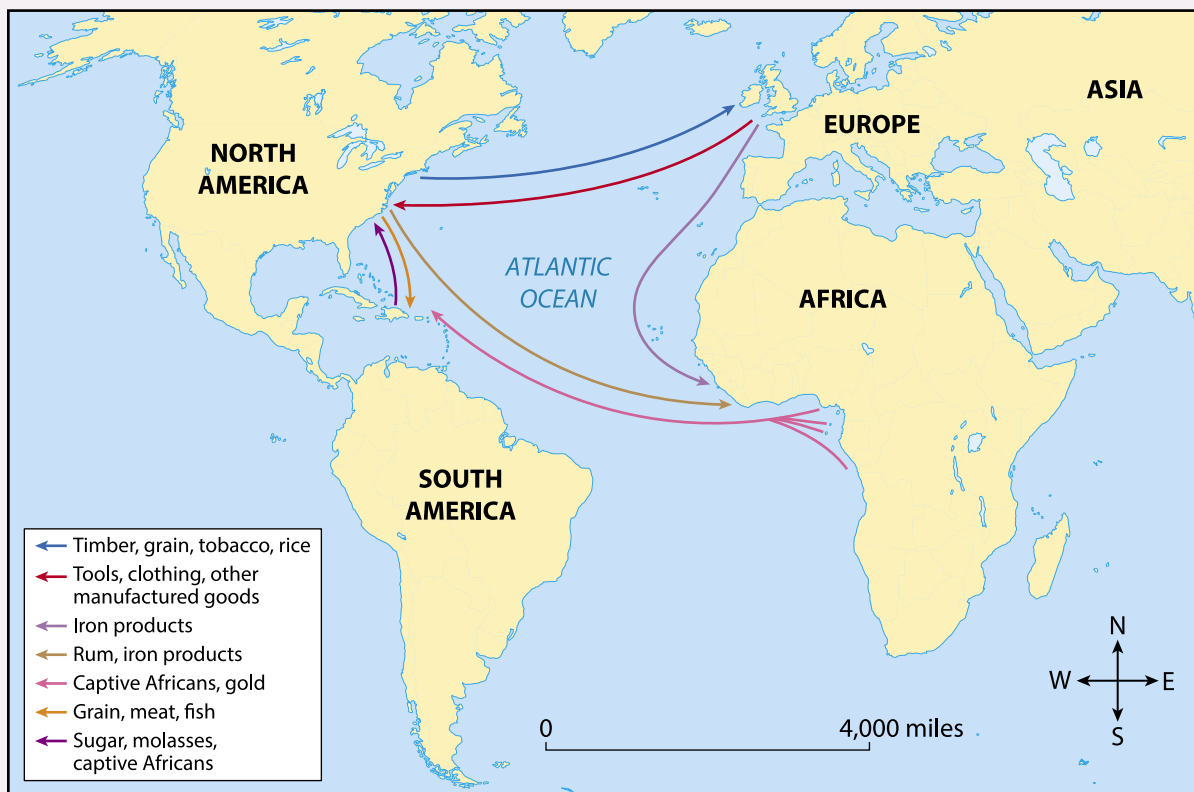
European reliance on enslaved people to perform labor in places of conquest dates back to the early days of European exploration. The plantation model in particular became part of the tool kit of European colonization. A small number of Europeans controlled a large number of enslaved workers on a vast estate. This required a relatively small number of European settlers to ensure that large quantities of crops were produced for profit. Climate and location determined which crops were grown. Popular products included sugar, tobacco, coffee, cotton, bananas, palm trees (for palm oil), and rubber trees.

The plantation economy demanded ever greater numbers of enslaved people,

primarily enslaved Africans. Enslaved people were often treated brutally by slaveholders who cared little for their well-being. The slaveholders' only concern was the work a person did and how much profit could be made off their labor.

Slave trading and transportation became a major transatlantic activity in the 1600s and 1700s CE. The transatlantic trade in people and goods is sometimes referred to as the triangular trade because it consisted of three directions of movement. First, Europeans took goods such as weapons, alcohol, and clothes to Africa. These were exchanged for enslaved people. The enslaved people were taken to colonies in the Americas. Finally, the traders took the goods produced by colonial plantations back to Europe.

The region of West Africa where many enslaved people were traded became known as the Slave Coast. Some people were traded to Europeans by other Africans who had captured them in war. As demand for enslaved labor grew due to the rise of profitable plantation crops in the Americas, Europeans began to lead and encourage raids deeper into Africa to find and capture people who could be enslaved and sold.



The Triangular Trade Routes

Over the centuries in which the slave trade was active, many millions of Africans were taken on what was called the Middle Passage from Africa to the Americas and the Caribbean. The voyage took weeks, sometimes months, and many hundreds of enslaved people were confined together on ships in crowded and terrifying conditions. They faced brutal treatment by the crews of slave ships and by the people who bought and sold them. They were also subjected to other dangers, such as storms, pirate raids, disease, and malnutrition. If they survived the Middle Passage, their future

only held the prospect of years of work as enslaved laborers in foreign lands—labor for which they were not compensated, and lands in which they had few rights or none.

Find Out the Facts



How did the transatlantic slave trade affect life in Africa, especially West Africa?

Writers' Corner



Use what you learned about the transatlantic slave trade to write an editorial arguing for an end to the trade.

Chapter 3

The Scientific Revolution and the Enlightenment

The Big Question

What new ideas were introduced in the Scientific Revolution and the Enlightenment?



A New View of the Universe

The 1500s, 1600s, and 1700s CE brought significant changes in the ways that Europeans thought of themselves and their place in the world. When historians look back at this period, they find an increased regard for the roles of science and human reason and growing efforts to use science and reason to address a wide variety of issues.



Nicolaus Copernicus developed the theory of a heliocentric universe, one in which the planets revolve around the sun.



The late 1500s and early 1600s CE were times of great turmoil in Europe. Christianity had been transformed by the Protestant Reformation, during which many people were forced to rethink their standards of belief. Exploration and colonization had introduced Europeans to many non-Western cultures and beliefs that challenged their own assumptions about humanity. The 1500s and 1600s CE also saw dramatic changes in European politics as governments throughout Europe became more bureaucratic and more centralized.

At the same time, Europeans were experiencing a breakdown of their traditional views of the universe. Europeans had long subscribed to the ideas of the Greek astronomer Claudius Ptolemy. The Ptolemaic system, as it was called, put Earth at the center of the universe. These ideas came under increased criticism in the 1500s CE. With better instruments and more accurate observations, more and more irregularities in Ptolemy's system became apparent.

And as you have discovered, the first person to publicly question the Ptolemaic system was the Polish astronomer Nicolaus Copernicus. Copernicus developed a theory of a heliocentric, or sun-centered, universe. Rather than thinking that the sun and all other known bodies revolved around Earth, he said

that Earth and the other planets revolve around the sun. Others, such as Dutch astronomer Tycho Brahe and German astronomer Johannes Kepler, found more proof of this emerging sun-centered worldview. In Kepler's case, this involved discovering that the planets have elliptical orbits around the sun.

Additional advances were made by Italian astronomer Galileo Galilei. In 1609 CE, Galileo built a telescope that was powerful enough to see that the moon is not a perfect sphere or a luminous object, as had been thought. It had shadows, indicating valleys and mountains, just like on Earth. And Jupiter, Galileo's telescope revealed, has its own moons too, similar to Earth's. Perhaps Earth was not such a special and unique place after all? In his *Dialogue Concerning the Two Chief World Systems* (1632 CE), Galileo championed

Copernican heliocentrism and appeared to attack the pope. Galileo was tried by a judicial system called the Inquisition and placed under house arrest.



Medicine Moves Forward

The Scientific Revolution did not just look upward to the stars. It also looked inward, at the human body. Just as Europeans' understanding of astronomy was heavily influenced by Ptolemy, their understanding of medicine and the human body largely came from a Roman physician named Galen. Galen studied the human body through observation and **dissection**, but he made mistakes and drew some incorrect conclusions.

Vocabulary

dissection, n. the act of cutting something into parts in order to study it



Find Out the Facts

Find out more about Galileo and his conflict with the Catholic Church.

Writers' Corner



Use what you learned about Galileo to write a persuasive letter either in support of him and his ideas or against them.

In the 1500s CE, anatomy professor Andres Vesalius performed his own dissections. In his published findings, he corrected Galen's errors and proved there was more to learn about the human body. Vesalius's student William Harvey built on his teacher's discoveries. Using Vesalius's

study of veins, Harvey developed his own theory of circulation of the blood. His work demonstrated that blood is pumped throughout the human body through a system of arteries and veins. Advances in the understanding of anatomy led to other improvements. Ambroise Paré improved the treatment of wounds. Antoine-Laurent Lavoisier discovered the role of oxygen in the respiration (breathing) system.

Even more discoveries were made with the introduction of a new tool: the microscope. In 1590 CE, Dutch eyeglass makers invented the compound microscope, which uses multiple lenses to produce greater magnification. Antonie van Leeuwenhoek created his own microscope, which he used to observe and describe bacteria. He also described the appearance of muscle fibers, discovered blood cells, and studied the structures



Antonie van Leeuwenhoek used a microscope he invented to gain a greater understanding of how the human body works.

of wood and crystals. Because of these studies, he is considered the father of microbiology.

Think Twice



Why would a new tool, such as the microscope, lead to new discoveries?

The Pursuit of Knowledge

With these scientific discoveries, philosophers were coming to realize that traditional forms of knowledge, including the Bible, could be questioned as well. How was it possible for human beings to know anything for sure?

The certainty of the world seemed to be crumbling around Europeans. Francis Bacon and René Descartes provided the European Enlightenment with much of its **methodology**. Although Bacon's life preceded the Enlightenment by several decades, his writings served as one of its primary intellectual sources. As a

Vocabulary

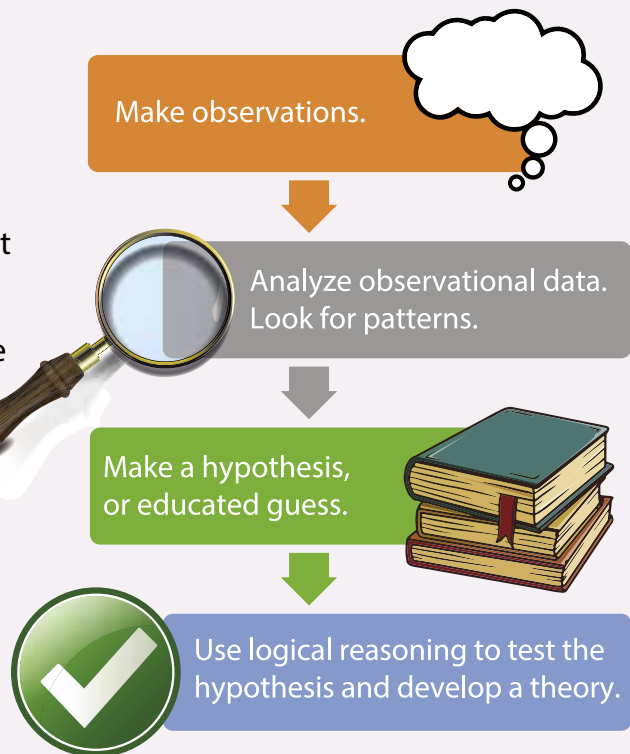
methodology, n. a set of rules and procedures for inquiry in a specific area of study

student at Cambridge University, Bacon became displeased with the state of learning, especially with the method of gaining scientific knowledge. He thought in particular that the standard way of learning things, known as Aristotelian philosophy, led only to worthless arguments that did little to expand knowledge. Bacon maintained that the Aristotelian philosophy might be scholarly and learned, but it was not very useful. In his writings, Bacon set out to review the state of knowledge in his own time and to offer improvements. In place of Aristotelian philosophy, Bacon offered empiricism and the inductive method. Empiricism bases knowledge on experience through the five senses. Bacon thought that we should use our senses to make observations and conduct experiments in the world around us. But our senses do not always give us accurate information. For example, when you lower a stick into a pool of water, the stick appears to bend. We know that the stick is not really bent, even though our senses tell us it is. Bacon worried about the accuracy of sensory data, and he identified other illusions, which he called "idols of the mind," that could potentially interfere with human perception.

Bacon's real claim to fame is his inductive method. He said that we should begin with the study of the particular and, from there, aim to arrive at an understanding of the general. This method opened up the possibility of arriving at new knowledge. General knowledge could be expanded.

For Bacon, knowledge had practical purposes. He envisioned expanded knowledge leading to concrete ends, such as improved orchards, better breeds of animals, and new and improved

INDUCTIVE REASONING



Inductive reasoning is used to gain knowledge, develop greater understanding, and find the truth.

medicines. Knowledge was power, he believed, and it ought to be employed to make life more comfortable and enjoyable. For these reasons, we might think of Francis Bacon as a godfather of the Enlightenment.

Unlike Bacon, René Descartes was very much a mathematician. In fact, he is considered to be the inventor of coordinate geometry. For Descartes, much of the vast world of nature could be reduced to mathematical form. Following rigid rules of deductive logic, geometry creates an entire system of knowledge from a few basic axioms, or assumptions. Descartes asserted that true knowledge in all areas could be uncovered by using this geometric model.



Find Out the Facts

Bacon believed in inductive reasoning. Descartes believed in deductive reasoning. How are the two methods different?

Like Bacon, Descartes relied on skepticism. He, too, rejected reliance on authority. He also argued that our senses can mislead us and should not be trusted. If we can't trust our senses, then what do we know to be true? Descartes began to examine things from his world that he thought

he knew and discarded his beliefs for various reasons. The first truth to emerge unscathed from Descartes's doubting mind is summarized in this Latin phrase: *Cogito ergo sum* (I am thinking, therefore I exist, or, I think, therefore I am).

From that basic starting point, Descartes aimed to reconstruct the world of knowledge on a sound, rationalist footing. The rules he would follow are called his four laws of logic:

1. Never accept anything as true unless I clearly and distinctly know it to be true.
2. Divide difficulties into as many parts as possible.
3. Organize my thoughts from simplest and easiest to the most complex.
4. Write complete records or explanations that omit nothing.

Both Bacon and Descartes addressed the question, *How is it possible for human beings to know anything for sure?* Bacon prioritized the senses and observation. Descartes gave prominence to **innate** ideas and the use of reason. Both of these

Vocabulary

innate, adj. existing in or belonging to since birth; inborn

strands of thought came together in the writings of Sir Isaac Newton, another key Enlightenment figure.

Newton's Laws

Isaac Newton reformulated the scientific method, using the ideas of Bacon and Descartes as his foundation. Descartes, as we've seen, aimed to explain all natural phenomena in terms of matter and its motion. Newton used Bacon's empiricism as a starting point for scientific inquiry by emphasizing the importance of gathering experimental data. He also demonstrated the power of mathematics as a theoretical tool. Newton believed that the universe operated according to a few basic laws. For example, matter was infused with active forces, the most famous of which was gravity. It was gravity that produced all the motion in the universe. Every particle of matter in the universe was attracted to every other particle. That attraction varied according to the size of the particles and their distance from each other. With Newton, then, we get the first coherent theory of the entire physical universe.



Find Out the Facts

What story is told about Newton's discovery of gravity?

Writers' Corner

Create a comic strip or storyboard that tells the story of Newton discovering gravity.



One reason Newton's ideas have had such a wide and lasting impact is the simplicity of his message. He is famous, for instance, for his three laws of Motion:

Law 1. Every body continues in its state of rest or of motion in a straight line, unless it is forced to change.

Law 2. The change is proportional to the amount of force used and is made in the direction of the straight line of that force.

Law 3. To every action there is always opposed an equal reaction.

These clear and concise laws seemed to ring with natural authority. In the Enlightenment, clarity (like usefulness) was often seen as a sign of truth.

If Newton gave the Enlightenment a method, he also hinted toward a sense of optimism that others built upon. Newton suggested that the physical universe was essentially harmonious and orderly. Human reason, moreover, was capable of understanding the universe and dealing with its



Newton's experiments with prisms helped him determine that white light consists of seven colors.

mysteries and secrets. That realization had implications beyond the world of science.

John Locke

Of all the figures of the late 1600s CE who influenced the Enlightenment, none stands out more than John Locke. Locke's doctrines were as revolutionary for the study of humanity and society as Newton's were for a comprehensive view of the physical universe. Locke attacked Descartes's notion that there are ideas innate in the mind from its first creation.

Locke considered the mind at birth to be a *tabula rasa*, a blank tablet or blank slate. He argued that the mind acquired ideas through experience and sensory impressions.

Like the other thinkers we have been considering, Locke asked if it was possible to know anything with certainty. He described the pitfalls that obstructed the paths to knowledge, such as the fallibility of the senses, the weakness of understanding, and the complexity of nature. His major conclusion was that the real natures of things are not knowable

and that one is therefore limited to descriptive, rather than explanatory, accounts of nature. But probable certainty could be acquired through experience, from the senses and reflection of the mind on these sensory perceptions.



Think Twice


How is a descriptive account different from an explanatory account?

So Locke at the end of the 1600s CE echoed Bacon at the beginning. Together, Bacon and Locke became the two great pillars of empirical philosophy. Despite the works of Bacon, Descartes, Newton, and Locke, however, Europeans continued to harbor concerns about the validity of knowledge.




The Enlightenment

By the end of the 1600s CE, Europeans were arriving at a period of stability. Uncertainty and fear were being replaced by optimism and the promise of progress. The Age of Enlightenment was at hand. In its simplest terms, the Enlightenment was an intellectual movement centered in Europe and its colonies during the 1700s CE. But it is difficult to define in


1517 CE
Luther posts his ninety-five theses



1609 CE
Galileo builds telescope
Hudson sails to North America

1651 CE
Hobbes publishes *Leviathan*

1686 CE
Newton publishes three laws of motion


1689 CE
Locke publishes *Two Treatises*

1752 CE
Franklin conducts kite experiment


1789–99 CE
French Revolution


precise terms. Important thinkers of the Enlightenment knew that they were living in times that were changing for the better. They spoke of the “spreading of light” and “illumination.” We might think of the Enlightenment, then, as an effort to apply reason and experience in a quest to improve everything.

Two Ideas About Human Nature

Human institutions also came under increased scrutiny and analysis during the Enlightenment. What form of government was best? How much freedom should individuals exercise? Was there a right to rebel against bad governors? Questions of those sorts were being asked in new ways.

To answer these questions, it was important to know more about the human condition. Human nature was increasingly the focus of scientific-like inquiry. What was the basic nature of humans? Were they naturally good? Naturally bad? Something in between? Answers varied widely depending on place and time, but two basic traditions might be identified and traced back to the British thinkers Thomas Hobbes and John Locke.

Thomas Hobbes did not think highly of human nature, thanks to the turmoil of the

English Civil War. Hobbes believed human beings were weak and unruly; therefore, they needed strong government. In his book *Leviathan* (1651 CE), he said that were people to live without government in a “state of nature,” they would aim to destroy one another. Our only chance of peaceful existence was under a strong government, one capable of imposing its laws and order.

John Locke had a more optimistic view of humanity. He believed that human beings were free and equal and had the right to create and direct the governments that ruled them. For Locke, government was a trust, established by a social contract. Under the terms of this social contract, it was the government’s job to protect people’s **natural rights**. If the government violated the people’s trust, if it failed to protect their natural rights,

Vocabulary

natural rights, n. rights that all people are born with and that cannot be taken away by the government

Find Out the Facts

John Locke named three specific natural rights. What were they?



the people had a right—even a duty—to change the government.

Locke also believed in the power of education. To Locke, education was not simply about memorizing facts but should also include play and imaginative learning. Education was a way to spread the spirit of enlightenment. It was a way to prepare people for a more active and participatory civic life. After all, because people can learn from experience, they can learn to become good citizens.

The Philosophes

The French word *philosophes* translates to English as philosophers. But the *philosophes* were not philosophers in a strict sense. They were a group of thinkers and writers who were critical of the existing social, political, and cultural orders in France. They believed in what we might call “free thought” but lived in a French state that at the time had a good deal of censorship.

The *philosophes* in France included François-Marie Arouet, better known by his pen name



During the Enlightenment, people would exchange ideas in gatherings called salons.

Voltaire. He was especially well known for his criticisms of Christianity and the Catholic Church. He advocated for freedom—of religion, of thought, and of speech.

More moderate but no less enlightened was the baron Charles-Louis de Secondat, better known as Montesquieu. A French judge and historian, he is perhaps best remembered for his contributions to political theory and especially for his *Spirit of the Laws* (1748 CE). There, he outlined his theory of a separation of powers in government. He recommended that government be divided into different branches, each having independent powers and responsibilities.

The Genevan-born Jean-Jacques Rousseau was another important Enlightenment thinker. Rousseau believed that human beings were born free and equal and were naturally good. As people grouped together to form societies and institutions, however, they lost their goodness. They became corrupted by the jealousies and inequalities of human society. He

was particularly critical of the idea of private property, which he considered a fundamental source of inequality. The job of government, as Rousseau saw it, was to keep the peace and protect property rights. In doing so, government served the rich more than the poor.

But there were many others, including the many who contributed to the most significant publication of the French Enlightenment, the *Encyclopédie*. Edited principally by Jean Le Rond d'Alembert and Denis Diderot, the *Encyclopédie*, or *Encyclopedia*, contained tens of thousands of alphabetically arranged entries on an assortment of scientific, technical, and historical topics. It was both a warehouse of ideas and knowledge and a critique of the religious, social, and political orders in prerevolutionary France.

The American Enlightenment

The Americas caused Europeans to reconsider many of their views about the nature of the world. But it was not just the Age of Discovery that impacted Enlightenment thought. England's North American colonies produced their own figures who contributed to the Enlightenment in noteworthy ways. That

Writers' Corner



Choose two Enlightenment philosophers, and write a dialogue between them in which they discuss or debate their ideas.

was certainly the case with America's most famous member of the "Republic of Letters."

Benjamin Franklin is remembered today as a many-sided genius, a man of wit and style, a prominent printer in colonial America, and a key player in the American Revolution and early American republic. But in the 1700s CE, Franklin had more prominence as a scientist.

Then, as now, Franklin was known for his kite experiment. He demonstrated that lightning is not an unknowable, supernatural force but something that can be known by science. It is also something that can be controlled—by the lightning rod, a version of which he designed and promoted. But his work on lightning was only one part of his scientific work. Franklin's lifelong drive for improvement led to many other inventions. These include the Franklin stove, which produced more heat with less fuel, and bifocal eyeglasses.

Not least of Franklin's contributions was his promotion of local, national, and international scientific communities. He was a cofounder of the Library Company of Philadelphia and of the American Philosophical Society, America's most important Enlightenment institution. Both still survive today.



Through his experiments with kites, Benjamin Franklin learned more about the nature of lightning.

The United States of America itself might even be considered a product of the Enlightenment. Many of the founders, in addition to Franklin, are rightly counted among the enlightened, including Thomas Jefferson.

It is hard to read the Declaration of Independence without seeing the

influence of the Enlightenment. In writing the declaration, Jefferson drew on the ideas of John Locke and other Enlightenment figures:

We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their CREATOR with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness; that to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness.

The government established later by the United States Constitution shows that it, too, was a product of the Enlightenment. Montesquieu's ideas relating to the separation of powers in government, for instance, are clearly evident. Separating the executive, legislative, and judicial branches of government was a way to write checks and balances of power into the framework of the new, enlightened government.



Limits and Decline of the Enlightenment

The Enlightenment, of course, also had its limits. Few women were admitted into the Enlightenment circles sketched above, although some were. Most often, if women participated in the Enlightenment, they did so not as producers or active players but anonymously or as consumers. Along with gender inequalities, the Enlightenment was often blind to racial inequalities, although here, too, some of its practitioners pointed the way forward to the end of slavery and to a more racially equal world.

The strands of thought that made the Enlightenment began to unwind in the early 1800s CE. But rather than speaking of the Enlightenment's end, it might be better to think of its decline. Even as the Enlightenment unraveled, its ideas were still present in the ideologies and movements of the 1800s—and are present in the world today as well.

Think Twice

Think about your life, your community, and your society. How have those things been influenced by Enlightenment ideas? Give specific examples.



Chapter 4

Political and Industrial Revolutions



An Age of Upheaval

The 1700s and 1800s launched a wave of change across Europe and the Americas. This era of revolution had dramatic consequences for the wider world. Some changes were political. Revolutionaries in France, guided in part by new ideas about liberty and rights, overthrew a centuries-old feudal system. Inspired to some degree by the American Revolution, they declared themselves citizens of a new republic. In Haiti, enslaved people overthrew French colonial rule and established an independent nation. In Latin America, social movements, wars, and revolutions

Vocabulary

republic, n. a government in which people elect representatives to rule for them

The Big Question

In what ways were the 1700s and 1800s revolutionary?



The storming of the Bastille during the French Revolution



resulting from the ruins of Spanish rule led to new, independent nations. These political and social revolutions were accompanied by another type of revolution—in technology and industry. The Industrial Revolution sparked long-term changes in how humans produced, sold, and bought goods. The result was the birth of modern industrial society and the development of capitalism.

Vocabulary

capitalism, n. an economic system in which resources and businesses are privately owned and prices are not controlled by the government

Origins of the French Revolution

The American War of Independence took place from 1775 to 1783. During this war, American colonists overthrew British rule and created a new republic, the United States of America. As rivals of the British, the French provided some assistance to the American revolutionaries. American and French leaders signed the Treaty of Alliance on February 6, 1778, in which France agreed to support the United States in their war. The French sent some twelve thousand soldiers and thirty-two thousand sailors to assist the Americans.

French leaders' decision to provide formal aid was primarily a result of their desire to see the British defeated. But among some in France, and even within the French **aristocracy**, the ideals of the American Revolution were viewed as a cause worth fighting for. These ideals were based on Enlightenment ideas about government and society: that governments should rule with the consent of the governed and that science, reason, and evidence should guide government policy, not the desires of monarchs and tyrants.

Vocabulary

aristocracy, n. a hereditary ruling class of nobles



French Enlightenment philosopher Jean-Jacques Rousseau believed that the people should have the ultimate power to rule.

Most European monarchies were very powerful. Those who believed that government should be based on rule by the people faced extreme opposition from the ruling elite. Reform could only come if powerful leaders supported those reforms. The American Revolution was thus seen as a great victory and a righteous experiment.

Interest in the ideals of the American Revolution gained traction as a result of the efforts of Marie-Joseph-Paul-Yves-Roch-Gilbert du Motier, better known by his title, the Marquis de Lafayette (1757–1834). Lafayette was a French aristocrat who came to America to fight alongside the revolutionaries. His primary reason for traveling to America was likely to win fame, wealth, and glory as a soldier. But during his time serving in the Continental Army, as part of George Washington's staff and in command of his own forces, Lafayette came to strongly believe in the ideals of the Revolutionary War. When he returned to France in the 1780s, he used his position as a member of the French royal court to press for the abolition, or end, of the slave trade and for toleration of different religious beliefs. He also believed that France should be a constitutional monarchy rather than an

absolute monarchy—that is, that the power of the king or queen should be limited by a written constitution. Lafayette and a core of liberal nobles around him would play a major role in the events that followed.

Another reason for the spread of Enlightenment ideals between the two revolutions is the work of Thomas Paine (1737–1809). Paine, who was born in England, moved to North America right at the beginning of the American Revolution. He made a name for himself writing pamphlets, or small documents expressing ideas to a mass audience, in which he argued strongly for an independent American republic based on Enlightenment ideas. Paine’s pamphlet *Common Sense* was published in 1776 and sold more than five hundred thousand copies.

After the American Revolution, Paine turned his eye to France. When the French Revolution broke out in 1789, Paine became one of its strongest defenders in the English language, publishing two volumes called *Rights of Man* in 1791 and 1792.



Find Out the Facts

Learn more about the response to Thomas Paine’s *Rights of Man* in France, England, and the rest of Europe.



The Overthrow of the Old Order

At the time of the French Revolution, Louis XVI (1754–93) was the king of France. Louis’s family, the House of Bourbon, had ruled France since 1589 CE, although the family’s prominence dated to the 1300s CE or even earlier. Louis was the ruler of what was called the old order—*l’ancien regime* in French. The old order had ruled France with little change since the Middle Ages. The French were not citizens of a French nation. They were subjects of the king. The French population was divided into what was known as three “estates,” levels determined by how much status, wealth, and power one had and where it came from. The French representative body, the Estates-General, drew from each of the estates. The first estate was the clergy—priests and other religious officials. The second estate was the nobility, the wealthy and powerful landowners who were given their ancient rights and privileges by the French king. The third estate consisted of common people, meaning anyone who was not a member of the clergy or the aristocracy.



An illustration showing the three estates, from left to right: clergy, nobility, and common people

Although the majority of France's population made up the third estate, it lacked power and representation compared with the small but powerful first and second estates. Over time, the character of the third estate changed. France's population roughly doubled in size from the 1300s CE, from about twelve million people after the Black Death to about twenty-six million people just before the Revolution. The third estate included not only the millions of farmers who lived in the French countryside but also a growing class of merchants, artisans, bankers, and others who lived in French towns and cities. These people, known as the **bourgeoisie** (meaning

Vocabulary

bourgeoisie, n. the middle class; wealthy townspeople

people of the town), were relatively wealthy and educated, but they were mostly shut out of politics unless they happened to be part of the nobility or clergy. As a result, the bourgeoisie was more likely to be attracted to the ideals of the Enlightenment.

Think Twice



Why might the bourgeoisie have been attracted to the ideals of the Enlightenment?

Even though society and government representation had long been unequal in France, it was not inevitable that a revolution would happen there. Between 1643 and 1715, France had experienced a golden age in terms of its cultural and political power. This period was associated with the long and successful rule of Louis XIV (1638–1715). Louis XIV was called *le Roi Soleil*—the Sun King—because of his glorious reign. He was one of the most successful absolute monarchs in Europe. His armies won major wars, expanded France's domains, and ensured that Louis's grandson became king of Spain in 1714. Louis was also a notable sponsor of arts and culture. He built a large, richly decorated palace at Versailles, ten miles outside of Paris, which was the core of his royal court and those of his successors.



Louis XIV

The son of the Sun King, Louis XV (1710–74), was not as skilled or successful as his father. During his reign, France lost many of its colonies in India and North America during the Seven Years' War (1756–63). This period of warfare was very expensive, and the wars stripped France's ability to profit from their former colonies. Debt and other problems at home are thought to have led Louis XV to recognize that his control of France was slipping away. He is reported to have said, "*Après moi, le déluge*" ("After me, the flood").

Find Out the Facts



Find out more about France's golden age and the reign of Louis XIV.

Louis XVI was the last king of the old order. He inherited a realm that had many problems. Along with the long-term issues related to the three estates and the lack of political reforms, France was troubled by economic problems from the 1770s onward. France had a huge population at the time, and fluctuations in prices could mean the difference between comfort and starvation for millions of ordinary French people. These people also lacked effective political representation. By the mid-1780s, the French government was almost bankrupt thanks to its spending on wars, including its role in the American Revolution. To pay for these wars, Louis XVI and his government had to raise money by taxing his subjects. For centuries, members of the first and second estates had possessed special privileges that made them exempt from taxation. In 1787, Louis XVI's government tried to reform these privileges. It needed to tax the "notables" of the first and second estates to balance finances.

Writers' Corner



Write a text message to deliver to the French notables that explains why the king needs to raise their taxes.



Find Out the Facts

Find out more about the role of women in the French Revolution.



A meeting of the Estates-General on May 5, 1789

The attempt to reform the privileges of the notables was a disaster for the king. The notables refused to accept reforms that would increase their taxes and told the king he would have to call the Estates-General if he wanted his reforms. The Estates-General had not been called since 1614 and would have to include representatives from the third estate. The king agreed to call the Estates-General in 1789. This meant that the people of France would have to elect representatives to serve them, and so the king also allowed a form of press freedom. The result of this was a sudden outburst of democratic activity across France as people prepared pamphlets on issues and ideas they wanted to address and drew up lists of grievances and problems. Then, deputies were elected as representatives—six hundred for the third estate and three hundred each for the first and second estates.

The Estates-General finally met in 1789, and the meeting sparked a chain of events that led to the overthrow of the old order. First, an argument broke out about how votes in the meeting were meant to be counted. If votes were counted by representative, then the third estate had six hundred representatives who could outvote either of the other two orders. If it was by estate, then the first and second estate could outvote the third estate two to one. The argument grew so heated that the third estate, full of deputies championing Enlightenment ideas and bearing the complaints of France's masses, declared itself to be a National Assembly. The National Assembly claimed its legitimacy came from the numbers of people who had voted for its deputies. Its members forced the king and the other two estates to recognize their authority. The other two estates then joined the National Assembly, renamed the National

Let Them Eat Cake

Marie Antoinette (1755–93) was the wife of Louis XVI. Marie Antoinette was not popular in France, and although it was untrue, many people blamed her spending habits for the declining health of the French economy. During the height of the French Revolution, Marie Antoinette is supposed to have caused an outcry by responding to complaints that peasants in France were starving in a callous and out-of-touch manner. When told that many of her subjects were suffering because bread had become expensive, she is supposed to have said, “*Qu’ils mangent de la brioche,*” which is usually translated in English as “Let them eat cake,” although brioche is a type of expensive and luxurious bread rather than a cake. Nevertheless, there is no evidence that Marie Antoinette actually said this.



Think Twice

Why might many French people have believed that Marie Antoinette suggested starving people eat cake (brioche) if they could not afford bread?

Constituent Assembly, and the king allowed the body to carry out its work, although he was secretly planning to send troops to disband it.

While the dispute was ongoing, the people of France—and Paris in particular—had grown restless and angry. Many were poor, hungry, and tired of being ruled by the ineffectual and sometimes brutal old order. When it became known that Louis XVI was going to send his troops to dissolve the National Assembly, the people of Paris rose in revolt. On July 14, 1789, a crowd of angry Parisians marched toward a fortified prison in the city called the Bastille. The Bastille was a powerful symbol to the people of Paris of the authority and brutality of the royal regime. Moreover, although it only housed seven prisoners at the time, it was a store of weapons and ammunition. Parisians decided they could use the weapons to defend themselves and their city against the king’s soldiers if needed. The crowd successfully stormed the prison when the king’s forces could not hold it. The surprising ease with which the power of the people could capture such a symbol of royal authority helped fatally undermine the authority and prestige of the old order. Across France, peasants also rose up against the landowners who had dominated them for centuries.

Think Twice

What major advantage did the crowd gain from storming the Bastille?



The representatives of the third estate who had formed the National Assembly, especially those of the bourgeoisie, were taken by surprise by the popular revolts. They had wanted the reforms that would benefit them and that would put France on a course of developing a government characterized by Enlightenment values. However, the peasant uprisings had begun a revolution that they did not control and could not direct unless they acted fast. The National Assembly issued a sweeping range of reforms very quickly. On August 4, the Assembly proclaimed the end of the old order. On August 26, it approved and issued the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen, which was a plan for a new type of government based on the principles of liberty and equality for all. The seventeen articles of the Declaration established and protected freedom of religion and expression, a free press, the right to a fair trial, and the right to hold property, among other rights and freedoms.

Involved in many of these events was the French hero of the American Revolution, the Marquis de Lafayette. The day after the storming of the Bastille, Lafayette was elected to lead a new armed force, the National Guard, which was intended to

defend the Revolution and the people of Paris. With help from his friend Thomas Jefferson, Lafayette helped write the initial draft of the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen. And Lafayette would continue to be heavily involved as the Revolution developed.

Find Out the Facts



Learn about the similarities between the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen and American documents like the Declaration of Independence and the Bill of Rights.

There was one final obstacle to ending the old order and beginning the new one promised by the Declaration—the king. The king did not want to agree to the radical proposals in the Declaration. The crowds of Paris, however, made sure he did not have a choice. The king and his court lived at the Palace of Versailles, outside of Paris. They lived in luxury compared to the poor and hungry masses of Paris. A crowd, led by women who were angry at the price of food and staple goods, decided to take matters into their own hands and bring the king back to Paris. The crowd marched to Versailles on October 5, 1789, after the king refused to agree to the National Constituent Assembly's actions. Negotiations among the crowd,

the royal court, and the National Guard forced the king and his family back to Paris, where they could be more closely watched and controlled by the Assembly and the people. The old order had been overthrown, but questions remained about what exactly would follow.



King Louis XIV turned what was once a hunting lodge into the elaborate Palace of Versailles. King Louis XVI and his wife, Marie Antoinette, spent most of their time at Versailles.

The Terror

When the king was taken to Paris in late 1789, the Revolution was only beginning. What would follow the fall of the old order was an open question. Any new government faced several huge challenges. What would the new constitution look like? Would the king still be in charge? How would supporters of the Revolution defend it from those who wanted to return things to the way they

had been? And how would the new regime handle the masses of poor, hungry French people who saw the Revolution as a means of improving their lives?

The National Constituent Assembly set about remaking France. They tried to do away with France's ancient feudal systems of government. Guided by Enlightenment values, they reorganized the French administrative system from top to bottom. They created a system of elections for deputies to the Assembly and ensured that other important positions, like judges, were elected rather than appointed. The Assembly aimed to turn France's absolute monarchy into a constitutional system, in which the king would be part of a system of shared and divided powers.

Louis XVI prevented these reforms from being smoothly implemented. He did not want to be limited by a constitution, and he certainly did not want to share power with people he viewed as his subjects. Louis XVI thought that if he could escape Paris, he could put together an army of supporters, both from within France and in foreign countries, and then come back to stamp out the Revolution. He tried to escape France in June 1791, but he was captured and dragged back to Paris.

The French Revolution had an impact on the rest of Europe. Some saw events in France as a great inspiration, while others viewed them as a tragedy. Yet others believed them to be an evil that had to be quashed. Those who despised the Revolution most fiercely were the nobility and other royal families of Europe. Some in the Assembly, too, had ambitions to spread the Revolution beyond France's borders. This resulted in war between France and various other European powers, including Austria.

The wars had a major effect on the Revolution. Heavy fighting, mounting deaths of soldiers and civilians, extensive spending, and the continued deprivation of the French people strengthened the more radical, or more extreme, revolutionaries. The people of France, who now viewed themselves as citizens of a French nation—not just subjects of the French king—wanted to defend their nation and their revolution against foreigners. They also believed that Louis XVI was conspiring with the enemies of France. In 1792, Louis XVI was put under arrest by the citizens of Paris, and the National Assembly declared that France was a republic and no longer a monarchy. From 1792 to 1795, France was governed by a new body, the National Convention.

The radical revolutionaries consisted of a group called the Montagnards (Mountain Men) and their allies, who included poor and starving peasants. One of the leading Montagnards was Maximilien Robespierre (1758–94), who had been a major member of the radical Jacobin Club. The Jacobins argued that France should be a republic based on equality for all. Robespierre and other Jacobins were very willing to encourage and use violence to achieve their aims. In 1793, this desire for violence to push forward the goals of the Revolution was turned on the royal family itself. Louis XVI was discovered to have been organizing with the Revolution's enemies. He was accused of treason, tried, and sentenced to death by the National Convention. Louis XVI and his wife, Marie Antoinette, were both executed by **guillotine** in 1793.

Vocabulary

guillotine, n. a device for beheading people with a sharp blade

Immediately following the king's death, the French position in the European wars took a turn for the worse. France was surrounded by powerful enemies that formed a coalition—Britain, Prussia, and Austria. This First Coalition against France defeated French armies repeatedly. Rebellions

and civil war also continued to break out within France. Fearing for the future of the Revolution, the radicals took control. To pay for the wars and to keep the people of France on their side, they embarked on ambitious and radical economic measures. They taxed the rich heavily to fund poverty relief for the poor; established price controls, forbidding some goods to be sold for more than a government-set maximum; and made education universal. These measures were unpopular with some, but the Montagnards used violence to suppress opposition. A new body, the Committee of Public Safety, was founded in 1793 to organize the war effort and to defeat internal opposition to the Revolution. The Committee's work swiftly turned bloody, especially when Robespierre took over as its leader. The Committee ruled France with extremely harsh measures. People accused of opposing the Revolution were tried and executed. All sorts of people were declared to be enemies of the Revolution—priests, nobles, and even ordinary people were handed over to be judged by their enemies. Many of these trials were not fair. They were not held in public, and defendants were not allowed legal representation. Throughout France, thousands were killed, either in warfare or because they had been accused

of crimes. This period of French history is known as the Reign of Terror.

The end of the Reign of Terror came about because of the success of another emergency measure—the creation of a vast army of more than a million soldiers committed to defending France and defeating its enemies. In 1794, the new army did just that, driving back Austrian armies at the Battle of Fleurus. The victory relieved the threat of invasion and made the Terror seem like a worthless and bloodthirsty effort that had achieved little but destruction. Robespierre lost credibility and was eventually tried and executed.



Robespierre and others being taken to the guillotine



Napoleon's Empire

Even with the end of the Reign of Terror, the war was not over, and France's problems were not solved. Under these circumstances, a young soldier with a reputation as a brilliant commander saw his opportunity to seize power. Napoleon Bonaparte (1769–1821) initially was a strong supporter and defender of the Revolution. He was a member of the Jacobin Club, and in 1795, he led French armies to defeat an uprising by people who wanted to put a new king on France's throne. Napoleon's actions made him a national hero and led him to be greatly trusted by the new government of France, the Directory (a council of five people).

Napoleon was given command of armies fighting the Austrians and their allies, and in 1796 and 1797, he fought a brilliant campaign that forced the Austrians to surrender after Napoleon's armies advanced one hundred miles from the Austrian capital of Vienna. Then, in 1798, he was put in charge of an expedition to Egypt. The French plan was to force the British out of the war by capturing

Egypt and blocking British access to India. It might have been successful, but the British Royal Navy destroyed the French fleet at the Battle of the Nile in 1798, and Napoleon's plans had to be abandoned.

Napoleon's career did not end, however. Instead, Napoleon returned to France, and in 1799, he seized control of the government. Napoleon was supposed to be one of three "consuls" (a term taken from the old Roman Empire), but he assumed full control over France as a dictator. He issued a new constitution that made it clear that as first consul, he was the master of France. Napoleon and his constitution were popular.

Napoleon had positioned himself as a war hero and a problem solver. He did not believe in democracy or the ideals of liberty, fraternity, and equality, but he did believe in remaking the French government and administration along rational Enlightenment grounds. And as long as he kept defeating France's foreign enemies, his power seemed beyond challenge.

In 1804, Napoleon took the official step of making himself France's supreme power. He was declared emperor of France on May 18, 1804. The First French Empire was



Pope Pius VII recognized Napoleon as emperor in a Catholic ceremony at the Notre-Dame cathedral in Paris on December 2, 1804.

created partly so that Napoleon could have an official heir to succeed him, just as kings had. The declaration was also an indication of Napoleon's plans for Europe. Between 1804 and 1814, Napoleon's French Empire was involved in wars against Britain, Prussia, Portugal, Spain (where Napoleon made his brother Joseph king), Sweden, and Russia. Napoleon and his armies won many famous victories against their rivals, although they were defeated at sea by the powerful British Royal Navy. Many European countries were forced to accept terms of surrender

imposed by Napoleon. Napoleon then set about reforming their governments to be favorable to him and his empire.

Napoleon's ambitions went too far in 1812, however, when he attempted to invade Russia. Napoleon's army of six hundred thousand was reduced to just ten thousand active soldiers by the end of the campaign. The troops were victims of the brutal Russian winter, bloody battles with Russian armies, and a critical lack of supplies. To defend themselves, the Russians used a scorched-earth policy—they destroyed farms and other

supplies so that the French invaders could not use them.

Napoleon had been successful partly because it was widely believed he could not be beaten. Russia proved otherwise. Between 1812 and 1814, France was again surrounded by enemies that drove back Napoleon's gains. On April 6, 1814, Napoleon gave up rule as emperor. He went into exile on the island of Elba, off the Italian coast. But his story was not quite over yet. On March 1, 1815, Napoleon made a shocking return to France, where he again took control of the nation and its armies. A combined army of British and Prussian troops fought a great battle at Waterloo, in Belgium, on June 18, 1815. Napoleon was defeated once again, and this time his removal from power was permanent. His brief return to power lasted only one hundred days. He was sent into exile again, much farther from Europe this time, to the island of St. Helena in the South Atlantic. He died there in 1821.



Find Out the Facts

Research what happened at the Battle of Waterloo.



The Haitian Revolution

In 1791, Haiti was controlled by France. The Spanish had originally settled the island, which they called Hispaniola. The Spanish had forced thousands of enslaved people to come from Africa to work alongside the also-enslaved Indigenous population in gold mines. When the French took the western part of the island from the Spanish, renaming it Saint-Domingue, they continued to bring enslaved Africans to work on plantations. By 1791, the population of the island was about 556,000, of which about 500,000 were enslaved Africans. Saint-Domingue society was based on classifying people by color and race. Enslaved people had no rights, and people of mixed heritage, called *affranchis*, were treated as inferior to the ruling European elite. Conflict among enslaved people, *affranchis*, and Europeans simmered for a long time. Whenever possible, enslaved people escaped captivity and became **guerrillas** in the countryside.

Vocabulary

guerrillas, n. people fighting in small groups against a more powerful enemy



Affranchis tried to gain more rights from the European elites and were often refused.

In 1791, following the overthrow of the king, the new French government extended citizenship rights to some *affranchis*. The ruling classes of Saint-Domingue simply ignored this order. This caused conflict between *affranchis* and Europeans. Then, a large number of enslaved people revolted. In 1793, the French government sent an official to try to resolve the situation. The French government also agreed to abolish slavery in 1794.



Enslaved Haitians rebelled against the French by burning plantation buildings in the town of Cap-Français in 1791.

The rebelling enslaved population, however, was not satisfied with simply being made officially free—they wanted independence. They were by far the majority of the population of Saint-Domingue, and they had a reasonable fear that the European population would treat them as second-class

citizens or worse. A brilliant political and military leader named Toussaint L’Ouverture (1743–1803) took leadership of the rebels. Toussaint was the son of an educated enslaved person and had received some education himself. He was clever, energetic, and charismatic. Toussaint led the Haitian rebels to several victories over the French by 1794. The revolutionaries were supported by the British and the Spanish on the eastern half of the island (which today is the Dominican Republic). Toussaint made a deal with the French rather than defeating them. He was made lieutenant-governor of Saint-Domingue, and slavery was abolished in exchange for an end to the rebellion.

Writers’ Corner

Write a pamphlet explaining why you think the rebels should keep fighting, even after the abolition of slavery. How would gaining independence be different from remaining a subject of France?



The agreement with Saint-Domingue was broken by Napoleon Bonaparte, who tried to restore total French control between 1801 and 1803. Toussaint himself was imprisoned by the French and died in 1803. This caused a new wave of uprisings to break out on the island. Again, the British aided Toussaint’s troops in their



Toussaint L'Ouverture

efforts to fight Napoleon. Followers of Toussaint and people from among the *affranchis* waged a new war that gradually defeated the French. They proclaimed themselves the nation of Haiti in 1804. By 1809, French forces were fully defeated on the island, although it took until 1825 for the French to recognize Haiti as an independent country. At that time, French officials set a trap for the Haitian government, requiring the former colony to pay 150 million francs in exchange for its independence—roughly \$21 billion in modern currency.

Independence Movements in Latin America

At the beginning of the 1800s, independence movements swept through the Spanish Empire in the Americas. Between 1808 and 1826, Spain lost control of all its possessions except Cuba and Puerto Rico. Brazil, too, became independent of Portugal in 1822. Between them, the two European powers had ruled all of Latin America since the time of the European conquest in the late 1400s and 1500s CE. In place of the colonies and provinces of the Spanish and Portuguese Empires were new nations.

Several long-term conditions contributed to this outcome. Like other European colonies in the Americas, Latin American populations were a mix of elites of European descent, people of mixed backgrounds who had some access to wealth and power but lacked the status of the European elite, and enslaved Africans and Indigenous peoples. Over time, tensions developed between the American elite and their colonial rulers. In Spanish colonies, people of Spanish ancestry born in America were called

criollos (in French colonies, the same classes were called *creoles*). Criollos in the Spanish Empire believed they should be getting more from their Spanish rulers in terms of status and opportunities to engage in business.



Find Out the Facts

Research the social categories of Latin America during the colonial period.

The main trigger for the breakup of the Spanish Empire, however, was the events in Europe at the beginning of the 1800s. Napoleon went to war with Spain in 1808 and put his brother Joseph Bonaparte (1768–1844) on the throne. This caused some criollos in America to set up their own governmental groups.

After the political crisis in Spain, some criollo leaders believed they had an opportunity to achieve true independence for themselves and their colonies. One of these leaders was Francisco de Miranda (1750–1816), who had fought in both the American and French Revolutions. In 1806, Miranda tried to declare independence in Venezuela, but he was not successful. Miranda's dreams were fulfilled instead by Simón Bolívar (1783–1830), known as El

Libertador (the Liberator) because of his success in leading the revolutions against Spanish rule. Bolívar was from Caracas in the Spanish province of New Granada. He was from a wealthy family and had a good education that equipped him to read widely. He was well versed in the works of Enlightenment thinkers. Bolívar was an energetic and dashing leader who modeled his own exploits on those of Napoleon Bonaparte. In 1810, Bolívar and his allies removed the Spanish governor from Caracas. This was only the beginning of the Liberator's campaigns, however.



Simón Bolívar

At around the same time, another great independence leader was beginning his own campaigns in the southern end of South America. José de San Martín (1778–1850) was born in what is now Argentina, although he fought for twenty years as a soldier in Spanish armies in Europe and Africa. San Martín became a hero in the wars against Napoleon in Spain. Despite his service to Spain, San Martín believed in dedicating himself to the cause of independence in Latin America. He went to Buenos Aires, in what is now Argentina, where a revolutionary government had declared independence. In 1812, San Martín took armies to Peru to fight the Spanish.

Between them, and with the assistance of many others, the armies of San Martín and Bolívar fought and defeated Spanish armies across South America. San Martín helped Argentina, Chile, and Peru achieve independence by 1821. In Chile, the armies of San Martín were assisted by the Chilean independence movement led by Bernardo O'Higgins (1776–1842), who became the ruler of the new nation. Between 1817 and 1819, Bolívar took control of the colony of New Granada, which was renamed Gran Colombia. Venezuela was made independent in 1821.

Gran Colombia, however, did not last long. Although Bolívar dreamed of it as a large, independent state, people in the different regions of Gran Colombia had their own ideas. By 1830, Gran Colombia had fractured into smaller nations: Venezuela, Ecuador, Colombia, and Panama.

Brazil also achieved its independence as a result of Napoleon's wars in Europe, but with an unusual twist. When Portugal was attacked by Napoleon, Portuguese prince Dom João (1767–1826) fled to Brazil and set up the Portuguese government there. While in exile in Brazil, Dom João set up a court and government institutions, such as a mint for producing coins and a military academy, in Rio de Janeiro. When he returned to Portugal, he made Brazil an equal part of the Portuguese kingdom in 1815. In 1816, Dom João became King John VI, and he appointed his son, Dom Pedro (1798–1834), as the new ruler of Brazil. However, members of the Portuguese parliament opposed Brazil's new equal status and tried to strip it away. Dom Pedro made the decision, which was supported by most Brazilians, to declare independence. Brazil became independent on September 7, 1822, with Dom Pedro as its first emperor.



Mexico

Mexico was known as New Spain when the Spanish controlled it. It spanned a huge territory from Central America to northern California. The push for Mexican independence was driven by political developments in Spain. Facing a revolt by political liberals in his country, the king of Spain, Ferdinand VII (1784–1833), restored a liberal constitution in Spain. Conservatives in Mexico panicked. They feared the destruction of the Catholic Church and the seizure of Church lands. They also worried that they would lose the power and influence that they had always had in Mexico. In 1821, Mexican independence leaders took control of Mexico with the aim of ensuring that Catholicism remained Mexico’s official religion and that European-born Mexicans and those born in Mexico would be equal. The new Mexican Empire became independent on August 24, 1821.



Find Out the Facts

Research the revolutionary priest named Hidalgo y Costilla and his contribution to Mexican independence.

The Mexican Empire lasted two years. The first emperor, Agustín de Iturbide (1783–1824), who had led the Mexican independence movement, was overthrown in 1823 by rebels who believed Mexico should be a republic, not an empire. Among these rebels was the military leader Antonio López de Santa Anna (1794–1876). After overthrowing Iturbide—who tried to return to rule Mexico in 1824 but was captured and executed—Mexico adopted a new republican constitution.

The Mexican republic was very unstable. Two main factions competed to control the direction of the country: Centralists, who wanted a strong government and supported the Catholic religion as central to Mexico’s identity, and Federalists, who wanted Mexican states to have the power to rule themselves. In the contest between these factions, charismatic leaders like Santa Anna emerged as a powerful force in Mexican politics. Santa Anna had few strong beliefs, and his political ideas changed when it suited him. Santa Anna became president of Mexico for the first time in 1833. He immediately faced a major crisis when Texas declared its independence from Mexico in 1835.



Antonio López de Santa Anna

Many settlers from the neighboring United States had settled in Texas. They had initially been invited to settle by the Mexican government. However, so many settlers flocked to Texas that in 1830, the Mexican government changed its policies to try to prevent further settlement. Texans who favored independence for Texas revolted. In 1836, Santa Anna personally led a large army into Texas to put down the rebellion. Surprisingly, he was defeated by the smaller Texan forces. Santa Anna was removed from power in Mexico as a result. Not long after, the United States declared war on Mexico. The United States seized many Mexican territories in North America between 1846 and 1848.

Reform Efforts

After the loss to the United States, many Mexicans began to believe that the country needed serious reform. Liberals led a rebellion against Santa Anna and forced him from power. Several reformers, including Benito Juárez, rose to the forefront of Mexican politics. Juárez was an educated, middle-class Zapotec who supported reducing the power of the Church and the wealthy elite. He and other reformers wanted to establish a constitutional democratic republic.

A new constitution was put into place in 1857, creating a representative democratic republic with a strong executive. The Church and other conservatives opposed the constitution, however, and civil war broke out. The president at the time, Ignacio Comonfort, was forced to give up power and go into exile. Juárez became president, but conservatives proceeded to set up their own government in Mexico City. The United States supported Juárez as president, so ultimately the conservative government fell. An attempted intervention on behalf of the conservatives by Napoleon III of France was unsuccessful, and Juárez cemented his power with reelection in 1867 and 1871.

Throughout his terms, major political reforms were implemented. After Juárez's sudden death in 1872, his successor continued to protect the fledgling Mexican democracy and to emphasize economic and social progress.

In 1876, Porfirio Díaz became president of Mexico, beginning a thirty-five-year career of government domination. Díaz kept most of the reforms in place, but he also emphasized economic progress over political liberty. In addition, he reinstated the power of the Church in Mexican affairs. To achieve economic prosperity, Díaz and his administration kept tight control over local government. Workers' wages were kept low. The elite once again dominated in political and economic power. Meanwhile, the poor and middle class became increasingly dissatisfied with the repressive policies of Díaz's government.

The Mexican Revolution

As discontent grew, so did the number of radical groups demanding change. Often, their leaders were jailed for their vocal criticisms. Opposition to Díaz began to mount, and in 1910, Francisco Madero campaigned for the presidency against Díaz. Madero was arrested and jailed,

1756–63 CE

Seven Years' War



1775–83 CE

American Revolution

1789 CE

Storming of the Bastille



1791 CE

Volume I of *Rights of Man* published

1804 CE

Napoleon is declared emperor



1818 CE

The first steamship, *Savannah*, crosses the Atlantic

1821 CE

Venezuela becomes an independent nation



1825 CE

France recognizes independence of Haiti



1876 CE

Porfirio Díaz becomes president of Mexico

making it clear to Díaz's opponents that rebellion was the only way to force Díaz from power. Small bands of armed rebels organized. Pancho Villa led a group in the north. Emiliano Zapata led a group in the south. Revolutionary forces eventually overtook Ciudad Juárez in 1911 and forced Díaz from power. Madero was named president. However, fighting continued, partly due to U.S. opposition to Madero. Victoriano Huerta seized power from Madero, only to be overthrown when revolutionaries, including Villa, Zapata, and Venustiano Carranza, continued armed resistance. Civil war continued until 1917, when Carranza became president and oversaw the rewriting of the constitution, which made the president a dictator. Violence continued until 1920, when Carranza was driven from power and killed. It was not until 1934 that order and constitutional government were restored under the presidency of Lázaro Cárdenas.



Industry and Capital

Political revolutions were just one of the forces transforming the world during the 1700s and 1800s. New developments in technology and the organization of labor

also took place during this period in what is known as the Industrial Revolution. Unlike political revolutions, the Industrial Revolution is difficult to pin down to specific dates and events. In some ways, the name refers to long-term trends that developed over many decades. However, there are some specific changes in technology and the development of scientific knowledge that pushed modernization and industrialization forward during this period.

Changes in Agriculture

By the 1700s, new crops, techniques, and technologies were widely used to feed Europe's population. These improvements increased the food supply. The new crops included staple goods like potatoes and corn from the Americas. As farming became more productive and profitable, the profits also became more **privatized**. In Europe, older ways of organizing and owning land were transformed by the process of **enclosure**. Enclosure consisted of dividing up common fields and meadows into strips of land, separated by hedges and fences, that were owned by a particular landlord.

Vocabulary

privatize, v. put into private ownership

enclosure, n. the act of privatizing land

This increased the power and wealth of landlords and limited that of peasants. This arrangement also meant that agriculture was increasingly dominated by transactions between peasants and landowners and between the buyers and sellers of produce.

New Technology

Improvements in both agriculture and industry were linked to developments in science and technology, such as discovering and isolating particular chemicals and their properties or inventing new devices to save time and labor. Discoveries and inventions were applied to many different areas of economic activity—mining, production of goods, farming, and transport—by people who were focused on profit. The inventions that were most useful to the people who profited from a particular activity were those that improved the efficiency of the activity.

One main way to improve efficiency was by finding new sources of power. In the Middle Ages, work was done using human, animal, or natural power sources (like wind and water). The Industrial Revolution brought new means of generating power. The steam engine, which works by burning coal to heat water and thus generate steam, was a huge leap forward.

Steam engines were in use by the early 1700s and were perfected in the following decades by inventors such as Scottish engineer James Watt (1736–1819). Steam engines allowed larger machines to be powered, which could produce more products than before. Steam engines could also power new methods of transport, from ships to trains.

Industrialization was the process of applying new technologies and processes to make the production of goods more efficient. For example, in England, one of the most important trade and domestic goods for hundreds of years had been wool. However, wool had to be made into cloth to be useful, and that was a time-consuming process before industrialization. In the 1700s, several inventions and innovations were applied to the wool-and-cloth-making industry to make it more efficient and maximize profits. One of these, the spinning jenny, was developed by English inventor James Hargreaves (1721–78) in 1770. The spinning jenny greatly increased the speed of producing cloth from wool, and its design was quickly improved by Sir Richard Arkwright (1732–92). In America, cotton was a profitable but difficult crop to work with because cotton is full of seeds that have to be picked out. An

American inventor, Eli Whitney (1765–1825), created the cotton gin, a machine that did this task more quickly and efficiently than humans could, in 1793.



This illustration shows Eli Whitney and his cotton gin, an invention that transformed the processing of cotton.

The new machines were very big, and so were steam engines. They had to be installed in large buildings. A large engine could power multiple machines, so it made sense to the owners of the machines to concentrate as many machines—and as many workers—as possible in one place. This led to the **factory system**. For most of history, humans had worked in the household to make and repair goods. For the first time, masses of humans were

Vocabulary

factory system, n. the concentration of industry into large, specialized buildings where workers perform discrete tasks on large machines

encouraged to move to towns and cities to work in factories. The migration of people from the countryside to the city is called urbanization.

Urbanization was as much a revolution in how people lived as the invention of the steam engine was in how they worked. Conditions in the cities were often terrible. People were crammed together in unsafe dwellings, and the factories, particularly those powered by coal, belched out toxic fumes. Workers were paid low wages and worked long hours in unsafe conditions, but they had few other options for making a living in the city.

The Rise of Capitalism

Industrialization and its positives and negatives led to a new set of theories about how the world, and economics in particular, worked. The rise of industry went hand in hand with the rise of capitalism. Capitalism is based on the ownership of the means of producing goods and services so that those goods and services can be sold for a profit. How much profit will be made is determined by the law of supply and demand—the relationship between how much of a good producers want to produce

versus how much of that same good consumers want to buy. This relationship determines not only how much is produced but also the price of the good and how much profit is made from its sale.

Scottish Enlightenment philosopher and political economist Adam Smith (1723–90) was one of the first theorists to describe the way free markets work. In his work *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations* (1776), Smith describes how the division of labor into discrete tasks might increase efficiency and the productive capacity of nations.

A nation's economy would run best, Smith argues, if government intervention were limited. He uses the metaphor of an "invisible hand" to describe how self-interested activities lead to economic and social benefits. It is, he writes, "not from the benevolence of the butcher, the brewer, or the baker, that we expect our dinner, but from their regard to their own interest." Reasonable competition should be encouraged and would benefit

all when individuals pursued their own economic interests.

Over time, it was clear that not all benefited from the changes of the 1700s and 1800s, especially when it came to industrialization. This revolutionary period led to a massive transformation of much of the world's political, social, and economic systems. Many of the resulting changes contributed to further revolution and demands for reform in the decades that followed.



Adam Smith

Writers' Corner



Select a topic from this chapter that you have not yet written about, and create a report, play, or free verse poem.

Chapter 5

A World at War



The Global Empires of Britain, France, and Germany

In the late 1800s and early 1900s, nations around the globe were expanding. Sometimes this expansion was peaceful. Nations used trade and diplomacy to acquire resources and expand their power. In many cases, expansion meant war. Countries competed with their rivals to acquire territory and resources. These resources were used to fuel more expansion and more wars. The mightiest nations created global empires. They ruled faraway peoples and places, waged war around the world, and supplied their home populations with goods and luxuries from far afield. These empires created conflicts with less powerful nations as they expanded. They also competed with other empires. This imperial competition eventually led to the most disastrous war in history up to that point.

The Big Question

What roles did nationalism, imperialism, militarism, and industrialism play in World War I?





Soldiers fought from trenches during World War I. The mud-filled trenches were home to millions of soldiers for months at a time.



The French set up a colony in Senegal, on the west coast of Africa, in the mid-1800s.

Nations that build empires are engaged in **imperialism**. Imperialism is the expansion of a country's power to control people and territory outside of its own borders. Imperialist nations like Great Britain viewed Africa and Asia as places to conquer and control in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. The drive for expansion grew along with the Industrial Revolution. Industrial economies used factories and machinery to produce goods. Industrial economies needed to acquire enormous supplies of raw materials that the factories

would turn into finished goods that could be sold for profit. Some of these raw materials were fuels like oil and coal. Others, like iron, were the basic materials used to create finished goods. Imperialist nations like Britain wanted the resources of Africa and Asia to fuel their industrial expansion. They also wanted control of important trade routes.

Political and business leaders in countries like Britain, France, Germany, Japan, and the United States wanted to acquire the raw materials that could be found in Africa and Asia but not in their own countries. These included rubber, timber, cotton, gold, diamonds, and ivory. As well as raw materials, luxury trade goods were a valuable source of income for the nations

Vocabulary

imperialism, n. the practice of expanding a nation's power by conquering and controlling other parts of the world

that controlled their supply. Countries that controlled trade routes could ensure they had buyers for their goods, both at home and in the lands they controlled.

The Industrial Revolution also changed how Europe interacted with other parts of the globe. New inventions like steam engines allowed Europeans to use trains and riverboats to access areas of Africa and Asia located far from the coast. New weapons such as machine guns allowed Europeans to conquer or threaten large populations in Africa and Asia and force them to submit to European authority. The telegraph allowed European nations to communicate with the farthest corners of their empires. Fast and reliable communications were essential for managing trade and keeping control of their colonies.

Imperialism was also driven by competition between rival nations and the rise of nationalism. While patriotism is pride in one's country, **nationalism** is an extreme belief in the superiority of one's own nation and culture. The imperialist nations, such as Britain, France, and Germany, all felt

threatened by the expansion of their rivals. Britain, Germany, and France built their power by invading and conquering less powerful nations. They feared that rival imperial powers would conquer and control them if they did not keep up their own rate of conquest and expansion. Governments in Britain, France, Germany, and elsewhere encouraged nationalism to grow at home. They wanted people to believe in imperialism and to love their country. They believed that nationalism would help them outcompete their rivals.

Nationalism was not just something that grew in European societies. Nationalist movements grew around the world in the nineteenth century. In Japan, nationalism grew among those who wanted Japan to industrialize and build its own empire. Religion also played a role in this era of imperialism. Christian missionaries from Britain, France, Belgium, and the United States traveled throughout Africa and Asia with the aim of converting people to Christianity. They believed that the imperial powers had a duty to spread religion as they expanded around the world. Finally, Europeans and Americans were also motivated to conquer Africans due to their misguided beliefs that they couldn't advance without their help.

Vocabulary

nationalism, n. belief in the superiority of one's nation



British Rule in India

Britain had the largest and richest empire in the world during the 1800s and well into the 1900s. The British Empire was at the height of its power during the reign of Queen Victoria, which lasted sixty-three years, from 1837 to 1901. During Victoria's reign, India, South Africa, Hong Kong, Egypt, and large parts of West and East Africa were added to the British Empire. At its height, one out of every five people on Earth lived under the rule of Queen Victoria, and one-quarter of the world's land was claimed by the British Empire.

The most economically important part of the British Empire was India. Since the 1700s, the British East India Company had controlled large parts of India as well as trade routes used to transport cloth, tea, and spices. As the nineteenth century went on, the British tried to expand their control of India. In 1857, people in India rebelled against the expansion of British power and fought to win independence. The rebellion against British rule was unsuccessful. The British government, worried about future rebellions, responded by taking direct control of India from the East India Company in 1858.



Queen Victoria ruled Great Britain and its empire for sixty-three years, between 1837 and 1901. She was only eighteen when she became queen.

The government the British set up in India was called the Raj. The Raj was responsible for collecting taxes, enforcing laws, and ensuring that British rules about trade and agriculture were followed. The Raj maintained control by taking advantage of class differences in India. Indians of the upper classes were sometimes permitted to access English education. Some were allowed to work in the British government in India, but they were not allowed to hold powerful jobs. By allowing the upper

classes to benefit from British control, the Raj created an incentive for them to support British control.

Britain continued to exploit India's people and resources to fuel the British economy in the 1800s and early 1900s. British traders and business owners founded plantations in India to grow tea, indigo, and cotton. To transport agricultural products, Britain built thirty-five thousand miles of railroad by 1914. The construction of railroads happened at a rapid pace.

British rule wiped out many traditional ways of life. Some villages that produced fabric were put out of business by British factories that made textiles in Britain and sold them to Indians at a low cost. As

a result, Indians were forced to rely on farming to make a living. As railroad lines were built alongside villages, trade and traffic through those villages increased. More trade attracted more people, and towns and cities expanded as a result.

The Raj created considerable wealth for Britain. This wealth was not shared by most Indians. To serve British demands, a lot of Indian farmlands were used to grow crops that could be sold as trade goods, such as cotton and tea. This land was not used to grow crops to feed the Indian population. This led to famine, starvation, and death for many Indians. Eventually, India was forced to import food from other parts of the British Empire.



Some Indians were forced to work as servants for British colonists in India.



Europeans in Africa

Europeans had traded along the coast of Africa since the 1400s CE. This trade included the exchange of enslaved Africans. In the 1800s, explorers began to push deeper into the interior of Africa from the coastline. Some of these explorers were motivated by their religious faith. One Scottish missionary, a doctor named David Livingstone, traveled back and forth across Africa for about thirty years and wrote about his experiences. He strongly opposed the international trade in enslaved Africans. Livingstone thought that by spreading Christianity and finding routes through Africa's interior, he could help end slavery. He hoped his routes would allow trade and commerce to flourish in Africa. This would make enslaving Africans less profitable than trading with them for goods and resources. In 1869, a journalist named Henry Stanley went into Central Africa in search of Livingstone. Westerners had not seen or heard from Livingstone for six years. Two years later, Stanley found Livingstone and allegedly greeted him with the words "Dr. Livingstone, I presume?" Dr. Livingstone did not return to Europe with Stanley. He died in Africa in 1873.

In 1869, the same year Stanley began his search for Livingstone, the Suez Canal opened in Egypt. The Suez Canal was built by Britain and France to provide a vital shipping route between European countries and their colonies in Asia and East Africa. The canal allows ships to sail from the Mediterranean Sea to the Indian Ocean. This route allowed ships from Europe to reach East Africa and Asia without sailing around the African continent. The canal made it cheaper and easier for ships from Britain, France, and elsewhere to reach their colonies in India and Southeast Asia. Because France and Britain paid for its construction, they also controlled the company that operated the Suez Canal.

The people of Egypt did not benefit much from the trade that passed through the canal. This led Egyptian nationalists to resent the way their country was used by Britain and France. The Egyptian military revolted after the government failed to pay them. Between 1881 and 1882, the nationalist revolt overthrew Egypt's government. Britain feared the nationalist government would limit their access to the Suez Canal. In 1882, British forces attacked Egypt and forced the revolutionaries out of power. Britain took direct control of

the canal. Egypt was no longer a fully independent nation. Britain kept a military presence in Egypt until the beginning of World War I.



Think Twice

Why did British and French ownership of the Suez Canal inspire nationalist feelings among Egyptians?

The Ottoman Empire had claimed the nation of Algeria in North Africa until 1830. In that year, France invaded Algeria and began a violent conquest that took decades to complete. The conquest killed hundreds of thousands of Algerians. From 1848, Algeria was considered a part of France. The French encouraged Europeans to move to Algeria. Starting in the late 1800s and early 1900s, many people from France, Spain, and Italy colonized the country. By 1900, Algeria's two largest cities had majority-European populations. French colonists in Algeria were given the same rights as French citizens living in France. Native Algerians did not have these same rights.

In South Africa, the first permanent European settlement was created by the Dutch East India Company in 1682. Soon, the Dutch were joined by British

settlers. The Europeans were mostly farmers and miners. They were a minority in South Africa, sharing the area with the Indigenous Xhosa, Zulu, and Matabele peoples. The Boers—Dutch settlers whose name came from the Dutch word for farmer—regarded them as inferior people that they had the right to control. Diamonds were discovered in South Africa in 1867 and gold in 1886. As a result, tensions between Britain and Dutch settlers increased. South Africa's gold deposits were in an area settled mainly by Boers.

The South African War (1899–1902), also known as the Anglo-Boer War, developed out of the competition for South Africa's resources. Britain's leaders had asked Boer leaders for rights to mine for gold on land claimed by the Boers. Boer leaders refused, and Britain sent troops into South Africa. Violence broke out shortly afterward. At the beginning of the war, the Boers successfully opposed British soldiers. The British responded with harsh new tactics. British soldiers burned the farmland of Boer settlers and put civilians into concentration camps. Black Africans helped both sides, working as both laborers and soldiers. In all, the war killed twenty thousand Boers and Black Africans.



The Berlin Conference

In 1884, Germany hosted the Berlin Conference. The conference was designed to allow imperialist nations to decide how to divide Africa among themselves. Representatives from every country in Europe except Switzerland attended the conference. The United States and the Ottoman Empire also had seats at the table. No African nations were invited to the conference, despite a request from the sultan of Zanzibar. Conference attendees were not interested in what Africans wanted. They only wanted to work out how to avoid warfare with other imperialist powers. The representatives at the conference decided that the way to avoid conflict was to decide which country would get to own which parts of Africa. This led negotiators to divide up, or partition, Africa.



Think Twice

What does the Berlin Conference reveal about the attitudes of the attendees toward the nations of Africa?

Before the Berlin Conference, 80 percent of Africa was controlled by Africans. After the Berlin Conference, European powers began to expand their control

to the interior of the continent. They divided Africa into units that were easy for colonial governments to control. These units often ignored the boundaries and divisions that had been set by the African populations. Communities that shared a common culture were often split and combined into units with communities from different cultures.

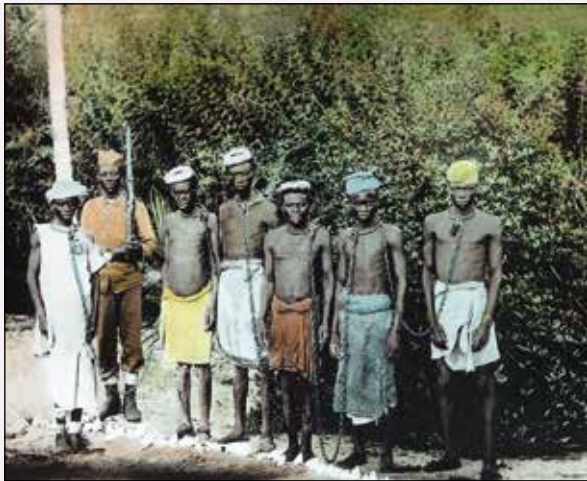
Decisions made at the Berlin Conference led to widespread suffering among the peoples of Africa. Countries like Germany, Italy, and Belgium that had small or nonexistent empires before the conference decided to begin building their own African colonies. King Leopold II of Belgium created the Congo Free State in 1885 and turned it into a personal possession. Leopold was granted the land at the Berlin Conference after he promised to help the people who lived there.

Leopold's rule brutalized the people of the Congo. The Congo Free State's resources of rubber and ivory were extracted by the Congolese under Belgian direction. They were forced to work by a regime of terrible punishments and violence. Belgian soldiers went to villages and took the women hostage. They forced the men to harvest rubber and ivory. The Belgians tortured or killed people that they decided



European nations divided up Africa's territories among themselves at the Berlin Conference. By 1914, most of Africa was in the possession of European powers.

were not productive. People in some villages starved to death because they were forced to extract rubber instead of farming the land. Between 1880 and 1920, at least ten million Congolese people died from executions, famine, and disease.



European colonists subjected Africans to brutal treatment.

Italy Becomes a Nation

The modern nation of Italy was created in the middle of the nineteenth century. Before the late 1700s, the Italian Peninsula was a collection of independent kingdoms and republics. Between 1796 and 1799, the French military leader Napoleon Bonaparte invaded the Italian Peninsula and organized the independent regions into three sections, each under French

rule. After Napoleon's fall from power in 1814, Italy was divided up again. Austria ruled the northern regions of Italy. The rest of the Italian territories were divided among several kingdoms. However, after the period of French rule, the Italian population began to desire a single, unified Italian nation. This nationalist feeling was partly inspired by the ideals of the French Revolution and Napoleon's system of rule.

In 1848, the people in northern Italy attempted to overthrow their Austrian rulers. The revolt was unsuccessful, but the idea of Italian unification was not defeated. Italian nationalists provoked France into attacking Austria in Italy. In 1859, the Austrians were defeated following the French attack, and they lost much of their territory in the northern part of Italy. The Italian regions of Sardinia, Central Italy, Tuscany, Modena, and others banded together to form a new state. They worked to bring other regions into the fold.

In 1860, an Italian nationalist and veteran of the war with Austria named Giuseppe Garibaldi (1807–82) led an army of Italian nationalists called the Thousand on a march to Sicily. Garibaldi and the Thousand aimed to overthrow the

Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, which ruled much of southern Italy. The Thousand conquered Sicily and marched on the city of Naples. The efforts of Garibaldi and other nationalists unified most of Italy. Nationalist leaders elected a new parliament and made Victor Emmanuel II the first king of modern Italy in 1861. Between 1866 and 1870, Rome and Venice were added to the new Italian nation. Rome was made the nation's capital shortly afterward.



Giuseppe Garibaldi was one of the leading figures of Italian unification.



German Unification

Like Italy, the modern nation of Germany was created in the late 1800s. The German Empire was formally established on January 18, 1871. Before unification, Germany was called the German Confederation. It was composed of thirty-nine different states, including Prussia. The states were allies but acted independently. In the 1800s, Germany's population and industrial power grew rapidly. Additionally, the state of Prussia pursued a goal of expansion using its strong military. Unifying the states into one German nation was the goal of the Prussian prime minister, Otto von Bismarck (1815–98), who served under the Prussian king. Bismarck and Prussia achieved German unification in three stages.

In 1864, Prussia and its ally Austria fought Denmark to win control of two disputed territories in northern Germany. Then, in 1866, Prussia fought a war with Austria and won. This allowed Prussia to dissolve the old German Confederation and create a North German Confederation under Prussian leadership with a group of North German states. The last part of Bismarck's

plan was to provoke France into a war. The Franco-Prussian War was fought between France and a coalition of German states led by Prussia. The war began in 1870 with French leaders certain they would win. They were wrong. When the fighting ended in 1871, France gave the territory of Alsace-Lorraine to Germany as part of a peace agreement. The French were upset by their defeat, which made Germany into a vast and powerful European rival.



Otto von Bismarck used the Franco-Prussian War to create a unified German state. Here, he sits with the defeated emperor of France, Napoleon III (on the left).

The Triple Alliance and Triple Entente

After the end of the Franco-Prussian War, Bismarck feared that France would start another war with Germany. To weaken France, Bismarck isolated the nation by

secretly forming the Triple Alliance with Austria-Hungary and Italy in 1882. Italy had recently lost territory in North Africa to France, so its leaders were also eager to isolate France. In the agreement, the three nations pledged to help each other if invaded by France. Bismarck also reached agreements with Russia and Britain. He believed these alliances would leave France without strong allies in Europe.

Bismarck had a long and successful career. He shaped Germany's foreign policy, but he was not the nation's ruler. The German Empire was ruled by an unelected emperor, called the kaiser. In 1888, a new and young emperor named Wilhelm II came to the throne. Germany had social problems that the elderly Bismarck could not fix. Some within Germany wanted more democracy, and the working classes wanted more rights. Wilhelm responded to the crisis by removing Bismarck from power. Bismarck's downfall changed Germany's alliances. Wilhelm was not a skilled diplomat. He did not renew the treaty with Russia, and as a result, France and Russia created a military alliance in 1894. Wilhelm thought he didn't need alliances as long as Germany had a powerful military. Wilhelm made it his policy to expand Germany's colonies and

navy. German expansion made Britain and France uneasy. They feared losing colonies to Germany. Britain felt challenged by Germany's naval expansion. Britain relied on its powerful navy to control its overseas empire.

In 1907, Britain, France, and Russia formed a new pact called the Triple Entente. The major powers in Europe had divided into two sides. The Triple Entente united Britain, France, and Russia, and the Triple Alliance bound together Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy. The Triple Alliance was surrounded to the west and east by the Triple Entente. Combined with France's colonies in North Africa, this caused the Triple Entente to believe that it had the Triple Alliance surrounded. Neither alliance wanted a war. The alliances were meant to prevent a war by balancing the powers against each other.



Think Twice

Did the Triple Alliance and Triple Entente make war more or less likely on the European continent?



The Opening of Japan

In 1639 CE, Japan had closed its borders to most foreigners. The only exceptions were special ships sailing from China and

the Netherlands. They could only visit one port, in the city of Nagasaki. By the middle of the 1800s, political forces within Japan were putting pressure on Japan's rulers to end the policy of isolation. Powers outside of Japan wanted to be let in. The United States was one of them. In 1853, an American naval officer, Commodore Matthew Perry, sailed to Japan to open diplomatic relations with the nation. Perry claimed two of Japan's southern islands for the United States. He then sailed four warships into Tokyo Bay and presented a letter and gifts to the government of Japan. They accepted the letter because the sight of American warships convinced them that Japan's military was too weak to oppose the Americans. The Japanese government made new arrangements that opened Japan's ports to American naval and trading ships.

The United States wanted to force Japan to open its borders for different reasons. The United States had recently annexed California and Hawaii as territories. These annexations gave the country increased access to trade with Asia. Americans wanted ports to refuel and repair their ships after long trips across the Pacific and believed Japan was the ideal place to do so. Americans were also motivated by the idea that they could bring Western

ideas and culture to Asia. American missionaries saw converting the Japanese to Christianity as their duty.



Think Twice

Why did Matthew Perry use warships to carry his letter to the emperor of Japan?

Writers' Corner



Imagine you are on the emperor's staff. Write a letter to your colleagues in the government explaining the emperor's decision to open Japan to trade with the United States.

The opening of Japan to European and American trade motivated Japan to industrialize its economy and modernize its military. In 1867, Emperor Meiji came to the throne. Emperor Meiji believed that Japan's future depended on its ability to match the industrial and military power of Europe and the United States. The modernization of Japan's economy and armed forces allowed Japan to compete with Europe, China, and the United States for territory in the Pacific.



The American naval commander Matthew Perry visited Japan in 1853, opening the nation to trade with the United States.



The Russo-Japanese War

In the late 1800s, Japan began building its empire in Asia. It started with Korea, which was an important ally of China. In 1875, Japan forced Korea to open its borders to Japanese trade. In the following decades, Japan tried to influence the Korean government to adopt a pro-Japan stance. The Chinese tried to resist this. Between 1894 and 1895, Japan and China went to war. Japan's modern military defeated the large Chinese army and forced the Chinese to surrender. China had to give Korea its independence and allow Japanese traders special privileges. Japanese expansion made European powers, especially Russia, nervous. Russia had its own plans for an Asian empire, and it worried that the Japanese would get there first. Russia made a treaty with China promising to defend China's independence. Both Russia and Japan geared up for war.

In 1904, Japan attacked a Russian warship, starting the Russo-Japanese War. The war was a disaster for Russia. The Japanese navy won every battle of the war. The Russians sent a vast fleet from the Baltic to confront the Japanese. The fleet sailed

for seven months. When the Russian fleet arrived, it was smashed by the Japanese fleet. Many expensive Russian ships were lost. Despite Japan's victories, the Japanese could not afford to fight a long war. They were happy to sign a peace treaty with Russia to end the fighting in 1905. The Russian government was equally happy to conclude peace. The defeat had intensified unrest within Russia. The war ended Russia's ambitions in East Asia. The Russo-Japanese War also marked the first time in modern history that an Asian nation defeated a European nation. Japan was now the dominant force in the region.



Opium Wars and Revolt in China

In the 1700s, China had one of the most prosperous empires in the world. It was known for its effective government, arts, and technology. The Qing dynasty had ruled since 1644 CE. By the 1800s, the Qing government was struggling to feed and govern China. China's population grew massively in the Qing period. A lack of food was a serious problem for many Chinese people. The government was not designed to manage such a large population. In an atmosphere of chaos

and hunger, local officials in China's regions seized power for themselves. The central government lacked the power to stop them.

At the same time, China's relationship with Europe was beginning to change. For a long time, China's government had tried to resist engaging with the outside world. In the late 1800s, Britain pressured the Qing dynasty for more access to China's economy. The British used trade in an addictive drug, opium, to force open trade with China. The Portuguese sold opium in China in the 1700s. The British took over the trade toward the end of the century. They grew opium in India and shipped it to China. Britain needed something to sell to the Chinese. The British bought lots of Chinese goods, but the Chinese wanted nothing in return except gold and silver. This meant the British were spending money to trade with China. The opium trade increased dramatically in the 1820s after Britain took control of some Chinese ports by military force. China was made to sign treaties that gave control of some ports to Britain. China also gave Christian missionaries access to the nation's interior. Opium is very addictive. It is dangerous to one's health. Many Chinese resented the way the opium trade had been used

against them. In 1839, Chinese officials destroyed a warehouse full of opium belonging to a British trader. The British reacted with force. This began the First Opium War. British and Chinese forces fought for three years. At the end of the fighting, China was forced to give Britain even more control over the nation. Significantly, China gave possession of Hong Kong Island to Britain. Once in control of Chinese ports, Britain opened them to American, French, German, and Japanese trade ships. Despite the best efforts of the Qing government, China's economy was now open to the rest of the world.

More trouble for the Qing came from within. The Taiping Rebellion was a major revolt against the dynasty. The Taiping Rebellion lasted from 1850 to 1864. The rebels were motivated by hunger and China's economic problems. They were also motivated by religious beliefs. The leader of the rebellion claimed he was the son of God and the brother of Jesus Christ, sent to build a new kingdom on Earth. Followers of the Taiping Rebellion attacked major cities and captured territory throughout China. Eventually, the Qing dynasty ended the Taiping Rebellion with the help of American and British military leaders. Around twenty million people had died in the rebellion.

However, more uprisings swept the country in the following years. The Qing government spent its energy ending these uprisings. This prevented them from opposing European powers and their ambitions. Russia quietly began settling in the north of China. The government had to agree to let Russia take the land it claimed.



Think Twice

Why would the Chinese need the help of American and British military leaders to defeat the Taiping Rebellion?

The British and French exploited the weakness of the Qing government and launched the Second Opium War in 1856. After another four years of fighting, the Qing government was forced to give Britain even more power. Opium became legal. By the 1900s, some within China who disliked the power that foreigners had there had formed a group called the Boxers and rebelled. The Boxers wanted to end the Qing dynasty and remove foreigners from China. They disliked the fact that foreigners could be tried for crimes committed in China by foreign courts, not Chinese courts. The Boxers were also upset by what they considered disrespect of traditional Chinese culture.

They were opposed to the actions of Christian missionaries. The Boxers formed their own armed forces to oppose foreign influence. Boxers were responsible for attacking Christian missionaries, which angered Britain, France, Germany, and the United States.

The Boxer Rebellion began in 1899. Eventually, nineteen thousand foreign troops confronted the Boxers in Beijing. The troops included fighters from the nations of Austria-Hungary, Britain, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Russia, and the United States. Boxer and Qing fighters were overwhelmed by the foreign troops. By the time a peace treaty was signed in 1901, more than one hundred thousand people had died. Only two hundred of the casualties were not Chinese. The Boxer Rebellion further weakened the authority of the Qing government in the eyes of the Chinese people.

Millions of Chinese people who lived overseas began meeting, writing, and talking about more freedom for China. The failure of the Qing dynasty to secure China's independence and prosperity led some to believe that they needed a modern form of government with a constitution. Soon, a movement called the Revolutionary Alliance took shape outside of China. It



The Boxer Rebellion turned some areas of China into rubble.

was led by Sun Yat-sen (1866–1925). Sun had studied in Hawaii and Japan, where he had encouraged Chinese college students living there to support the end of the Qing dynasty. Sun led several unsuccessful revolts in the south of China against the Qing government in the early 1900s.

In 1908, the Qing rulers, Empress Cixi and Emperor Guangxu, died. Control of the country was passed to Emperor Puyi. Emperor Puyi was only three years old. The Revolutionary Alliance continued to attack the Qing government. In 1911, the Alliance was able to force the Qing dynasty to

adopt a constitution. Emperor Puyi abdicated. With more power to choose their government, regional leaders elected Sun as the leader of the new Republic of China.



French Indochina

The present-day Southeast Asian countries of Cambodia, Laos, and Vietnam were once called Indochina. France took control of Indochina between 1858 and 1893 and installed a government friendly to

its interests. Society during the period of French rule in Indochina was dominated by the French and a small class of wealthy people. In Vietnam, land was primarily owned by French landlords. These landlords grew rice for export. Most of the population did not own their own land. In addition, most peasants kept only about 25 percent of the rice they grew. The rest had to be sold to pay for rent and taxes.

Nationalist movements grew in Vietnam in the late 1800s. In 1908, Vietnamese citizens protested taxes in cities across the nation. French officials arrested hundreds of protesters. Some were sentenced to an island in the South Pacific that France turned into a prison colony. Other demonstrators were sentenced to death. French control of Vietnam did not end until 1954.



Think Twice

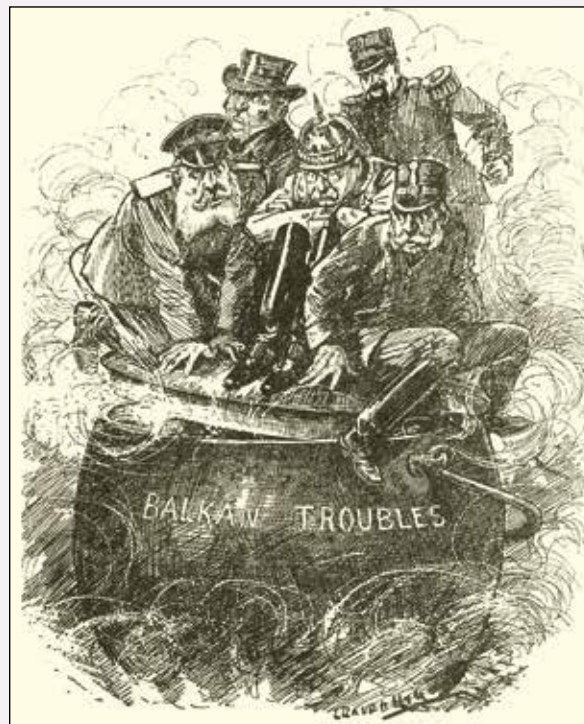
Why would the Vietnamese people be unhappy with a government friendly to the interests of France?



Ottomans on the Decline

At its height, the Ottoman Empire spanned eastern Europe, North Africa, and Southwest Asia. The empire's center was present-day

Turkey. The Ottoman Empire started in the 1300s CE and began to slowly lose territory and power in the late 1700s. In the 1800s, the Ottoman Empire was not as industrialized as its European neighbors. It had a weaker economy than Britain, France, Germany, and Russia. By the second half of the 1800s, it was in debt to European powers, including Britain. By the late 1800s, the Ottomans had defaulted on their loans and were losing territory in eastern Europe to nationalist uprisings that wanted their independence. Britain and other European nations took control of a large portion of the Ottoman financial system in 1881.



Leaders of the Balkan countries formed an alliance after the Balkan Wars to try to contain the troubles embroiling the region.

Ottoman ruler Sultan Abdulhamid II (1842–1918) ruled from 1876 to 1909. The sultan tried to modernize the empire. Abdulhamid was responsible for reorganizing the government and the military. He also tried to expand rail and telegraph lines. In 1908, a group called the Young Turks staged a revolt in the empire. They wanted more reforms and a stronger government with a new constitution. These reforms could not prevent the Ottomans from suffering a string of defeats. They lost territory in North Africa to Italy in 1912. Between 1912 and 1913, an alliance of Serbia, Bulgaria, Montenegro, and Greece removed the Ottomans from the Balkans.



Tensions Ignite: World War I Begins (1914–18)

Tensions in the Balkans, located in southern Europe, led to the outbreak of the First World War. One important issue was whether Serbs living inside Austria-Hungary would become part of the neighboring small Serbian state. Many Serbs wanted this, but Austria-Hungary's rulers did not. They decided to show Austro-Hungarian strength by sending Archduke Franz Ferdinand, the heir to the

throne of Austria-Hungary, to Sarajevo in Bosnia for a military parade. It was intended to be a show of Austrian strength. On June 28, 1914, a Serbian nationalist named Gavrilo Princip shot the archduke and his wife dead. Princip and his accomplices wanted Slavs living in Austria-Hungary to be free and independent of Austro-Hungarian rule.

The rulers of Austria-Hungary were outraged. They also saw an opportunity to attack Serbia. The main Austro-Hungarian ally, Kaiser Wilhelm II of Germany, suggested that he would support any action Austria-Hungary took to punish Serbia. Austria-Hungary issued a strong ultimatum. It demanded that Serbia allow Austro-Hungarian authorities to find and punish those who had plotted the assassination. The ultimatum was not meant to be accepted. On July 28, 1914, Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia.

What happened next set off Europe's chain of alliances. Russia was an ally of Serbia. The Russian ruler, Czar Nicholas II (1868–1918), asked Kaiser Wilhelm II to restrain Austria-Hungary. Wilhelm II refused to do so. To defend Serbia, Russia began to mobilize its military. Germany took this as a threat and declared war on Russia. Russia asked France to honor its alliance and join its war against Germany.

France did not say no. Germany also took this as a threat and declared war on France. Around the world, countries activated their alliances with one another. Britain and Japan joined the war on the side of France and Russia. Italy refused to join the war on the side of Austria-Hungary and Germany. Britain, France, and Russia upgraded their entente into an alliance and became known as the Allied Powers, or Allies. Without Italy as one-third of their Triple Alliance, Germany and Austria-Hungary became known as the Central Powers.



The assassination of the Archduke Franz Ferdinand and his wife triggered World War I.

Think Twice



Why did Austria-Hungary issue an ultimatum that Serbia would not agree to?

The Course of the War

At the time, World War I was the largest and deadliest war ever fought. It was called the Great War. The war lasted four years, from 1914 to 1918. Fighting killed sixteen million soldiers and civilians.

The war involved all sides mobilizing armies that numbered in the millions. The full force of industrial economies was used to supply these massive armies. Science, engineering, and new technologies were used by both sides as they tried to defeat their enemies. The only result was a miserable situation where neither side could gain an advantage.

From the beginning, the Central Powers found themselves at a geographical disadvantage. They were fighting a two-front war, battling Russia to the east and France and Britain to the west. Germany tried to take the initiative

in the fighting early. It believed that by moving fast, it could defeat its rivals on one flank and then concentrate on the other. The Russian army was massive but slow. The Germans thought they should force France to surrender quickly, like they had in 1871. To move quickly, Germany invaded Belgium when the war began. It sent armies south from Belgium toward the French capital of Paris. They got within thirty miles of Paris before French and

British troops stopped them at the Marne River. Six days of brutal fighting at the First Battle of the Marne halted the German march. Another problem for Germany was that the Russians had mobilized more quickly than expected. The Germans had to take soldiers from their western attack to add to their defense in the east.

The First Battle of the Marne marked the beginning of trench warfare. In trench warfare, soldiers dig deep, long pits from



The Central Powers were surrounded by the Allies in Europe. Despite this, neither side could make a breakthrough in the fighting.

which to fight. The flat terrain of northern France offered soldiers little coverage from enemy bullets, so they found protection in these trenches as the two sides fired upon each other. Peeking out of the hole meant risking death. Eventually, the trenches would extend for five hundred miles along the Western Front. Although the Germans were defeated at the First Battle of the Marne, they didn't retreat far, and the battle lines remained mostly unchanged throughout the war.



Find Out the Facts

Find some examples of poetry and other literature written by soldiers on the Western Front that describe conditions for soldiers.

Writers' Corner



Imagine you are a journalist covering trench warfare at the First Battle of the Marne. Use your research to write a short news report about conditions for soldiers.

The Eastern Front involved the fight between the Russian Empire, Serbia, and Romania on one side and Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria, the Ottoman Empire, and Germany on the other side. Early in the war, Russia invaded Germany and suffered a disastrous defeat at the Battle of Tannenberg. Germany then joined Austria-Hungary in

its battle with Russia. Initially, Austria-Hungary was unable to hold off Russian advances. German soldiers arrived in the east and halted Russia's advance. Together, the Central Powers were able to push Russia back across its borders. Like on the Western Front, neither side was able to drive the other out of the war.

World War I was also fought at sea. When the fighting began, Britain had the largest navy in the world. Many German ships were situated off the coast of China, and they used their position to disrupt British trade routes. Britain responded with a blockade of Germany. This meant their ships stopped trade and military supplies from reaching Germany. In turn, Germany declared the waters around Britain to be a war zone. Germany pledged to sink any ship that entered British waters. The Germans would not issue a warning. This policy included passenger and trade ships from countries that were not fighting in the war. Germany used submarines to enforce this threat. German submarines followed through on their threat in September 1915. A submarine fired torpedoes to sink the American passenger ship *Lusitania*, killing more than 1,200 people, including around 120 Americans. Before 1915, the United States had not

gotten involved in the war. The sinking of the *Lusitania* helped turn public opinion in the United States against the Germans. The United States entered the war in 1917, fighting on the side of the Allies.



Think Twice

What advantage do submarines have over traditional ships in war?

The Ottoman Empire did not rush to join in World War I. In October 1914, it joined the Central Powers. The Ottomans controlled the city of Gallipoli, a significant port on the Dardanelles in Turkey. Because this body of water connects the Mediterranean Sea with the Black Sea, the Ottomans were able to cut off Allied supply lines to Russia. The Allies responded in early 1915 by launching a naval attack on Gallipoli, followed by a land assault. The yearlong campaign failed, claiming the lives of forty-six thousand Allied troops and sixty-five thousand Ottoman troops. Many soldiers from Australia, New Zealand, France, and India fought in this campaign.



Find Out the Facts

Find out how soldiers from around the French and British Empires contributed to the Allied Powers' war effort.



The War Grinds On

The years 1915 and 1916 involved many deaths without either side gaining much territory. Both the Central Powers and the Allies attacked each other in Europe and in their colonies around the world. Britain fought the Ottoman Empire in Southwest Asia, hoping to capture the city of Baghdad in Iraq. Italy agreed to join the Allies in 1915, fighting Austrian troops at their shared border. Italians and Austrians fought twelve battles in the Austrian mountain village of Isonzo. Each side hoped to cross the border and invade the other country. After two years of fighting, the Italians were defeated. The border did not change.

In 1916, Germany and Allied troops from France and Britain fought at the Battle of the Somme in France. This was one of the deadliest battles of the war. The first day of the battle cost the British army alone the lives of more than nineteen thousand soldiers. Almost forty thousand more were wounded. For four months, the armies devastated one another, with neither side able to advance. Observers thought that the Somme showed that

war had become a pointless exercise in killing. British generals were criticized at home for allowing the fighting to go on so long, with so many deaths and injuries to soldiers and no benefit.

World War I was the first major war that used modern weaponry and technology, which was a major factor in the war's high death toll. Machine guns could shoot hundreds of bullets in seconds. Artillery could send huge explosive shells over long distances. These weapons were deadlier than any that had been used in war before. Neither side could gain territory because a line of soldiers that rose from the trenches to charge the enemy would easily be killed or wounded by the machine guns and artillery. Soldiers called the space between the trenches "no-man's land" because nobody could survive for long between the lines.

Find Out the Facts

Research the inventions that came from World War I.



Both sides experimented with new technology to try to make a breakthrough. In 1915, the Germans became the first to use poison gas as a weapon. Gas was used by both sides in the war. It was a terrifying



Tanks such as this one were used for the first time in World War I.

weapon, and it could kill or cause horrible injuries. It was also not very effective at winning battles. It was too easy for wind to blow the gas in the wrong direction. Soldiers began to carry gas masks to protect themselves. In 1925, the use of poison gas as a weapon was banned. In 1916, the British used a new armored vehicle called a tank. The tanks were huge, and slow, and they kept breaking down. Technology did not win the war.

Political and social breakdowns produced the results that battles could not. The war began to change in 1917. That year, the Russian armed forces revolted and helped bring down the czar's government. A second revolution in Russia occurred eight months later, and after that, Russia left the war.

Russia's withdrawal from the war allowed the Germans to move troops to the Western Front. The Western Front was reinforced, however, by the arrival of American troops.

In early April 1917, President Woodrow Wilson asked Congress to make a formal declaration of war. He said this “war to end all wars” would help “make the world safe for democracy.” American troops began arriving in France in large numbers in the summer of 1917. In early 1918, Germany launched a series of offensives that were somewhat successful, but they were unable to break the Allies. In July 1918, the Germans began their final attack of the war in the Second Battle of the Marne. British, Canadian, and Australian troops surprised the Germans by attacking them, forcing a significant retreat. Germany’s allies, Austria-Hungary and Bulgaria, were also collapsing. Within Germany, the British blockade and years of war had caused social unrest. German sailors at the port of Kiel revolted in November 1918. The revolt spread to Berlin. Wilhelm II’s government collapsed, and he was forced to abdicate. Germany negotiated an end to the war.

On November 11, 1918, the war officially ended with an armistice agreement. Signed by Germany, France, Britain, and the United States, it required Germany to immediately leave France and Belgium. Germany also had to return to France the territory of Alsace-Lorraine, which it had won in the Franco-Prussian War.



The Russian Revolution

The Russian revolutions of 1917 overthrew the czars of the Romanov dynasty and eventually brought the communist Bolsheviks to power. The revolution was the result of decades of crisis and poor government. Russia’s loss in the Russo-Japanese War in 1905 was surprising and humiliating to many Russians. The czar had hoped a quick victory in the war would boost his popularity. Instead, the defeat weakened the czar’s authority. A revolution in 1905, sparked by political and social unrest, motivated Czar Nicholas II to introduce some changes. He put into place a constitution and created a group of elected representatives called the Duma. The czar did not allow the Duma much power. He still controlled the government.

At the beginning of World War I, Russia was not as industrialized as other powerful nations in Europe. The poorly equipped Russian military could not compete with the stronger German army. Russia’s army was also badly led. Russia suffered more military deaths than any other nation. The war also had an impact on Russian civilians,

who saw the price of food and other goods increase. Many people struggled to feed themselves. When the war started to go badly, Czar Nicholas II decided to take personal control of the army. He went to the front and gave the responsibility of running the government to his wife, Czarina Alexandra. She lost the confidence of Russian nobles by firing elected officials and relying on the advice of an eccentric priest named Rasputin. The nobles feared Rasputin's influence over the Russian government and murdered him in 1916.

A few months later, in March 1917, the Russian population revolted against the czar. The revolution began because of strikes in the city of Petrograd, which is now St. Petersburg, and a march led by women on International Women's Day. Russians were hungry and tired of the war. More workers went on strike. Soldiers in the city refused to oppose the striking workers and even joined them. Some bands of workers and soldiers formed self-governing groups called soviets. The soviet in Petrograd took over the city. When the government tried to send troops to take the city back, they were stopped by striking railroad workers. Czar Nicholas II was removed, and a new provisional government was arranged to rule Russia.

Many members of the Russian Provisional Government were middle-class business owners. The government's new leader, Aleksandr Kerensky (1881–1970), wrote new laws, including ones that protected freedom of speech and equal rights. The Provisional Government made one big mistake. They decided to continue fighting in World War I.

The political revolution had not changed the lives of most Russians. Many were starving. Millions were still fighting in a war that few believed they could win. Riots of hungry workers broke out in cities, while people in the countryside resorted to stealing food from farmers. The discontent sparked the Bolshevik Revolution on November 6 and 7, 1917. The Bolsheviks were a revolutionary communist party. The Bolshevik leader, Vladimir Lenin (1870–1924), believed that a revolutionary party had to overthrow the czar's regime. Once they seized power, they could use that power to build a communist society. In a communist society, private property is abolished, and all people work together to meet society's needs. The Bolsheviks had been trying to convince the Russian people to hold a revolution for years. By late 1917, they were very popular among starving and angry Russians in cities. The Bolshevik rallying cry was the slogan "Land,

bread, and peace.” They pledged to get out of the war quickly. The Bolsheviks took their chance to overthrow the Provisional Government when it came. They occupied government buildings and refused to leave until the leaders resigned.

Lenin and the Bolsheviks turned the Russian Empire into the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR). The USSR became the world’s first communist nation. Lenin’s government made a peace deal with Germany in 1918, called the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk.



Find Out the Facts

Find out how the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk (1918) affected the map of Europe.



Think Twice

Why might communist ideas have appealed to starving Russians?

The Bolsheviks’ control over the USSR was not complete, however. Just months after they came to power, a group that supported the czar and opposed communism attacked and challenged them. This faction was called the Whites. They were supported by Russia’s former allies, such as Britain. The Bolsheviks organized their own army, the Red Army, to defend their revolution. The Russian Civil War (1918–20) resulted in a

victory for the Red Army and the Bolsheviks. Czar Nicholas, his wife, and their five children were executed by the Bolsheviks in July 1918. Nearly ten million more people would die in the Russian Civil War. Most of the war’s victims were civilians.



Nicholas II was the last czar of Russia.



The Treaty of Versailles

In January 1919, Allied world leaders met at the Paris Peace Conference in the town of Versailles, just outside of Paris, to discuss how to deal with the defeated Germany. The conference was attended by leaders from

the twenty-two nations that fought with the Allies in World War I. Four leaders dominated the conference. These leaders were U.S. president Woodrow Wilson, British prime minister David Lloyd George, French prime minister Georges Clemenceau, and Italian prime minister Vittorio Orlando.

The negotiations were primarily between the Big Four. Germany had no say in the terms of the armistice or the end to the fighting. Britain and France wanted Germany to pay **reparations** as compensation for suffering caused by the war. The French alone lost three hundred thousand civilians in the war, plus another 1.4 million soldiers. The war devastated the French economy. A lot of the fighting occurred in France's most important agricultural and industrial region. The European Allies also hoped to see Germany weakened so that it could not invade them again.

Vocabulary

reparations, n. money paid to compensate another person or country for harm caused to them

Woodrow Wilson had his own goals, which he explained in his Fourteen Points. The Fourteen Points were a set of ideas that Wilson wanted the nations of the world to adopt. Wilson's goal was to make the

world more stable, more democratic, and more open to trade. One of Wilson's Fourteen Points was the idea that nations had a right to rule themselves. This was called self-determination. As a result of this idea, the Versailles Treaty created new nations like Czechoslovakia. However, Wilson did not believe Africans or Asians should have the right to rule themselves. He felt self-determination should apply only to Europeans. Wilson also proposed the formation of a League of Nations. The League would be an international group. Members of the League could discuss their problems and negotiate differences without fighting wars.

Writers' Corner

Write a list of fourteen items that would make the world a more peaceful place today. Explain three of your items.

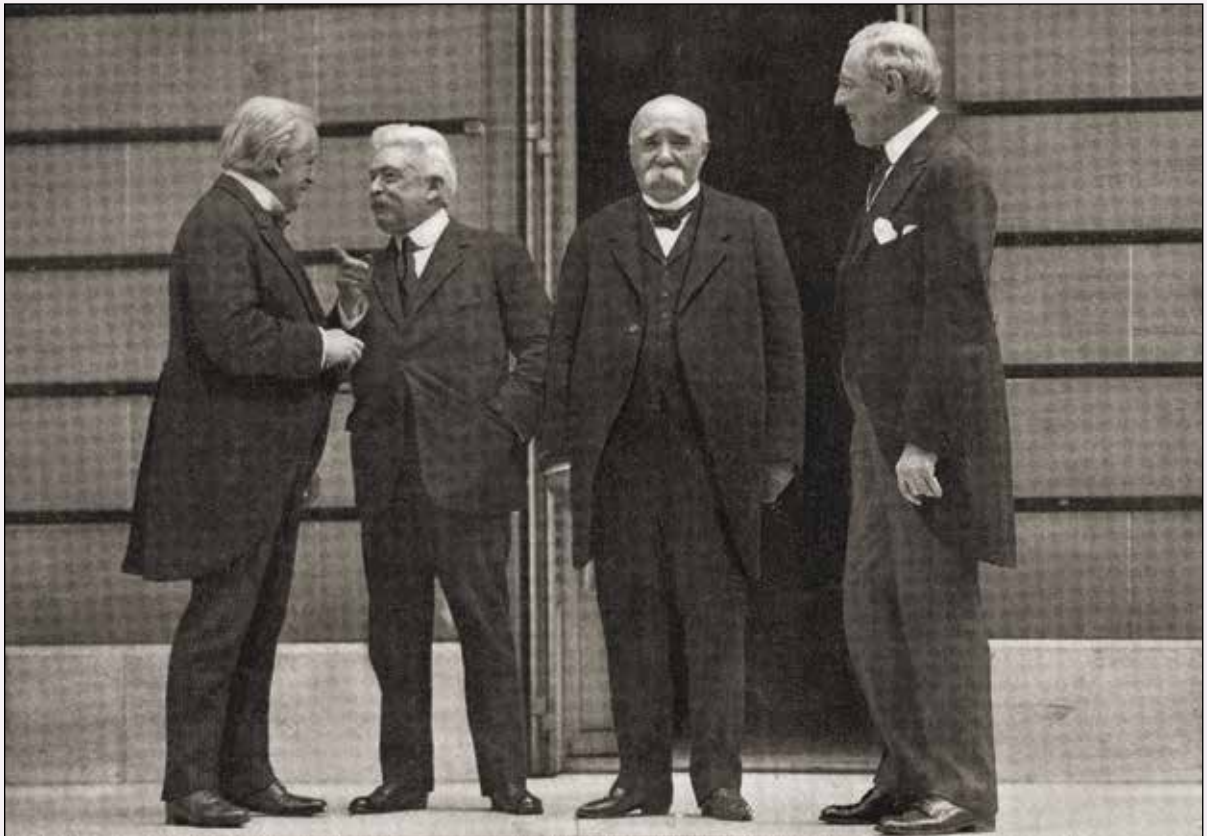


Wilson wanted the peace agreement to ensure that the world would move forward. The other allies wanted to punish Germany. The Paris Peace Conference resulted in the Treaty of Versailles, an agreement between the Allied Powers and Germany that officially ended World War I. The treaty weakened and punished Germany. It was forced to give up its colonies in Asia and Africa. It also lost territory in Europe. Germany gave Alsace-Lorraine back to France. This weakened the German economy.

Some provisions directly targeted Germany's military. Germany could arm a maximum of one hundred thousand soldiers, and troops could not be stationed near the border with France. Germany was also forced to accept the blame for starting the war. The amount owed in reparations was so huge that Germany could not afford to pay it. Germany had no choice but to accept the agreement. On June 28, 1919, Germany and the Allied Powers signed the Treaty of Versailles. Woodrow Wilson returned to the United States and asked the Senate to ratify it. Despite Wilson's strong

advocacy, the Senate voted against it. The League of Nations was set up by the Treaty of Versailles, but the United States did not join it.

The provisions of the Treaty of Versailles ruined Germany's economy. For a short period of time, the treaty succeeded in weakening Germany. The crisis in German society caused by the end of the war and the treaty would later be a major cause of the rise of the Nazis and the beginning of World War II. Loss of territory, wealth, and pride created desperation and resentment in many Germans.



The leaders of Britain, France, and the United States met at the Paris Peace Conference to discuss the terms that would formally end World War I.

Chapter 6

World War II and the Postwar World

The Big Question

Why was World War II the deadliest conflict in history?



A World Consumed by War

World War II (1939–45) was the largest and most destructive conflict in history. Fifty million people died during the war; millions of others were wounded or driven from their homes. Two opposing factions battled around the world for global supremacy.

Great Britain and France led the Allied Powers until 1941, when they were joined by the Soviet Union and the United States. The Axis Powers were led by Germany, Italy, and Japan. The stakes of World War II were huge. The very existence of free, tolerant, and democratic nations was threatened, as were the lives of millions.



Nazi soldiers march in formation at a rally in Nuremberg, Germany, in 1937.



Crisis in Weimar

The origins of World War II are rooted in the ending of World War I. The emperor of Germany, Kaiser Wilhelm II, was forced to step down as the German leader on November 9, 1918. In place of the kaiser's government, the people of Germany proclaimed a new, democratic republic. The Weimar Republic, named after the city where the new republic was created, suffered from instability. Life there was difficult for most people. The population faced unemployment and malnutrition. The German economy had been battered by World War I, and the new republic still owed 132 billion marks to the Allies for damages. Germany's inability to pay caused a political and economic crisis. In 1922, France sent soldiers into Germany's main industrial area to seize manufacturing equipment, which caused Germany's economy to fail.

As well as hunger and joblessness, one aspect of the crisis that shocked Germans was hyperinflation. The German government was forced to print more money to cover its expenses. This sent the value of Germany's money into free fall.

By November 20, 1923, one U.S. dollar was worth 4,200,000,000,000 German marks. German money had become virtually worthless.



As the value of the mark crashed, Germany was forced to print banknotes worth thousands of marks. The notes were nearly worthless. This note is for one hundred thousand marks.

Rise of Nazism

Economic and political crises prompted people to take extreme political options. The Communist Party became popular in Germany. So did parties of the racist and nationalist far right. One far-right leader was Adolf Hitler (1889–1945). Hitler was an Austrian who moved to Germany and fought for the German army during World War I. Like a lot of former soldiers, he was angry at the Weimar government. He felt that Germany had not lost the war but had been betrayed from within. Hitler was deeply racist. He believed that all of Germany's problems could be blamed

on Jewish people and others who he thought were "impure." He thought that true Germans, whom he called Aryans, were a "master race" that was destined to dominate the world.

Hitler joined the German Worker's Party in 1919. This was a right-wing party that wanted to win workers away from socialism to German nationalism. By 1920, he was in charge of the party's messaging, and he had the name changed to the National Socialist German Worker's Party. They became known as the Nazis, and although they used the word *socialist* in their name, the Nazis saw real socialists as their enemies. By 1921, Hitler was the leader of the Nazis. In 1923, when political and economic chaos gripped Germany, Hitler and other Nazis tried to seize control of the government of Bavaria, a large German state. Hitler was arrested, tried, and thrown in jail for nine months.

While in jail, Hitler wrote a book called *Mein Kampf*, or *My Struggle*. In the book, Hitler described his ideas and his vision of history and society. He described his hatred of Jewish people and outlined the destiny of the "master race." He blamed Germany's defeat and subsequent chaos on a Jewish conspiracy. He also spelled out his

ideas for the future. Germany had to rearm and build its strength again. Hitler wanted to reunite Germany with territories it had lost in the past and with other German-speaking nations, like his homeland, Austria. He also wanted Germany to expand eastward. He called for *Lebensraum*, meaning living space in German. Hitler's *Lebensraum* was a country for "pure" Germans. He wanted to remove multiple groups from Germany, including Jews, Roma, people with disabilities, communists, and anyone else he could call an enemy of the state. *Lebensraum* would then be secured by conquest of the countries to Germany's east, particularly Russia. Hitler blamed the rise of communism on a Jewish conspiracy.

Hitler hated communists because they were socialists who believed that worldwide solidarity, or unity, with the working classes was the key to achieving their goal of ending capitalism. The ideology of fascism, which Hitler followed, promotes the supremacy of the nation-state and its primary ethnic group above all else. The socialist goal of working-class solidarity was in opposition to Hitler's goal of ethnic and national purity.

Like all fascists, Hitler also promoted violence, territorial expansion, hatred of democracy, and belief in the rule of one



The Nazis used propaganda to create an image of Hitler as strong and decisive. The text means "One People, One Empire, One Leader!"

strong man. Many people shared Hitler's extreme beliefs. Others were convinced that Hitler and the Nazis were strong and would restore Germany's strength. Hitler's charisma, or personal appeal, made him a popular speaker. He was a master of mesmerizing crowds with his rants. Nazi propagandists worked hard to create an image of Hitler as a legendary hero. The Nazis held rallies, public meetings, and marches. They also used street violence to beat up their opponents and intimidate rivals, such as socialists and communists.

Hitler was elected to the parliament of the Weimar Republic, the Reichstag, in 1932.

The Weimar government had stabilized slightly during the 1920s. Then the U.S. stock market crashed in October 1929. The resulting global economic depression hit Germany hard. The United States had loaned Germany money to help it pay off its war debts. When the Great Depression hit, the U.S. government demanded that the loans be repaid immediately. The already strained German economy crumbled. Banks failed and unemployment rose.



Find Out the Facts

What was the agreement between the United States and Germany to help pay Germany's war debt?

The fear and chaos sweeping the nation gave Hitler and the Nazi Party the perfect opportunity to attract supporters. Their popularity grew rapidly. Powerful German conservatives believed they could use Hitler and the Nazis to crush communists and socialists in Germany. In 1933, Hitler was named chancellor of the Weimar Republic. He was supposed to share power with the Reichstag. That same year, the Reichstag

building burned down. Hitler's government claimed that the fire had been deliberately set by communists and declared a state of emergency. Hitler immediately put the constitution of the Weimar Republic on hold, which stripped citizens of their legal rights. With no constitution, Hitler was also able to make laws without the permission of the Reichstag.

The era of the Weimar Republic was over. Hitler and the Nazis were the new government of Germany. They proclaimed Germany to be the Third Reich, or the Third Empire. They took direct control of education, the economy, and the legal system. They also outlawed all other political parties. Hitler proclaimed himself *Führer* (leader) of Germany in 1934. He became the head of the government and the military. Government officials and soldiers had to sign an oath of obedience to Hitler, who used his brutal police force, the Gestapo, to impose complete control.

Hitler was an effective propagandist. Propaganda is information that is selected to influence public opinion. It's not necessarily factual. Hitler used propaganda to promote the idea of a united Germany. He pushed his view that a united Germany

meant a nation where everyone was the same: tall, strong, fair-haired, and blue-eyed. Nazi propaganda took the form of posters, movies, broadcast speeches, and parades. People were encouraged to join in activities in which they would attack people or ideas. Crowds gathered to raid libraries and centers of learning; then they would burn books they didn't like.

Hitler's government immediately began to attack the people they viewed as enemies, especially communists and socialists.

Jewish people were the most targeted.

Hitler's government used a mixture of laws and direct intimidation and violence to attack Jewish people and strip them of their rights and property. In 1935, the Nuremberg Laws defined a Jew as anyone having grandparents who practiced the Jewish faith. Other laws prohibited Jewish people from owning property or having jobs in the military or government.

On the night of November 9–10, 1938, German mobs attacked Jewish neighborhoods and businesses. They murdered ninety-one people. The night is known as *Kristallnacht*, which means night of broken glass in German. Approximately thirty thousand Jewish people were arrested that night. They were taken to

concentration camps, which were special prison camps where people had no rights and were forced to work. During World War II, some of these camps were used to murder millions of people.

Find Out the Facts



What were Hitler's ideas about the role young people would play in Nazi society? What was the Hitler Youth?



Italy

Unlike Germany, Italy had been on the winning side in World War I. Despite this, Italy also descended into an authoritarian, militaristic government. Benito Mussolini (1853–1945) ruled Italy from 1922 until 1943. His initial title was prime minister. In 1925, he became a dictator. A dictator rules by decree and declares what the law is. This concept originated in ancient Rome, but the Romans expected their dictators to step down eventually.

Mussolini got involved in politics in the 1910s. At first, he was a socialist and opposed war. But during World War I Mussolini fought as a soldier for Italy,

and he became a nationalist. After the war, his nationalism increased, and he rejected the socialist hatred of capitalism. In the early 1920s, he helped establish the political ideology of Fascism, a hypernationalistic movement that supported an authoritarian style of government led by a dictator and preached the national unity of all Italians, both workers and employers. The Fascists believed that a dictator should have absolute power because democracy only caused chaos. Opposition or different opinions weakened the nation and therefore had to be crushed.

Like the Nazis, the Fascists used violence and intimidation to get power. Italian politics was chaotic and unstable. Conservatives liked the Fascists because they attacked communists, socialists, and striking workers. Mussolini was elected to the Italian Parliament in 1921 as a member of the National Fascist Party. In 1922, thirty thousand members of the National Fascist Party marched to the capital city of Rome and demanded that the Italian prime minister resign. He did, and Mussolini became prime minister days later.



Images of Mussolini were carefully controlled. He wanted to appear as a strong military leader.

Find Out the Facts



How did the Italian political system work, and why did it produce unstable governments?

In 1925, Mussolini declared that the prime minister had complete control of the government. He did not have to share power with parliament. Italy was officially a dictatorship.

Mussolini did not allow his citizens to publicly disagree with him. Armed gangs of Fascists, called Blackshirts after the black clothes they wore, maintained order.

Think Twice



What did Benito Mussolini do to maintain order after World War I?

This police force used violence and threats to make sure that people obeyed Mussolini's rules.

Mussolini's government shared several Nazi ideals, such as hatred of democracy, belief in strong nationalism, and a love of violence. It used propaganda and education to promote a strong, traditional Italian society. Schools promoted Mussolini's idea that Italian men were naturally warriors and Italian women were naturally mothers. Mussolini also took control over small aspects of daily life. For example, people were not allowed to shake hands in public. Signs reading "Mussolini is always right" were common in schools and painted as murals on the sides of public buildings.

Mussolini wanted to use Italy's military to build an empire. In 1935, Italy invaded the African nation of Ethiopia. The League of Nations condemned the invasion. It imposed sanctions on Italy, which meant that member nations were not supposed to trade with Italy. The sanctions were ineffective, however, because not all nations participated.

In 1939, Mussolini and Hitler signed the Pact of Steel. In this pact, Italy and Germany agreed to support one another if one of them went to war.



The Soviet Union

The leader of the Soviet Union before and during World War II was Josef Stalin (1878–1953). Stalin came to power after the death of Lenin. Lenin had led the Soviet Union since the Russian Revolution. An attempted assassination in August 1918 ruined his health; by 1922, he was seriously ill. The other Soviet leaders knew they needed a new ruler. Stalin took power when Lenin died in 1924.

Stalin was a ruthless leader who wanted to transform the Soviet Union by any means necessary. He was a radical socialist who wanted to completely end capitalism in his country. At the time, the Soviet Union was a poor country. Stalin wanted the Soviet Union to be an industrial power, but most people lived on farms. To achieve his goal, he created a series of five-year plans meant to improve the Soviet economy. First, Stalin ordered farms to be collectivized. A collective farm is a big farm run by the government, where many people would work together. Under the plan, twenty-five million households were forced to combine their farms. Farmers who refused to give up their farms were

shot or sent to labor camps in remote areas. In Ukraine, the **collectivization** policy led to a famine. Millions of people starved to death.

Vocabulary

collectivization, n. the act of abolishing private ownership and reorganizing under government ownership

To build up industry, Stalin set high expectations for workers. Workers who did not meet expectations were sent to brutal work camps called gulags. These camps were located in Siberia, a region in the Arctic. Gulag prisoners received little food. Their clothing and shelter were not warm enough for the frigid winter conditions. Many prisoners were worked to death. Others froze or starved.

Stalin ruled through fear and violence in the 1930s. Those who publicly disagreed with Stalin or the Communist Party were arrested, imprisoned, sent to the gulags, or killed. In the Great Purge, Stalin used secret police to arrest anyone who might threaten his power. This included many rival members of the ruling party and a great many military officers. Some people were forced to confess their wrongdoing at fake trials, called show

trials. Around 750,000 people were executed. Another three million people were sent to gulags.



Those who resisted Stalin were often sent to forced work camps.

Instead of pursuing Lenin's goal of a world revolution that would end capitalism everywhere, Stalin wanted to build "socialism in one country." He also believed that the Soviet Union had to be strong and modern before it could even think about supporting revolution elsewhere. Stalin's actions were products of this goal. He knew that Germany was a huge threat to the Soviet Union. It was clear that the Nazis and their allies hated communism and wanted to take over Russian lands. To stall for time, Stalin made a peace deal with the Nazis. The Molotov-Ribbentrop Pact said that Germany and the Soviet Union would not attack each other. Stalin hoped the agreement would

give the Soviets the opportunity to build up their industry and armed forces.



Find Out the Facts

Who were Molotov and Ribbentrop, the people for whom the Molotov-Ribbentrop Pact is named?

Writers' Corner



Imagine you are one of Stalin's opponents during his rise to power. Write a secret letter that warns others about the problems Stalin's leadership will cause.



Countries Already at War

Spain, China, and Japan were already involved in their own wars when World War II began in September 1939. Spain's King Alfonso XII had made himself dictator in 1923. He canceled the constitution that made him share power with the parliament. This made him unpopular among Spanish citizens, and the military eventually refused to defend him. King Alfonso gave up the throne and fled Spain in 1931. That left Spain with a republic.

At the time, Spanish politics was divided between those who wanted a more

liberal or socialist republic and the social conservatives and militarists. When a socialist government was elected in 1936, army general Francisco Franco made a nationwide radio broadcast calling for soldiers to join him in taking control of the government by force. Franco's Nationalists staged a revolt against the elected government. They were opposed by the Republicans, who wanted Spain to remain a democratic country. This was the beginning of the Spanish Civil War.

The world watched as Spain's two political factions battled for dominance. Hitler and Mussolini supported the Nationalists, who had much in common with fascists; Stalin supported the Republicans. Each sent soldiers and equipment to support their favored faction. Independent fighters from France, the United States, and other countries formed the International Brigades to help the Republicans as well. Yet despite Soviet aid, the Republicans were unable to beat the Nationalists. In 1939, Franco became dictator of Spain. He ruled until his death in 1975. Franco was a harsh dictator who aggressively went after those who spoke out against him. During his reign, more than twenty-six thousand people were imprisoned and thousands were put to death. He also supported



The Nazis tested out new methods of terror and destruction during the Spanish Civil War, including the use of airplanes to bomb cities. This painting by Spanish artist Pablo Picasso depicts the 1937 bombing that destroyed 70 percent of the city of Guernica and killed or wounded one-third of its population.

discrimination against people from the Catalan and Basque ethnic groups and prohibited them from speaking their languages in public or even giving their babies traditional ethnic names.



Find Out the Facts

Who were some of the people who volunteered to fight in Spain, and what did they call their organizations?



Writers' Corner

Write an encyclopedia entry about the main events of the Spanish Civil War.

Like many countries, Japan had economic problems in the 1930s. To address funding issues, the Japanese government

cut the military budget. This angered many in the military who thought Japan's armed forces were needed to keep the country strong. These Japanese nationalists wanted Japan to have modern technology and weapons and an empire that mirrored those of powerful European nations. They took control of Japan's government and pursued militaristic policies.

Meanwhile, China was disunited. While the Nationalist Party controlled the government, many regions were controlled by warlords. China also had a large communist movement. The Nationalists were led by Jiang Jieshi (1887–1975). The Communist Party was led by Mao Zedong (1893–1976).

Japan invaded China in 1931, taking control of Manchuria. By 1937, war had broken out between the two countries. Japanese forces were much better equipped than their Chinese opponents, and their invasion gradually spread to other regions of China. Chinese Nationalists and Communists formed an alliance, called the United Front, against the Japanese. Yet even this unlikely partnership could not stop Japan from taking the Nationalist capital, Nanjing, in December 1937. Japanese forces led a brutal occupation of the city and killed as many as three hundred thousand people. Japan made Nanjing its capital in China in 1940. Fighting continued in China throughout World War II.



Tensions Rise as Germany Expands

From the beginning, Hitler's economic policy was to build up Germany's industry and military to turn Germany into a military powerhouse that could dominate Europe. The 1919 Treaty of Versailles had limited Germany's armed forces, but Hitler began to rebuild them anyway. By the late 1930s, he was ready to begin his conquest of eastern Europe. He started by marching

into neighboring Austria in March 1938 and annexing it to Germany, something that many Austrians approved of. The event was called *Anschluss*, or union.

Outsiders viewed the growth of Hitler's power with alarm. Germany's World War I enemies—especially Great Britain, France, and the United States—struggled with how to approach Germany. Some leaders favored a strong stance against Germany. They wanted to limit Germany's ability to start another war. Others thought the Treaty of Versailles was too harsh. They supported a policy of **appeasement**. Appeasement is the practice of meeting someone's demands in order to avoid trouble. Supporters of appeasement argued that Hitler had no ambitions beyond rebuilding Germany. Others did not mind what Hitler did as long as he made Germany a strong opponent of communism and the Soviet Union. France and Great Britain supported appeasement because they had suffered greatly during World War I. These nations were not equipped for another war, and few of their

Vocabulary

appeasement, n. the practice of meeting someone's demands in order to avoid trouble, especially when you do not agree with them

citizens supported war with Germany. Appeasement gave them more time to rearm.

Hitler also wanted control of the Sudetenland, a region in Czechoslovakia. Czechoslovakia had been part of Austria-Hungary before World War I. It became its own country in 1919 as a result of the Treaty of Versailles. Even though the Sudetenland had a majority-German population, the treaty assigned it to the new nation. Believing that Germany had a right to the Sudetenland, Hitler ordered his military leaders to prepare an invasion. In 1938, Germany, Italy, Great Britain, and France held a peace conference in the German city of Munich and agreed that Czechoslovakia had to give up the Sudetenland. British prime minister Neville Chamberlain (1869–1940)



British prime minister Neville Chamberlain and Adolf Hitler met at Munich. Chamberlain's deal with Hitler is an example of appeasement.

got Hitler to sign a promise that in the future, all disputes would be solved by discussions. Chamberlain proclaimed that the agreement meant "peace for our time."

Hitler had lied. He invaded the rest of Czechoslovakia in March 1939. In August of that same year, he and Stalin signed the German-Soviet Nonaggression Pact, which permitted both parties to invade and share Poland.

Think Twice



Why did European leaders appease Hitler?

Germany invaded Poland on September 1, 1939. In response, France and Great Britain declared war on Germany on September 3, 1939. It was the start of World War II.



Lightning War

After Germany invaded Poland from the west, the Soviet Union invaded from the east. The two nations met in Poland and divided it between them. Stalin's pact with Hitler also allowed the Soviet Union to claim Lithuania. It annexed that country as well as Latvia and Estonia

and also occupied part of southeastern Finland.

The German invasions of western Europe used new equipment and tactics. Fast armored tanks helped the Germans employ a military tactic called *blitzkrieg*. *Blitzkrieg* is a German word meaning lightning war. Hitler wanted his forces to move fast and defeat their enemies quickly so as to avoid long battles like the ones fought in World War I. After Poland, Hitler continued his lightning war by invading and capturing Denmark and Norway in April 1940. Then the Nazis turned their eyes to France.

France had the largest army in Europe at the start of World War II. It also had the support of British troops. The Allies were confident in France's defenses against Germany, which included a huge line of fortifications on its border with Germany called the Maginot Line. German forces went around the Maginot Line and invaded France's northern neighbors first, beginning with the Netherlands. From there, the Nazis invaded France's neighbor Belgium. They then marched south into France. Another division of the German army attacked France directly through a gap in the Maginot Line, which the French

had originally thought was too hilly for German tanks to cross.

German forces entered Paris, France's capital city, on June 14, 1940. After the French government surrendered, France was divided into two territories. The northern territory was administered directly by Germany. The southern territory was allowed to set up its own pro-Nazi government, which was called the Vichy regime, after the southern territory's capital city.



Knowing they were beaten, Allied troops left France, leaving the country wide open for German occupation.

Great Britain was next on Hitler's list. Invading the island nation would require German forces to cross the English Channel. Hitler knew that the British air force, which could easily sink invading ships from the sky, would make that task nearly impossible. So Hitler had the

German air force bomb British cities and air force bases. He hoped to make the British people want to give up.

The Battle of Britain was mostly fought between the air forces of Great Britain and Germany. The bombing lasted for months. The British government and its people refused to surrender, and the British Royal Air Force was not destroyed. The British were helped by their use of a new technology called radar. Radar allowed them to detect incoming planes. They were also able to decode German radio signals. Because they knew where German raids would be, British planes held off a German invasion of Great Britain.

The Eastern Front

Seeking to acquire more territory, Hitler violated his pact with Stalin and commanded German forces to invade the Soviet Union in June 1941. Hitler thought his army's superior tactics would force the Soviets to surrender within six months, but the two sides fought bitterly for nearly four years. Although the Soviet military was not as robust as it once had been due to the number of officers who had been

killed or imprisoned during the Great Purge, it was still much larger than the German army. Some of its technology, like its airplanes, was outdated, but its tanks were equal to those used by the Germans. The two sides were more evenly matched than Hitler had realized.

The Soviets also had the climate on their side. The Nazis arrived in the suburbs of the Soviet capital, Moscow, just as winter set in. German soldiers were not prepared to fight in a Russian winter. In December 1941, the Soviet army pushed German troops back and managed to stop the Nazis' advance for several months. Despite this temporary success, German troops overpowered the Soviet army across the Soviet Union.

Think Twice



How does Russia's climate give Russia an advantage over invaders?

The situation began to change in the Soviets' favor during the siege of Stalingrad. Stalingrad was an industrial city that produced military supplies. Because it was named after Stalin, control of it had significance for both sides. More than two million Soviet and German troops fought at the Battle of Stalingrad (1942–43). It was one of the largest battles

in history. Soviet leaders shipped most of the cattle and grain out of the city ahead of Germany's attack. However, leaders decided not to evacuate city residents. They thought the civilians would boost the spirits of Soviet troops. In summer 1942, Stalin issued Order Number 227, which said that Soviet troops were done retreating. Now they had to stand and fight.



The Battle of Stalingrad turned the city into a battleground. For months, Soviet and German soldiers fought from street to street.

Resistance turned into victory at Stalingrad. The German forces could not break through Soviet forces. Soviet leaders built up equipment and forces behind the lines to prepare their own attack. In November 1942, the Soviet military formed a ring around Stalingrad, trapping German soldiers inside. Without the ability to resupply, the German army began to starve. The Soviet military recaptured Stalingrad in February 1943. They also captured one hundred thousand Nazi soldiers. Stalingrad was Germany's first major defeat and the point at which the tide turned against Hitler.

North Africa and Italy

France had fallen and Great Britain was besieged, but both countries had large empires that continued to fight. Between 1941 and 1942, British and French (called "Free French") forces fought German and Italian armies in North Africa. The Germans wanted to seize British and French colonies and drive the British out of Egypt so Germany could control the Suez Canal, which would cut off the British from India.

The war in North Africa went back and forth until mid-1942. At first, the British and French were able to hold off Italian troops. German forces drove the Allies back to Egypt but could not defeat them. In July, British and German forces clashed at the Egyptian town of El Alamein, where British troops and their allies defeated the German army and captured 30,000 of Germany's 110,000 soldiers. In November 1942, Great Britain and the United States landed more troops in North Africa. They reclaimed control of areas under German occupation. By the summer of 1943, German and Italian forces in Africa had been completely defeated.

Success in North Africa showed that the Allies could beat the Axis Powers. It also gave them a strong position to attack Italy. Defeat in Africa had caused Mussolini's downfall. He was removed as dictator on July 24, 1943. Two months later, the Allies invaded Italy. The new Italian government promised to end its alliance with Germany and stop fighting against Allied forces, but Germany set up Mussolini as the head of a new puppet government that would follow orders from the Germans. Fighting continued in Italy until the end of the war.



The Holocaust

Hitler's hatred of Jews was at the heart of Nazi ideology. Before the war, the Nazis and others had spoken about "the Jewish question." The question was not whether it was right to murder or expel Jews but how they should do it. At first, many Jewish people were sent to labor camps. As German forces headed eastward, groups of soldiers murdered Jews in towns they occupied. In January 1942, Nazi leaders held a meeting where they agreed that they would round up Jews and murder as many as they could. Special camps were set up at places like Auschwitz-Birkenau in Poland. These were death camps. Jewish people were taken by train to the camps. Many were killed by poison gas as soon as they arrived. This was the Nazis' "final solution" to the so-called Jewish question.

This massacre of Jewish people is called the Holocaust. It is sometimes also called the Shoah, which is a Hebrew term meaning catastrophe. Six million Jewish men, women, and children were killed in the Holocaust. The Nazis also targeted and killed people from other groups, including

communists, Roma, Jehovah's Witnesses, gay people, and disabled people. Millions of Soviet citizens were also murdered. In all, the Nazis deliberately killed at least thirteen million civilians.



These piles of shoes are all that remain of the hundreds of thousands of people who were murdered at a Nazi death camp in Belzec, Poland.

The Holocaust ended when Allied troops liberated the labor and death camps. Soviet soldiers liberated the largest death camp, at Auschwitz. The western Allies confronted the horrific reality of the Nazi regime. The troops were shocked. At Dachau, a labor camp in Germany, American soldiers described the prisoners as "walking skeletons." There were piles of bodies stacked throughout the camp. Of another labor camp, General Dwight D. Eisenhower said, "The visual evidence and the verbal testimony of starvation, cruelty, and bestiality were so overpowering as to leave me a bit sick." He continued, "I made

the visit deliberately, in order to be in a position to give firsthand evidence of these things if ever, in the future, there develops a tendency to charge these allegations merely to 'propaganda.'"

Find Out the Facts



What are some examples of Jewish resistance during the Holocaust?

In 1943, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and the United States signed the Moscow Declaration of German Atrocities. The nations pledged to punish Germany for the crimes it committed during the Holocaust. In 1945, the Allies created a court to try Nazi officials for their roles in the Holocaust. Twenty-four were charged with crimes against humanity. The court saw evidence in the form of official Nazi records and photographs of liberated Nazi labor and death camps. Twelve Nazi officials were sentenced to death for their crimes. Hitler and the two other officials most responsible for planning the Holocaust committed suicide before the trial began.



D-Day to V-E Day

The United States entered World War II in December 1941, after the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor. The Nazi invasion

had forced the Soviet Union into the war the same year. The Soviet Union, Great Britain, and the United States made a formal alliance in early 1942. They agreed to do everything necessary to defeat the Axis Powers. Stalin, British prime minister Winston Churchill, and U.S. president Franklin Roosevelt met several times to decide Allied strategy. By 1944, most of the fighting in Europe was being done by the Soviets. Stalin demanded that the western Allies do more to fight the Nazis. Churchill and Roosevelt agreed. Allied leaders developed Operation Overlord, which was a plan to invade German-occupied France from Great Britain. Allied troops would cross the English Channel and land on French shores. U.S. general Dwight Eisenhower led the operation.

Allied troops invaded German-occupied France on June 6, 1944, which is also known as D-Day. More than 150,000 soldiers from the United States, Great Britain, France, and Canada landed in Normandy, France. They traveled across the English Channel in 4,000 boats and had the support of 1,200 planes. The invasion was difficult, but it was also a huge success. In just one day, the Allies gained control of eighty square miles of France's coastline. Allied troops continued

to land elsewhere in France throughout the summer and put the Nazis on the retreat. Paris was liberated from Nazi occupation on August 25, 1944.



The D-Day invasion was the first step in the Allies' reclamation of France.

Hitler's territory was shrinking as the Allied campaign in Italy continued. The Allies had liberated Rome a month before D-Day. Stalin's troops squeezed German troops from the east while British and American troops pushed them from the west.

By the end of 1944, Germany was running short of fuel, supplies, and skilled soldiers. Years of war and destruction had taken their toll. Still, Hitler refused to give in. He still thought he could win the war by defeating the western Allies. If Britain and the United States surrendered, the Nazis could then concentrate on the Soviet Union. The Germans assembled

some of their best troops and launched a surprise attack on American positions in the Ardennes Forest in Belgium. Many of the American soldiers in the region were resting, wounded, or reserves (soldiers not meant to be in active fighting). The Allied ground troops didn't have any support from the air force due to bad weather, but they still managed to rally against the Germans. The two sides fought for more than a month during the winter of 1944–1945. This conflict is called the Battle of the Bulge because the German attack made a “bulge” in the front line on a map.

The Germans' attack failed. They did not have enough fuel to keep up with the pace of their attack. They had also underestimated Allied resistance. When the weather cleared, Allied planes drove back German forces and put the Allies back on the offensive. Allied troops broke through Germany's line and began marching toward Germany's capital city, Berlin.



Find Out the Facts

What roles did Black service members play in the Battle of the Bulge and campaigns in North Africa and Italy?

By 1945, it was clear that Germany was going to lose the war. Allied leaders began

planning for the future. Stalin, Churchill, and Roosevelt met at the Russian town of Yalta in February 1945. The Allies agreed that the Soviet Union could make sure that eastern Europe had governments that were friendly to the Soviet Union. In return, the Soviets promised they would allow those countries to hold free elections. The three leaders also decided that France would also take part in the occupation of Germany and the planning of Germany's future after the war's end.

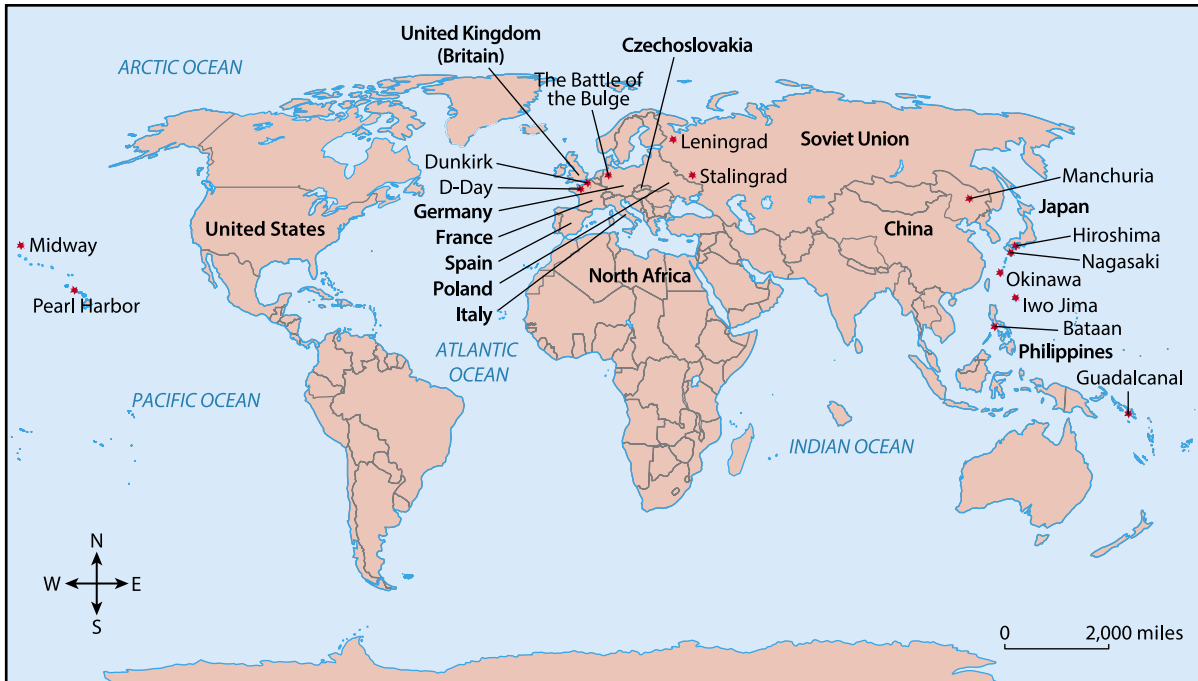
Allied leaders were less confident about the end of the war in the Pacific. Soviet leaders agreed to enter the war and help defeat Japan in exchange for Japan's territory in China.

With Allied troops closing in on Berlin, Hitler and his closest advisors fled to an underground bunker. There, on April 30, 1945, he committed suicide. The Nazis finally surrendered to the Soviet army in Berlin on May 8, 1945. This date is celebrated as Victory in Europe Day, or V-E Day.



War in the Pacific

On December 7, 1941, in a surprise attack, Japanese planes bombed the American naval base at Pearl Harbor in Hawaii, after



World War II involved fighting across three continents and at sea.

a decade of growing tensions between the two nations. Two days later, Germany and Italy declared war on the United States. The war in the Pacific was mainly fought between the United States and Japan but also involved a few British and Dutch colonies, such as Singapore and Indonesia, respectively.

The day after the Pearl Harbor attack, Japan bombed U.S. military planes and ships in the Philippines, which at the time was an American colony. Japanese soldiers landed on Philippine shores on December 10. American and Filipino forces were soon overpowered by the Japanese. In April 1942, American and Filipino soldiers

on the Bataan Peninsula, weakened by lack of food, medicine, and ammunition, were defeated by the Japanese. The victors forced their seventy-six thousand captives into a brutal sixty-six-mile march that later became known as the Bataan Death March. Thousands of American and Filipino prisoners of war died of abuse and neglect under the watch of Japanese soldiers.

Civilians in the United States also suffered mistreatment during the war. President Franklin Roosevelt worried that Japanese Americans might be loyal to Japan, not the United States, and help Japan win the war. On February 19, 1942, he ordered the

arrest of Japanese Americans in California, Oregon, and Washington. Men, women, and children were stripped of their homes, businesses, and other possessions and sent to internment camps. Many of the prisoners were American citizens who had been born in the United States. Some had family members who were actively serving in the war to fight against the Japanese. That didn't matter. Tens of thousands of Japanese Americans were imprisoned over the course of the war. So were Americans with German, Italian, Hungarian, Romanian, or Bulgarian heritage.

The Battle of Midway, fought on June 3–6, 1942, is significant because it helped slow Japan's takeover of the Pacific. The Midway Islands had been claimed by the United States in the mid-1850s and were an important base for American military planes and ships. Japan attacked from the water on June 3. American bombers responded to this attack with torpedoes and bombs. By the end of the four-day battle, American troops and their allies had destroyed a significant number of Japanese warships and planes.



Find Out the Facts

Why were aircraft carriers so important on the Pacific front of World War II?

After Midway, Allied troops fought the Japanese at Guadalcanal, which is part of the Solomon Islands. This island chain in the South Pacific is close to Australia, which at the time was an important British colony. Japan captured Guadalcanal on July 6, 1942, and began building an air force base. A base so close to Australia was dangerous for the Allies, particularly Great Britain. American troops landed on Guadalcanal on August 7 and began a six-month battle that resulted in American control of the island. The Allied victory cost the lives of 1,600 American troops and 24,000 Japanese troops.

The Allies then turned their eyes toward Iwo Jima, an island near Japan that was the home of a crucial Japanese military base. Among other things, the Japanese relied on it for refueling planes flying across the Pacific. If Japan lost control of the base, it would not be able to continue its bombing campaigns.

The Allies attacked Iwo Jima by air and by sea on February 19, 1945. Those who arrived by boat fought an uphill battle to reach Japan's position, which was atop an inactive volcano. One of the most iconic photos of World War II shows U.S. Marines planting the American flag at the

summit of the volcano after dislodging the Japanese.



Find Out the Facts

How was the famous image of soldiers planting the American flag staged? Why did this become such an iconic image?

By July 4, 1945, American and Filipino troops had recaptured much of the Philippines. Allied troops captured islands as they moved through the Pacific and closer to Japan. Meanwhile, the Allied air force relentlessly bombed Japan from the air.



The Atom Bomb

In 1939, physicist Albert Einstein (1879–1955), a German Jew who fled Germany in 1933, wrote to President Roosevelt to warn him about a dangerous new technology called nuclear fission. Nuclear fission created more energy than any other known source. Einstein feared what could happen if Nazi Germany turned the technology into a weapon. In response, the United States began its own program, the Manhattan Project, to produce an atomic weapon. Many of the world's

top physicists were hired to work on the program, which was ultimately a success. In the summer of 1945, the United States became the first, and only, country to use atomic weapons.

Find Out the Facts

Who were some of the people who worked on the Manhattan Project, and what were their contributions?

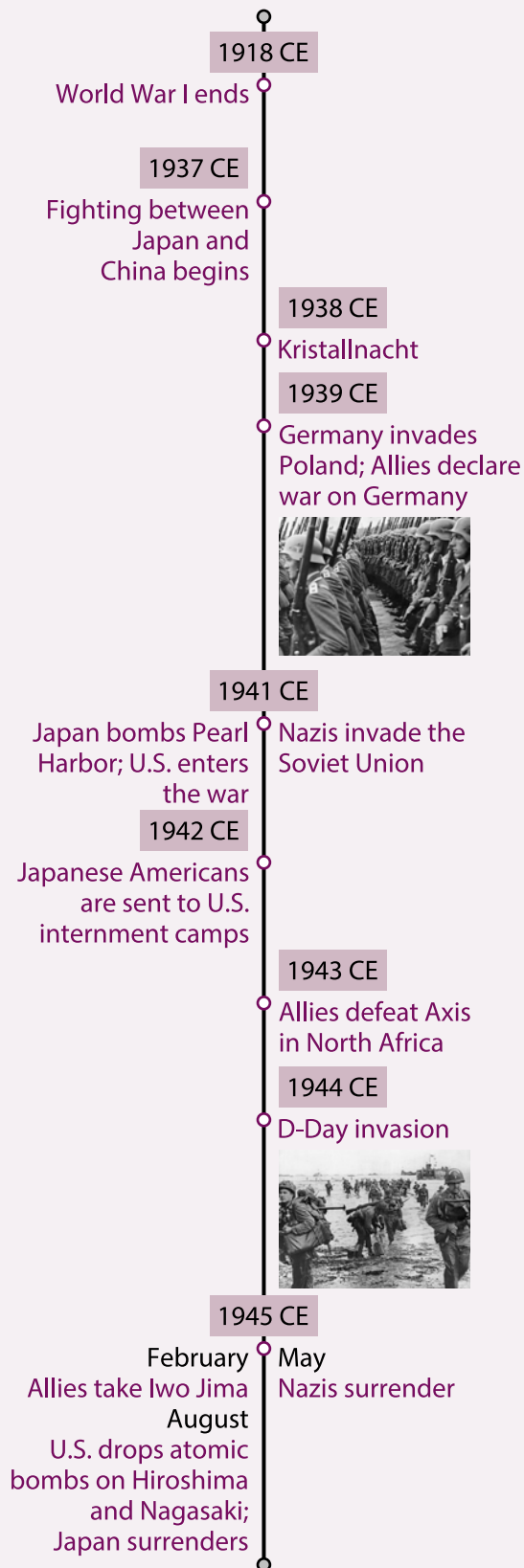


Writers' Corner

Using your research on the people who worked on the Manhattan Project, select one person and write a short biography of their life.



On August 6, 1945, the United States dropped a nuclear bomb on the Japanese city of Hiroshima. The single bomb created an explosion that flattened 4.4 square miles and immediately killed seventy thousand mostly unarmed civilians. Three days later, after the Japanese government refused to surrender, the United States dropped a nuclear bomb on the city of Nagasaki. More than thirty-five thousand people were killed there. The damage from both bombs was instant, but the effects on the population lasted generations. Those who survived the bombings suffered from radiation poisoning for the rest of their lives.



The deployment of the second bomb signaled to Japanese leaders that the United States was likely to continue using nuclear weapons as long as the war continued. Not wanting that to happen, Japan finally surrendered on September 2, 1945. The Second World War was over.

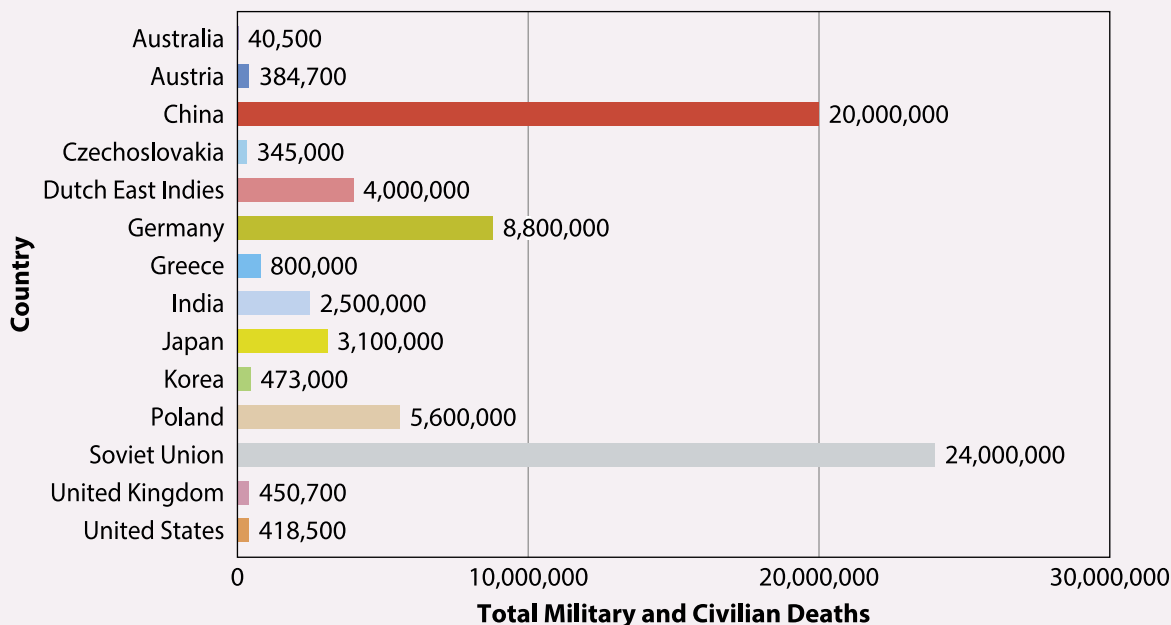


After the War

On August 1, 1945, the leaders of Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and the United States announced the Potsdam Agreement. It split Germany into four occupation zones, with France, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and the United States each overseeing one zone. The Allies took measures to weaken Germany's military and limit its industry. They also canceled Nazi-era laws and captured and tried Nazi war criminals.

It is difficult to get a precise estimate of how many people died during World War II. Historians estimate that between thirty-five million and sixty-five million soldiers and civilians died, including the victims of the Holocaust. In China, Japan took over the same amount of territory as Germany did in Europe. Cut off from the rest of the world, Chinese residents of occupied areas experienced

World War II Casualties by Country



Source: U.S. National World War II Museum

The war killed millions of people, about half of whom were unarmed civilians who were deliberately targeted.

starvation and extreme violence at the hands of the Japanese.



Think Twice

Why might it be difficult to get a precise estimate of how many people lost their lives in World War II?

The peacemaking process with Japan was led by the United States. The Allies wanted to ensure that Japan would not be able to wage war again. To ensure that, they oversaw the occupation of Japan and had the United States choose the supreme commander who would rule the nation.

Japan's emperor was allowed to remain in power, but he had to declare that he was not a god. The Allies also reduced the size of Japan's military and industry. The United States helped establish a democracy and put into place a new constitution that established a House of Representatives elected by both men and women.

Occupying and running Japan was costly. By 1947, the United States had begun looking for ways to make Japan self-sufficient. In addition to creating a new Japanese constitution, the United States negotiated a peace treaty that allowed

Japan to govern itself as long as it gave up its claims outside of Japan, including areas in Korea and China.

The idea for the United Nations was conceived well before the war was over. Led by U.S. president Franklin Roosevelt and British prime minister Winston Churchill, the Allied nations signed the Atlantic Charter in 1941. This document calls for nations to cooperate to ensure world peace. The organization known as the United Nations was born in 1945 with the UN Charter. It created the General Assembly, a legislature made up of representatives from nations around the world. The five most powerful Allied nations—China, France, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and the United States—were made permanent members of the Security Council, which would also have rotating representation from smaller nations. In 1948, the UN also created the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. This document lists the basic human rights that all people on Earth deserve.



Postwar World

Great Britain and France had enormous empires with many colonies when they

entered World War II. After the war, both nations were exhausted and short of money. They could not afford to maintain their empires. Furthermore, the United States did not really want them to. It had not fought a war just to prop up European empires. After the war, European colonies around the world began to declare their independence. Some had independence movements that dated from before the war; others saw the postwar era as a good time to break free from their colonial rulers.

Great Britain's largest colony was in India. Before and after World War II, the main nationalist groups working for Indian independence were the Muslim League and the Congress Party. Members of the Congress Party were largely Hindus. The leader of the Congress Party was Mohandas Gandhi (1869–1948). He was an activist primarily known for his nonviolent tactics to overthrow British rule in India. One effective tactic Gandhi used was to boycott British goods sold in India. India's valuable salt production industry was controlled by the British. Under British rule, Indians were not allowed to process or buy their own salt. They had to buy imported salt, which was too expensive for most Indians to afford.



Gandhi's Salt March was a powerful example of how nonviolent resistance could force change in the world.

In 1930, Gandhi protested the unfair salt laws by leading the Salt March. He walked from town to town, speaking about the salt laws and urging people to produce their own salt. As he traveled, more and more followers joined him. They picked up handfuls of salt from the beach as they walked. This was considered a form of salt processing, so British authorities arrested the protesters for breaking the law. By the end of the yearlong protest, British authorities had arrested sixty thousand people.

Independence from Great Britain was negotiated in 1947 and resulted in the creation of two new nations, India (which

had a majority of Hindus) and Pakistan (which had a majority of Muslims). This division of Indian territory is called the partition of India. Millions of people suddenly found themselves on the wrong side of a new border. Hindus in the new Pakistan felt unwelcome, and the same was true of Muslims in India. The partition created fourteen million refugees who moved to live in the territory assigned to their religion. As people moved, tensions between Muslims and Hindus turned into violence. Two million people died.

The region known as Palestine also went through significant changes after

World War II. In 1917, Great Britain issued the Balfour Declaration, which formalized the British government's support for the creation of a national home for Jewish people in Palestine. At the time, Palestine was still part of the Ottoman Empire. Following World War I, Great Britain assumed control of the territory. Migrants from around the world had begun relocating to Palestine after the Balfour Declaration; their numbers increased as German Jews sought refuge in the 1930s. Calls for an independent Jewish nation became even louder after the Holocaust. Arabs already living in Palestine also wanted their own independent state. Protests and deadly conflicts between Jews and Arabs grew worse and worse. In 1947, Great Britain asked the United Nations to figure out a solution. The UN ended British rule in Palestine and proposed to partition the land into two states, Israel being majority-Jewish and Palestine being majority-Arab. While the Jewish nation declared its independence as the State of Israel, the Arabs rejected the partition proposal, and conflict ensued. France also lost colonies in Africa and Asia. In 1954, a revolution expelled France from French Indochina after a war that lasted several years. The new nation of Vietnam was born from this revolution.

Writers' Corner

Imagine you are either an Arab or a Jew living in Palestine after World War II. Write a paragraph describing what has happened in your country and your hopes for the future.



Origins of the Cold War

Before World War II, several great powers influenced global politics. Of those, Great Britain, France, and Germany were physically and economically devastated by the war. As their empires dissolved, the Soviet Union and the United States emerged as the world's superpowers.

Both the United States and the Soviet Union wanted to spread their ways of life around the world. Although they had been allies in the war, their political ideologies were not compatible. The United States stood for democracy, free trade, and capitalism. The Soviet Union stood for communism. Both superpowers were wary of fighting each other directly. Any conflict had the chance to destroy both, especially if nuclear weapons were used. Instead, they turned the world into their battleground.

Chapter 7

East and Southeast Asia in the Second Half of the Twentieth Century

The Big Question

How did social conditions contribute to political change?



Twentieth-Century China

Communist governments rose to power in several Southeast Asian countries after World War II. Communist ideals appealed to people who had experienced little opportunity under the colonial system in Southeast Asia. Others in those countries, however, rejected communism and actively fought against it. Wars in Southeast Asia became theaters of conflict in the Cold War.



A propaganda poster created during China's Cultural Revolution features Mao Zedong, the chairman of the Chinese Communist Party.



Mao Zedong and the Rise of the Communist Party

For more than 250 years, the Qing dynasty ruled China. By the early 1900s, however, its power had been significantly weakened by the Opium Wars and the Boxer Rebellion. As the Chinese people grew more and more frustrated with Qing rule, a nationalist named Sun Yat-sen (1866–1925) organized a movement called the Revolutionary Alliance. This movement launched a war against the Qing and forced the last emperor to give up the throne. In 1912, in exchange for cooperation from northern warlords, Sun agreed to step down from his temporary position as president and let a Qing general govern China. One member of the revolutionary army was Mao Zedong, who at the age of thirteen had rebelled against his parents' wishes for him to become a farmer and marry a woman of their choosing. He left his family and attended a school where he read about revolutionary ideas from people such as Sun. He was still in school when the Chinese Revolution broke out, and he fought in the revolutionary army for six months.

Writers' Corner



Write a travel itinerary for a trip to China. Explain the early twentieth-century historical significance of each place on your list.

Under the Qing general, the new government of the Republic of China had difficulty uniting the different Chinese factions into one nation. Foreign powers such as Japan took advantage of this period of upheaval to increase their influence in China. This led to a backlash among students, who were further disappointed by the decision of the Paris Peace Conference in 1919. Without seeking China's input, the Treaty of Versailles simply let Japan take over territories in north China from Germany. Student protests grew into 1919's May Fourth Movement, whose members sought national independence. Some favored reforms that rejected Chinese traditions such as Confucianism in favor of Western ideals such as democracy, nationalism, and Western science. Others were inspired by the events of the Russian Revolution. They turned to the ideas of Marx and Lenin and formed the Chinese Communist Party, of which Mao Zedong was a leading member.

Because warlords ran much of China's northern regions, Sun Yat-sen's nationalist government did not have complete control over China. In 1923, Sun formed a successful alliance with the communists to force the northern warlords out of power. Sun died during the campaign, so Jiang Jieshi took control of the Nationalist Party. After successfully ousting the warlords, Jiang, fearing that his rule was threatened, ordered his troops to massacre thousands of members of the Communist Party and its supporters. This began the twenty-two-year-long Chinese Civil War.

Mao survived Jiang's assault and became the leader of the Chinese Communist Party. Early in the war, he and his troops retreated to southeast China. In 1935, Jiang's Nationalist forces attempted to surround the more than eighty thousand soldiers of the Chinese Red Army. Rather than surrender, Mao defeated his rivals in the party and led his army on the longest wartime military march ever recorded. It is known as the Long March. Mao's army used guerilla tactics to fight off the relentless attacks from Jiang's army during the six-thousand-mile trek. When the march ended a year later, only eight thousand troops remained. Word of Mao's refusal to surrender soon spread, and thousands of



The Long March took place from October 1934 to October 1935. Chinese communist troops crossed eighteen mountain ranges and twenty-four rivers during their six-thousand-mile journey.

young Chinese were inspired to join the Chinese Communist Party.

The civil war was paused in 1937 when Nationalists and Communists united to fight expansionist aggression from Japan. A major part of World War II in Asia, the Second Sino-Japanese War began with attacks on Chinese cities such as Beijing, Shanghai, and Nanjing. The alliance between the Nationalists and Communists continued through World War II, but the civil war resumed right after 1945.

After four years of post-World War II fighting, Mao's forces won and declared

China to be the People's Republic of China. Jiang's Nationalists fled to the island of Taiwan, where they set up an anti-communist, authoritarian government and continued calling it the Republic of China. The leaders of the People's Republic of China, or mainland China, have always considered their government to be the only legitimate one representing the entirety of China, including Taiwan.

Find Out the Facts



Look up the Long March to find out where the Red Army traveled. Mark their route on a map of China.



Think Twice

How did the Long March during Mao Zedong's campaign for communism build his reputation?

Writers' Corner

Write a paragraph to summarize what you learned about collectivization.



People's Republic of China

After establishing the People's Republic of China, Mao began to remake the country into a communist nation. The state seized lands from private ownership, often executing landowners and relatively wealthy farmers in the process. The land was initially handed over to peasants, but the government quickly imposed collectivization, which forced the peasants to combine their land and labor to increase agricultural productivity. Mao also nationalized industry in order to increase coal mining and steel production. Under Mao's rule, there was no alternative to the Communist Party. The party outlawed Confucianism, Buddhism, Christianity, and other religions and threatened anybody who practiced them with persecution and death. Many people who were viewed as enemies of the Communist Party were killed.

The Great Leap Forward

In the late 1950s, Mao wanted to further boost agricultural and industrial output. He implemented a plan called the Great Leap Forward. Eager to increase economic growth, Mao gambled on using untested methods of irrigation and farming. His government forced people to join **communes**, where every aspect of life was collectivized. Combined with the failure of experimental farming techniques and low working morale, the commune system was a disaster. Crop yields fell, and more than twenty million people died during the resulting famines.

Vocabulary

commune, n. a group of people who live together, share possessions, and work toward a common goal



Think Twice

How did Mao's changes to Chinese life reflect the principles of communism?

Mao's changes to industrial production also failed. The Communist Party believed that it could increase output by using a great deal of labor instead of relying on science and mechanization. Every village or urban neighborhood was required to have small furnaces for making steel, which Mao believed would lead to faster industrialization. But the small furnaces produced steel of extremely low quality that was practically useless. Millions of men had been forced to move from farming to steelmaking in the quest for industrialization, which left women, children, and the elderly as the primary workforce in the countryside. Most of the grain they produced was shipped to cities, leaving little behind for themselves.

The Great Leap Forward was such a massive failure that this five-year plan was halted after three years and Mao resigned from his position as chairman of the People's Republic of China. However, he remained chairman of the Chinese Communist Party, a more powerful role than chairman of the country.

Find Out the Facts



Research what life on a Chinese commune was like.

Writers' Corner

Write a paragraph about life on a commune using first person.



Think Twice



Why did the Great Leap Forward end after only three years instead of five, as planned?



The Cultural Revolution

By the 1960s, Mao felt that the Communist Party was losing its focus on revolutionary change and had become less committed to the ideals of communism. With the support of his wife and other **radicals**, he embarked on the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution to once again defeat his enemies in the

Vocabulary

radical, n. a person with extreme views

party and remake Chinese society. He began by closing down schools and encouraging young people to speak out against old bourgeois values and the people who represented them. These youths organized into paramilitary groups called the Red Guards, which abused and harassed elderly members of society and intellectuals. Political leaders, including Liu Shaoqi, Mao's appointed successor, and the party general secretary, Deng Xiaoping, were removed from office. Factions within the Red Guards formed, and armed fighting

ensued. Disappointed by the lack of unity, Mao dispersed the Red Guards to rural areas and focused on rebuilding the leadership of his government.

After two years of terror and anarchy, defense minister Lin Biao was named as Mao's successor. A longtime follower of Mao, Lin had organized the dispersal of the Red Guards to calm urban disorder. Yet Mao felt threatened by Lin, whom he believed was becoming too powerful too quickly. His instincts were right. Lin and other military leaders planned a coup to unseat Mao, but Lin died in mysterious



Young people played a significant role in the Chinese Cultural Revolution.

circumstances in 1971 before the plan was put into action.

Many of the youths who had followed Lin Biao's lead during the Cultural Revolution were disillusioned by Lin's betrayal of Mao and the communist ideals they had defended. Internal conflict continued. Up until Mao's death in 1976, the party wavered back and forth between more traditional values and the social changes that communism promised.

Writers' Corner



Write a journal entry from a young person's point of view during the Cultural Revolution.



Think Twice

What was Mao's strategy to bring about social change?



China After Mao

Starting in 1977, Mao's successor, Deng Xiaoping, favored allowing more free market practices to guide China's development. He led the country for the next twenty years, opening its market to trade with the United States and other Western countries. Deng Xiaoping allowed the Chinese people

more personal liberty, but he also quashed democratic movements. In 1989, students gathered in Beijing's Tiananmen Square to peacefully demonstrate for greater freedom. When Deng sent in military forces to control the crowd, they killed hundreds of peaceful **demonstrators**. The massacre drew international attention. After the backlash, China publicly committed to a greater recognition of human rights so it could continue to receive favorable treatment from other nations, especially where trade was concerned. Gradually, China became the largest manufacturing country and the second-largest economy in the world. It continues to balance domestic policy with foreign relations.

Find Out the Facts

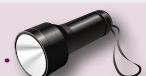


Find out more about the Red Guards. How many young people were involved in the movement?

Vocabulary

demonstrator, n. a person who engages in a public protest

Find Out the Facts



Research the Tiananmen protestor who came to be called "tank man."

Writers' Corner



Write a description of the events that occurred at Tiananmen Square.



Think Twice

How did Deng create more economic opportunity for the Chinese people?



Korea's Civil War

After its World War II defeat, Japan surrendered Korea, which it had occupied since the early 1900s, to the Soviet Union and the United States. The Soviets occupied the northern half, and the United States took control of the southern half. By the end of the 1940s, the North was a communist country and the South was an anti-communist nation. Both were led by dictators. In 1950, North Korean leader Kim Il-sung, not satisfied with controlling only the northern half of the peninsula, sent troops to invade South Korea. North Korean troops, with the support of the Soviet Union, quickly conquered almost the entire peninsula.

The United Nations sent military forces, which were composed mostly of American

troops and led by United States general Douglas MacArthur, to assist the South Koreans. UN troops landed on the western coast of Korea at Inchon. They joined the South Koreans' quest to push the North Koreans to the Chinese border. Concerned that UN forces might cross the border, Mao Zedong sent Chinese troops to assist the North Koreans. By early 1951, the communists had pushed UN forces back to the thirty-eighth **parallel**, which was the previous border between the North and South.

Vocabulary

parallel, n. an imaginary line on a globe or map that circles Earth in the same direction as the equator, marking degrees of latitude

Brutal fighting continued for the next two and a half years, but there was little troop movement. By July 1953, it was clear that the war was a stalemate and no definitive victor would emerge. The two sides agreed to a cease-fire. South Korea, which encompassed all Korean territory south of the thirty-eighth parallel, continued to be a key ally of the United States in East Asia. North Korea, called the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, remained communist. Both Korea were simultaneously admitted to the United Nations in 1991.



ruled as an authoritarian. Throughout the 1950s, South Korea experienced minimal economic growth and suffered under the corrupt government of Rhee. Political instability caused by growing opposition forced Rhee out of power in 1960.

Land reforms approved during Rhee's reign opened property ownership to more people. This helped pave the way for strong economic growth from the 1960s onward. The population boomed, more people gained an education, and a middle class emerged. Traditional family life in the rural countryside was replaced by urbanization, which was demonstrated by the enormous population growth of South Korea's capital, Seoul. In 1950, Seoul had one million residents. By 1990, it had ten million.



Find Out the Facts

Research how the Japanese occupation affected Korean language and history.



Think Twice

Why did the Soviet Union and China support North Korea?



Life in North and South Korea

Although the first president of South Korea, Syngman Rhee, was anti-communist, he

Despite growing prosperity, the people of South Korea still lived under repressive rule for decades. General Park Chung-hee, who replaced Rhee, was guilty of numerous human rights abuses. He was assassinated in 1979, upon which he was replaced by another military leader. South Korea did not directly elect a president for the first time until 1987.

In 1988, the Olympic Games were held in Seoul. This global event changed the way people around the world viewed South Korea. Instead of a poor, war-torn country, it was now a vibrant world capital. Hosting the Olympics helped South Korea build new diplomatic and economic relationships with other nations. That, plus the tourism associated with the games, gave the South Korean economy an enormous boost. Today, South Korea is one of the ten largest economies in the world.

Dictator Kim Il-sung continued to rule North Korea after the Korean War. Although he was an authoritarian like his counterpart to the south, Kim's government was communist. Propaganda glorified Kim as the "Great Leader." He isolated North Korea from the rest of the world and sought to control every aspect of his people's lives. North Korea's economy performed as well as South Korea's until the 1970s, when their paths diverged.

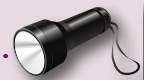
Kim Il-sung died in 1994. He was replaced by his son Kim Jong-il. The collapse of the Soviet Union

just a few years prior had cut off an important economic lifeline for North Korea, so Kim Jong-il came to power in the middle of an economic crisis and widespread starvation. Kim Jong-il died in 2011 and was replaced by his son Kim Jong-un, who rules as ruthlessly as his father and grandfather did.



This photo, taken by an astronaut aboard the International Space Station in January 2014, shows an aerial view of the Korean peninsula. China is the large, lighted area in the upper left of the picture. The lighted area in the lower right is South Korea. North Korea is the dark area between the two. The photo shows that North Korea does not have enough electricity to power electric lights at night.

Find Out the Facts



Research how the 1988 Olympics changed South Korea's infrastructure and economy.

Think Twice



Why do you think South Korea's line of military rulers was replaced by a civilian president in 1988?



Vietnam

Vietnam became a colony of France in the late 1800s. Under French colonial rule, the people of Vietnam were treated as second-class citizens and often struggled to feed themselves. Colonial landowners treated their Vietnamese workers as slaves. After World War II, communist Vietnamese leader Ho Chi Minh led an independence movement to fight for the end of French rule. During the war, Ho had led opposition forces in the use of guerilla tactics against occupying Japanese troops. In 1954, Ho's forces defeated the French at the Battle of Dien Bien Phu. The French were forced to withdraw, and Vietnam was given its independence.

Like Korea, Vietnam was split into two countries, with a communist government in the North and an anti-communist government in the South. Leaders from both agreed to hold an election to reunite Vietnam, but that never happened. This was partly due to outside influence from the United States, whose government feared that the communists might win. In 1959, Ho Chi Minh and North Vietnam declared war on South Vietnam. The United

1934–35 CE
The Long March



1945 CE
World War II ends

1948 CE
Israel is established

1949 CE
People's Republic of China is founded

1950–53 CE
Korean War



1956 CE
Soviet Union invades Hungary



1958–62 CE
Great Leap Forward

1961 CE
Construction of Berlin Wall begins; Bay of Pigs Invasion (Cuba)

1966 CE
Cultural Revolution begins



1973 CE
Ceasefire agreement in Vietnam



1979 CE
Sandinista socialist revolution (Nicaragua)



South Vietnamese soldiers search for Viet Cong guerilla fighters in July 1964.

States saw Vietnam as part of the larger Cold War struggle against communism. U.S. president Dwight Eisenhower believed that the fall of Vietnam to communists would lead to the spread of communism across Southeast Asia, like a row of dominoes falling one after another. This view is known as the **domino theory**. Eisenhower convinced Congress to send hundreds of millions of dollars to help the South Vietnamese government of Ngo Dinh Diem fight communist guerillas, who were called the Viet Cong.

Vocabulary

domino theory, n. the idea that a political event in one country will cause similar events in neighboring countries, like a falling domino causing a line of dominoes to fall

The United States' involvement increased in 1964 after an American warship in the Gulf of Tonkin reported it had been attacked by the North Vietnamese. (Historians now accept that this attack never happened.) President Lyndon Johnson cited the incident when calling for congressional approval of more American involvement. After the Gulf of Tonkin Resolution, which allowed the United States to take necessary measures when attacked, U.S. forces began bombing North Vietnam. Ho Chi Minh refused to surrender. Before long, the United States was sending American troops to Vietnam.

In January 1968, the Viet Cong launched the Tet Offensive. This series of attacks on South Vietnamese cities was conducted during Tet, the Vietnamese new year, and surprised the South Vietnamese. The Tet Offensive wasn't a victory for the communists, but it did show that the United States and their South Vietnamese allies would have difficulty winning the war. Later that year, American soldiers brutally killed and tortured more than five hundred people in the My Lai massacre, including women, children, and elderly people.

American officials tried to cover it up, but the incident was eventually reported. Americans were horrified by the actions of their own soldiers, and public opinion in the United States began to turn against the war.

Due to low approval of his handling of the Vietnam War, Lyndon Johnson did not run for reelection in 1968. He was succeeded by Richard Nixon, who promised to end American involvement in the war. However, a cease-fire agreement was not reached until 1973, at which time the United States began to pull its troops out of Vietnam. Two years later, the South Vietnamese capital of Saigon fell to communist forces, and North and South Vietnam were united under communist rule. Saigon was renamed Ho Chi Minh City in honor of the communists' leader, who had died in battle. Many Vietnamese people who did not support communist values fled the country, some by airplane, some by boat. The mass departure of refugees created a global humanitarian crisis.

Inspired by China's economic reforms, Vietnam opened its doors to Western countries in 1986. Since then, it has

gradually adopted a market economy. Still a communist nation in name, Vietnam today is often considered a major ally of the United States in Southeast Asia.

Find Out the Facts



Research how Americans viewed the war in Vietnam.

Writers' Corner



Based on your research, write a paragraph that presents both sides of American sentiment about the war in Vietnam.

Think Twice



How did Vietnam's civil war resemble Korea's war? How did it differ?



Japan

After Japan surrendered following the bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, the Allies placed Japan under military occupation for seven years. The United States, Soviet Union, China, and members of the British Commonwealth oversaw the occupation, but it was largely directed by

the United States under the leadership of General Douglas MacArthur. During the occupation, the political system of Japan was transformed. The nation was demilitarized, nationalist organizations and the armed forces were disbanded, and democratic reforms were implemented.

A new constitution that set up a parliamentary democracy took effect in 1947. Power was transferred from the throne to the people, and the role of emperor became ceremonial. The constitution included a bill of rights that said the country would no longer maintain a military, except for self-defense.

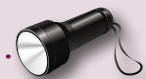
Changes in society gave support to democratization. Land reform programs transferred ownership of farmland from landlords to farmers, who had been tenants. Giving more power to individuals helped to strengthen democracy as it ended the last remnants of feudalism. It also eventually led to strong economic growth in the following decades. Other reforms gave workers more rights and led to the establishment of labor unions. New laws gave women the right to vote, called for equality between the sexes, and established joint inheritance rights.

Women could also serve in the Japanese parliament.

The educational system was changed as well. Academic freedom was guaranteed, which further weakened the power of the state. New curricula emphasized initiative and critical thinking over memorization. The system of the United States was implemented, with four levels of education: elementary, middle school, high school, and college. Girls were guaranteed an education for the first time.

The economy of Japan experienced rapid growth in the decades following World War II. Annual growth averaged 10 percent in the second half of the 1950s, and later climbed to a massive 13 percent. This happened because mechanization led to greater efficiencies in both industry and agriculture. Millions left the countryside and poured into cities such as Tokyo, which saw its population triple from three million to nine million between 1945 and 1970.

Find Out the Facts



Find out more about the journey that millions of Japanese took from the countryside to cities after World War II.

Writers' Corner



Write a journal entry from the perspective of a person who moved from the Japanese countryside to Tokyo in the 1950s.



Think Twice

How did Japan's constitution bring democracy to the country and end militarism?

Japan's economy was also lifted by its success producing goods for export. The country invested money it was not spending on a military on new, modern factories. Its increasingly educated and skilled workforce produced cars, cameras, televisions, and radios that consumers across the globe purchased. Japanese companies that produced these goods provided strong competition to American industry that had dominated the consumer manufacturing.

By 1990, Japan had the second largest economy in the world. It traded with nations around the world, exporting popular products such as automobiles and portable radios. In the 1990s, the Japanese economy struggled and was hit with a deep recession. Even in recovery it stagnated, and in 2000, unemployment

rose above 5 percent for the first time since World War II. Slow growth continued through the first two decades of the twenty-first century, but Japan remains one of the world's economic powerhouses.



The SONY Walkman was a radio and cassette player manufactured in Japan that achieved significant popularity in the Western world in the 1980s.

Find Out the Facts



Learn more about the popularity of the SONY Walkman in the United States in the 1980s. Does it remind you of any modern consumer products?

Chapter 8

Europe in the Second Half of the Twentieth Century

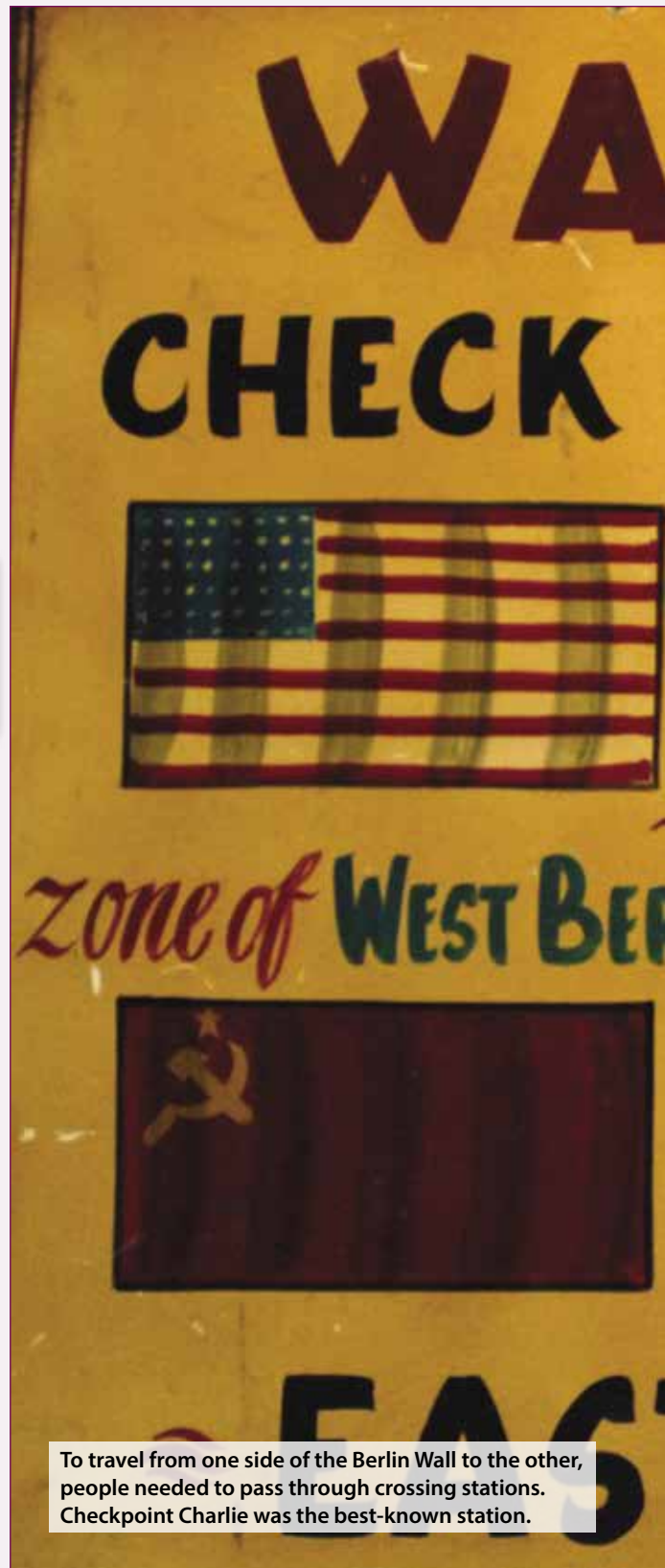
The Big Question

How did the Cold War shape and reshape European politics?



The Cold War

The end of World War II did not mean the end of conflict and competition in Europe. After the war's end, the clash of ideas between democratic capitalism and authoritarian communism threatened to plunge Europe into another conflict. The next forty-five years were characterized by a long-simmering tension between two armed camps. The Cold War shaped European politics through the early 1990s, and its consequences are still seen to this day.



To travel from one side of the Berlin Wall to the other, people needed to pass through crossing stations. Checkpoint Charlie was the best-known station.

ARNING

POINT CHARLIE.

US ARMY BORDER STATION

*You are now leaving the allied free
RLIN and are entering the ~*

SOVIET

CONTROLLED ZONE OF

T BERLIN.



The Iron Curtain Descends

The end of World War II left the Western Allies and the Soviet Union, who had united only because of their mutual opposition to the fascist Axis Powers, in a touchy situation. The Soviet Union, with its repressive communist system, was openly hostile to the capitalist democracies of the West. This hostility was mutual. The governments of the United States and Great Britain believed that Soviet leaders wanted to launch communist revolutions around the world to overthrow democratic governments and end capitalism. Neither side wanted to risk another major war, but they also didn't trust each other enough to back down. The result was the Cold War. The Soviet Union and the Western allied nations were openly hostile to one another and competed for supremacy but never fought one another directly.

On the Soviet side, the foundations of the Cold War had been set during World War II. Joseph Stalin had concentrated power and authority by exploiting his position as the supreme leader of a nation in a desperate struggle to survive. By the time the war ended, Stalin had grown angry

toward the United States and western Europe. The refusal of the United States to share its atomic weapon technology had angered him. He also believed that the United States delayed its invasion of Europe to allow the Germans to do as much damage to the Soviet Union as possible. Stalin and other Soviet leaders were also concerned that the United States, Great Britain, France, and their allies would gang up on the Soviet Union. The memory of the invasion of the Soviet Union by Nazi Germany in 1941 was very fresh in the minds of the Soviets. German forces had rapidly taken control of key parts of the Soviet Union, which put Soviet leadership and the Soviet people on the defensive. The Germans were ultimately unsuccessful in their quest, but the experience of being driven to the brink of defeat by hostile forces from the West was not one that Soviet leaders would soon forget.

To avoid another Western invasion, the Soviet Union installed friendly governments in eastern European countries it had occupied during World War II. This was made easier by the fact that local communist parties enjoyed a lot of support among the citizens of eastern European nations after World War II.

Czechoslovakia provides a good example of how this happened. In Czechoslovakia, the liberal, democratic government led by Edvard Beneš (1884–1948) went into exile when the Nazis invaded in 1938. Government leaders returned to Czechoslovakia after the liberation, hoping to return to ruling a liberal, democratic country in which they could implement some reforms and improvements. But the Czechoslovak Communist Party won almost 39 percent of the vote in the 1946 elections. The popularity and effectiveness of the Communist Party and their allies allowed them to seize power in the country in 1948, after which they arrested their political opponents. At that point, Czechoslovakia was fully under the yoke of Soviet control. In Czechoslovakia and in other eastern European states, the communists that came to power rigged future elections to ensure that they could not be voted out. Decades of communist rule followed. Several other countries that had been occupied, such as Estonia and Belarus, were even absorbed into the Soviet Union entirely.



Find Out the Facts

Why were socialism and communism popular in postwar Europe?

Western nations feared that Stalin and other Soviet leaders wanted to promote communist revolutions in Western countries. Western leaders, especially those in the United States, decided that rebuilding Europe would help counter the threat of communism. They believed that communism and fascism would take hold only if a country were economically and socially unstable. In 1948, President Truman established the European Recovery Program, better known as the Marshall Plan, named for Truman's secretary of state, George C. Marshall (1880–1959). In 1947, Marshall had suggested that the United States assist Europe's recovery by providing food and goods. The Marshall Plan was a great success. European countries that took aid from the program saw their **gross domestic product** (GDP) grow between 15 and 25 percent during the three and a half years the Marshall Plan was in effect.

Vocabulary

gross domestic product, n. the value of all goods and services produced in one country during a specific period, usually a year or part of a year

The tensions developing between the West and the Soviet Union were expressed

in a war of words. Leaders on both sides gave major speeches outlining their hopes and fears and accused the other side of wrongdoing. In the West, British leader Winston Churchill said in early 1946 that an “iron curtain” had been lowered across Europe along the borders of the region under Soviet control. He saw no hope for a lasting peace with the Soviet Union and argued that western European and American leaders should instead strengthen themselves politically and militarily. Churchill praised what he called the “special relationship” between Britain and the United States and called for European nations to band together as a single community.



This 1946 political cartoon depicts Winston Churchill peering under the iron curtain to see what is happening in communist eastern Europe.

What Is an Iron Curtain?

The term *iron curtain* was widely used in the following decades to describe the political, social, and economic divide that existed between western and eastern Europe. This term is a reference to a barrier that protects theater audiences in case of a fire. It is also sometimes called a fire curtain. A curtain made of iron or asbestos would be dropped quickly to prevent a fire from spreading from the stage into the audience. Churchill used the term because he believed communism was a danger that could spread like fire. Similarly, the Soviets felt that capitalist Western countries were a threat to their own way of life.

A month before Churchill’s speech, Stalin addressed Soviet leadership and outlined his own analysis of the West and its leaders’ intentions. He blamed World War II on problems within and between capitalist countries and argued that war was inevitable as long as capitalism existed. In his view, capitalist competition led to a constant struggle for resources and caused “uneven development” that created conflict and left some countries rich and others poor. He claimed that the war proved Soviet communism was strong and successful. According to

Stalin, capitalism and communism could not survive together, and of the two, communism was stronger and more just.

Writers' Corner



Write your own speech arguing for a peaceful resolution to the tensions between the two sides in the Cold War.



The Atomic Age in Divided Europe

Cold War–era Europe resembled two armed camps that were divided between east and west. Nowhere was this more evident than in Germany, which had been divided in half by the occupying allies. West Germany, officially known as the Federal Republic of Germany, was democratic, capitalist, and friendly to the Western powers. East Germany, or the German Democratic Republic, was communist and part of the Soviet alliance. Even though the city of Berlin was situated deep inside East Germany, it, too, was divided into western and eastern halves. This division led to one of the first crises of the Cold War.

In 1948, the Western alliance of the United States, Great Britain, and France began to plan a new West German state. This new

country would have its own currency, the deutsche mark. As the Western powers began issuing deutsche marks in West Berlin, Soviet leaders, who had not been consulted about the change in currency, became angry. They responded by setting up a blockade of West Berlin that prevented food and supplies from reaching the city by rail or road. Western nations then flew large quantities of food and supplies over East German territory to Berlin. So much material was transported during the Berlin airlift that a plane landed at the Berlin airport every minute. The Western powers also formed their own blockade of East Germany to put pressure on the Soviet side. The blockades were lifted in 1949.

In 1949, the brewing tension between the Soviets and the West led to the creation of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), a formal military alliance among the Western allied nations. Under article 5 of the treaty, members agreed that an attack on one member nation was the same as an attack on all member nations. This meant that all member nations, even those that had not been personally attacked, would use military action against any nation that attacked another NATO member. NATO's original members were Belgium, Canada, Denmark, France, Iceland, Italy,



Berliners await the arrival of food and supplies from Western nations in 1948.

Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, the United Kingdom, and the United States. Greece and Turkey joined in 1952, followed by West Germany in 1955.

The communist countries of eastern Europe entered a similar agreement in 1955. The Warsaw Treaty Organization, or Warsaw Pact, originally consisted of Albania, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Poland, Romania, and the Soviet Union. Many of the Warsaw Pact's

decisions were determined by the Soviet Union.

In an earlier era, the presence of two armed and hostile factions in Europe might have led to the outbreak of a new war. That didn't happen this time around, partly because by 1949, both the United States and the Soviet Union had the capability to make and use atomic weapons, one of which was powerful enough to destroy an entire city. The Soviets began developing

an atomic bomb in 1943 but didn't fully focus on the effort until the United States bombed Hiroshima and Nagasaki in August 1945. After that, the Soviets launched a special project to develop nuclear technology as quickly as possible. Once they achieved success in 1949, other world powers quickly joined the race to acquire nuclear weapons. Great Britain

conducted its first nuclear test in 1952; France followed in 1960. One rationale behind the development of nuclear weapons was deterrence, or the idea that a nation could prevent attack from another nation with nuclear capabilities by threatening to use its own nuclear weapons. Several Western powers and the Soviet Union had atomic bombs, which



meant that direct attacks on one another would risk massive destruction.



Find Out the Facts

How did spies help the Soviet nuclear program?

Some countries, such as Yugoslavia, did not want to side with the West or the Soviets. Yugoslavia was a communist dictatorship that became friendly with the Soviet Union after World War II and even modeled its 1946 constitution on that of the USSR. But Yugoslavia's prime minister, Josip Broz Tito (1892–1980), wanted more independence than Stalin would allow. Stalin attempted to remove Tito and take control of the Yugoslav army and police forces in 1948. When that didn't work, he cut off economic and military aid to Yugoslavia. As Stalin's influence waned, Tito grew closer to the West. His foreign policies no longer resembled those of the USSR, which greatly alarmed Stalin, who thought the **nonalignment** was a confirmation that the Western powers wanted to undermine, surround, and destroy the Soviet Union.

Vocabulary

nonalignment, n. a lack of alliance or relationship with other nations or groups

The tense first phase of the Cold War ended with the death of Joseph Stalin on March 5, 1953. Stalin's successor, Nikita Khrushchev (1894–1971), was a deep and committed believer in communism and the Soviet system. However, he wanted to soften the excesses and brutality of Stalin's rule. In 1956, Khrushchev publicly alleged that Stalin had ruled alone and had developed a cult of personality in which he saw himself as a glorious leader. He also disclosed that Stalin's secret police had killed many political opponents and imprisoned millions of others. Khrushchev then set new policies that freed these prisoners. These policies are sometimes called either the "Thaw" (because they allowed a little more freedom of expression) or de-Stalinization.

Find Out the Facts

How did de-Stalinization turn Albania and China into allies of each other?



Despite his dislike of Stalin's methods, Khrushchev did not want to give up the Soviet sphere of influence in eastern Europe. In 1956, people in Hungary used some of their new freedoms to share ideas with one another and protest their government. The protests eventually turned into a

revolution. Hungarian prime minister Imre Nagy (1896–1958) declared that non-Communists would be allowed to participate in running the government. He also declared Hungary’s neutrality in the contest between West and East. The Soviets responded with an invasion of Hungary. When Western powers did nothing to intervene, the Hungarian Revolution was crushed. The Soviets executed Nagy in 1958.

Three years later, the division of East and West Berlin became more concrete—literally—with the construction of the Berlin Wall. Between 1949 and 1961, more than two million East Germans, many of whom were skilled workers and intellectuals, had fled to West Germany. Concerned about the impact this could have on the economy, the East German

government built the wall to prevent the further loss of people. The easiest way to escape East Germany had been to simply walk into West Berlin, which was deep within East German territory and stationed with American troops. The wall was made of concrete, topped with barbed wire, and patrolled by armed soldiers. It was not only a practical barrier but also one of the most visible (and hated) symbols of a divided Europe. The Berlin Wall completely surrounded West Berlin, which made it almost impossible for East Germans to reach this island of democracy and capitalism.



Struggles, Protests, and Terrorism

In addition to the Cold War, Europe faced several ongoing problems that sparked unrest, protests, and even acts of terrorism. The baby boom of the postwar period, characterized by an especially large number of births from 1945 to 1952, added millions of young people to Europe. These young people grew up during a time of relative peace. When they became young adults in the 1960s, their youthful idealism and energy changed society. Advertising, pop culture, and social events



Hungarians capture a Russian tank in the capital city of Budapest.

targeted these young adults, who were viewed as the leaders of a new cultural and social moment. They had money to spend because many western European nations had experienced dramatic economic growth and increased living standards beginning in the 1950s. In West Germany, postwar economic growth was so great that the country had more jobs than people to fill them. The economic boom led to the rise of European welfare states, in which governments provided benefits such as free university education, free health care, and generous pensions. In Great Britain, the government established the National Health Service to provide health care to all citizens.

Youth culture sometimes came into conflict with the attitudes and politics of their societies. France provides an excellent example. In 1968, France was led by President Charles de Gaulle (1890–1970), who was then in his late seventies. De Gaulle, a hero of World War II who had led the Free French forces, became president in 1958. He and his government had attitudes that were more conservative and traditional than those of young French people. French society in general was dominated by members of the upper

class who preferred the old ways of doing things. This frustrated young people. University attendance grew exponentially in the mid-twentieth century, between 1958 and 1968, the French student population grew from 175,000 to more than 500,000 people. Students were dissatisfied by the physical conditions of the university experience, which included crowded lecture theaters and substandard housing in run-down areas of France, especially Paris. They wanted to protest.

Writers' Corner

Write a protest song or poem from the point of view of a young person in Europe in the 1960s.



Young people were politically active in the mid-twentieth century. Growing up with the Cold War and the threat of a nuclear attack forced them to engage with the events of the time. Some rejected the conservative politics of their parents and elderly leaders like de Gaulle. Others were drawn to the ideas and images of revolutionaries around the world, including Che Guevara in Cuba, Mao Zedong in China, and Ho Chi Minh in Vietnam. Youth politics was not just about idealism. Many young people knew about

and hated the American war in Vietnam, which had been a French colony. They also resented France's own foreign policy, such as its war against Algerians fighting for independence from French colonial rule from 1954 to 1962. In Germany, young people demanded an honest assessment of the role of their parents' generation in the rise of the Nazis and the crimes they committed.

Tensions caused by these issues reached a breaking point in May 1968. A French student-led protest quickly became an uprising that included participants from across society. Students stopped going to class and were joined by striking workers, who felt they, too, had been excluded from France's postwar prosperity. At one point, de Gaulle fled the country to meet with a French general at a military base in Germany and discuss what to do if the student revolutionaries took over Paris. In the end, the uprising of May 1968 did not make much of an impact.



Find Out the Facts

What events in Vietnam helped trigger protests against the Vietnam War?



A French student throws stones during a demonstration in Paris, May 1968.

The Soviet bloc was not immune to these trends. Also in 1968, citizens of Czechoslovakia rose up during a period called the Prague Spring to express dissatisfaction with the repressive nature of the communist dictatorships they lived under. Czech leader Alexander Dubček (1921–92) responded to the protests by proposing reforms to the Czech system that would allow more democratic freedoms. Although Czech leaders were uninterested in ending communism, they wanted a government that was kinder, more humane, and more liberal. As with the 1956 uprising in Hungary, Soviet leaders believed the Prague Spring represented a threat to communism. Soviet troops and their allies invaded Czechoslovakia on August 20–21, 1968. Dubček was removed from power, and his liberal reforms were shut down.



Think Twice

Why might Soviet leaders have been concerned about liberalization in Czechoslovakia?

On the other side of Europe, there were challenges in Ireland. Most of the island nation had won its independence from Great Britain in the 1920s, but six counties

in the north, called Northern Ireland, remained part of the United Kingdom. Northern Ireland's population was divided between unionists, who wanted to remain part of the United Kingdom, and republicans, who wanted to join the Republic of Ireland. Tensions between these groups were heightened because most unionists were Protestant and most republicans were Catholic. From 1968 to 1998, in a conflict called the Troubles, unionist and republican paramilitaries fought campaigns of terrorism against each other and the British. The Troubles killed more than 3,600 people and wounded tens of thousands more before the two sides agreed to end the conflict in 1998. The peace deal, called the Good Friday Agreement, led to a system of power sharing between unionists and republicans in a single Northern Ireland Assembly.



The Soviet Union Collapses

Between 1989 and 1992, the Soviet Union was abolished, the Soviet bloc broke up, and the Cold War ended. The Soviet Union, viewed for decades as a powerful threat, collapsed suddenly and

completely. The reasons for its dissolution developed over decades, but the culture of secrecy and a climate of fear behind the iron curtain made it difficult for leaders to recognize problems and respond to them.

The Soviet economy suffered from deep, long-term problems. For decades, the Soviet Union had difficulties producing consumer goods, which were abundant in the West, because its planned economy was ill-equipped to respond to the demands of the population. Sometimes shortages of goods arose. As a result, all sorts of ordinary and necessary goods had to be acquired by Soviet citizens on the informal **black market**. Furthermore, parts of the Soviet economy were vulnerable to price fluctuations in the world market. The Soviet Union produced a large amount of oil and natural gas for export. When the price of oil crashed in the mid-1980s, it contributed to an economic crisis.

Vocabulary

black market, n. an informal or illegal section of the economy



Find Out the Facts

How did the Chernobyl nuclear accident contribute to the end of communism in the Soviet bloc?



Russians often had to stand in line for hours to buy basic necessities such as bread and meat.

The economic crisis put serious pressure on the Soviet government to enact reforms. This proved extremely difficult. Since the 1970s, Soviet political culture had been conservative, resistant to change, and dominated by elderly men. It prioritized building its military power above the needs of its citizens. These years of stagnation began after Leonid Brezhnev (1906–82) became leader of the Soviet Union in 1964. During his eighteen years in power, he cared mostly about winning the Cold War and holding together the communist bloc. In addition to propping up its allies, the Soviet Union used its military power and military aid to support friendly regimes and movements around the world.

Think Twice

Why did Soviet citizens sometimes rely on the black market to obtain essential goods?





This foreign policy led to a decision that was disastrous for the Soviet military, society, and economy. In 1978, Afghanistan's government was replaced in a coup led by communist army officers. The new government allied itself with the Soviet Union and tried to ram through a series of socialist reforms that angered many groups in Afghan society, especially people who lived in rural, conservative Muslim communities. These communities revolted against the communist government. Soviet leaders saw that the Afghan government could not cope with the unrest and invaded the country in 1979. Soviet troops and anti-communist guerillas fought each other to a stalemate through the 1980s. The Soviet army failed to control anything beyond the major cities of Afghanistan. Meanwhile, thousands of Afghans were killed, and millions more fled to neighboring countries like Pakistan. Sensing an opportunity to embarrass the Soviet Union, Western powers sold weapons to Afghan fighters. By the time the Soviet Union withdrew in 1989, fifteen thousand Soviet soldiers were dead, and the Soviet economy and reputation were in ruins.

These crises helped build support to reform the Soviet political and economic systems. Many of these reforms were ideas of Mikhail Gorbachev (1931–2022), who became the leader of the Soviet Union in 1985. He tried to modernize and streamline the Soviet economy and government and proposed a series of cultural reforms called *glasnost*, which means openness. The press was given greater freedom to report and discuss ideas, as were ordinary people. Eventually, Soviet leadership allowed democratic reforms, including contested elections and secret ballots, for the first time in its history. Gorbachev also ended Brezhnev’s policy of forcing foreign countries to comply with Soviet policies, which gave the countries of the Soviet bloc the freedom to make decisions for themselves.



Think Twice

Do you think “openness” contributed to the end of the Soviet Union?

Across Europe, people involved in movements for change took hold of their own destinies and brought an end to communist rule. In the 1980s, independent trade unions in Poland led

campaigns for workers’ rights and social change. The largest union, led by Lech Wałęsa (b. 1943), helped force the Polish government to restore a democratic parliament and hold elections in 1989. Later that year, hundreds of thousands of East German protesters were on the brink of forcing the government to allow some travel between East and West Germany. But they achieved even more. On the night of November 9, masses of East German citizens flocked to the Berlin Wall, hoping to cross over to the West. The guards refused to shoot or otherwise harm them, seeing no point in using violence to defend a crumbling regime. The people of Berlin began to dismantle the Berlin Wall themselves with hammers, picks, and their fists. The collapse of the Berlin Wall—suddenly, completely, and in an atmosphere of celebration and relief—became as powerful a symbol of the fall of communism as the wall had been a symbol of repression.

Writers’ Corner

Imagine you were there when the Berlin Wall came down. Write an article for a newspaper describing your role in tearing down the wall.





The first sections of the Berlin Wall were destroyed late at night near the Brandenburg Gate. The western side of the wall had been covered in graffiti over the years. Such expressions were prohibited in East Germany.

The Soviet Union reacted to these popular movements by removing its troops from countries that were swiftly becoming democratic, like East Germany, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, and Poland. In 1990, Gorbachev agreed that East and West Germany should be reunited.

The Soviet Union itself broke up rapidly. Its political and economic crisis plus the breakup of communist Europe made change almost inevitable. In 1991, the last gasp of communism in the Soviet

Union was an attempted coup against Gorbachev. The coup failed, and at the end of the year, the Soviet Union's hammer and sickle flag lowered for the last time. The former Soviet Union broke up into fifteen independent countries, including Russia, Armenia, and Estonia. These states had been the "Soviet socialist republics" that made up the USSR. New Russian president Boris Yeltsin (1931–2007) found himself in charge of ending the Soviet system and beginning a transition to a liberal, democratic, and capitalist country.

The Breakup of Yugoslavia

The breakup of Yugoslavia challenged European peace and stability. Its population came from many ethnicities, spoke many languages, and practiced many religions. Between June 1991 and May 1992, the five Yugoslavian regions—Slovenia, Croatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia, and Macedonia—declared their independence.

Within each new nation, conflict arose between the majority and minority ethnic and religious populations. Serbs in Croatia wanted to join Serbia. Serbs in Bosnia and Herzegovina wanted independence from the Muslim majority, whom they hated. After two years of fighting, the United Nations sent humanitarian aid to civilians and set up safe zones for refugees. But UN forces did not defend these safe zones, and Serbian forces massacred their opponents. Fighting finally stopped in 1995 after NATO agreed to send troops to stop Serbs from attacking Bosnian forces.

In Serbia, the Muslim-majority region of Kosovo was home to its own independence movement. In 1997,

ethnically Albanian and Muslim citizens desiring independence formed the Kosovo Liberation Army (KLA). Their rebellion prompted brutal attacks by the Yugoslav army, Serbian police, and Serbian soldiers. Thousands of Kosovans were driven from their homes. Intervention from the United Nations and NATO forces helped establish a fragile peace between the warring factions. Kosovo declared itself independent in 2008, but neither Serbia nor Russia recognized its status as a separate state.

Find Out the Facts



Why do several regions in the Balkans have majority-Muslim populations?

Toward a United Europe

Historically, peace has been rare among European nations. Efforts were made after the end of World War II to ensure that Europe's capitalist nations were economic, political, and military allies. The formation of the European Economic Community (EEC) in 1957 created a common market among member nations, which included Belgium, France, and West Germany,



among others. Each country agreed to eliminate barriers to trade with other member nations and to negotiate with external trade partners as one group. The EEC also began the process of creating Europe-wide institutions. The European Parliament has the power to consult on European laws and policies, and the European Court of Justice hears cases that affect member nations.

Individual European countries also took steps to break down barriers to international travel and cooperation. One major engineering effort linked Britain and France by the undersea Channel Tunnel, which opened in 1994. It allows both goods and people to travel back and forth between the two countries by car or truck. Previously, journeys had to be made by sea ferry or airplane.

The European Union (EU), the successor to the EEC, was formed in 1993 and today has twenty-seven member countries. Its formation created an economic and political community that is even more encompassing than it was under the European Economic Community. For example, the European Union's unit of currency, the euro, began replacing local forms of currency like French francs and German deutsche marks in 2002 and is used throughout Europe today. Citizens of the European Union are also allowed to travel to other member nations without a visa.



Think Twice

Why was a single currency an important part of the European project?

Some people were unhappy about the project to create a more unified Europe. They were concerned that either the European Parliament or powerful nations within the EU would overrule decisions made by member countries. The eurozone, which consists of the countries that use the euro currency, dealt with problems in the aftermath of the global financial crisis of 2007–8. Several EU countries experienced serious economic downturns, especially Greece,

Ireland, Italy, Portugal, and Spain. They suffered major budget deficits, which meant they didn't have enough money to fund government operations. When some countries threatened to leave the eurozone, there were concerns that the euro would lose value. Germany and France, the two largest economies in the eurozone, acted to stabilize the currency. However, the cost for countries like Greece was severe. In exchange for economic assistance, they were forced to significantly cut budgets and increase taxes. These policies led to highly unpopular reductions in social programs, which led to protests in many European countries. Many people in those countries and some outside observers criticized the focus on preserving the euro over the independence of member nations like Greece.



The euro (€) is a currency that can be used to purchase goods in nineteen European countries.

Chapter 9

Africa and the Middle East in the Second Half of the Twentieth Century



The Postcolonial World

Before World War I, Africa and the Middle East were divided up among European empires. Following the collapse of these empires after World War II, a wave of independence movements in Africa and the Middle East brought new nations into existence. The colonial era had left some areas richer and more developed than others. Colonial governments had divided people along racial, religious, and ethnic lines. And even in the postcolonial era, the former empires—and the new superpowers, the United States and the Soviet Union—had business and military

The Big Question

In what ways did the end of the colonial era affect Africa and the Middle East?



Cape Town, South Africa, is nestled in the curve of Table Mountain. With more than 4.8 million residents, it is the second-most populous city in South Africa, behind Johannesburg.



interests in Africa and the Middle East that caused them to interfere with the newly free nations.



Colonized Africa

By World War I, most of Africa was ruled by countries like Great Britain, France, Spain, Belgium, the Netherlands, and Portugal. These nations set up colonies and colonial governments to rule Africa's regions. Not all European countries governed their colonies in the same way. Some colonies were governed by private companies; the British East Africa Company, for example, conquered what is now Uganda and Kenya and ruled the area for the British until 1895. Many colonies were governed directly by the home nation. Typically, a native of the home nation was appointed as governor and reported back to the government in the home country. The governor lived in and ran the colony from a city. In this city, officials and councils were appointed to help run the colony. Some of the councillors and officials were Africans who had been given a European education and a job as part of the colonial government. Direct rule is most associated with French, Portuguese,

Valuable Resources

Africa is a vast continent with a varied geography and a great diversity of cultures. But it was Africa's natural resources that were the prize for European powers that sought to colonize the continent. From the earliest era of colonization, Africa's land and African laborers were used to growing valuable cash crops like cotton, coffee, and cocoa. Over time, Europeans discovered more resources in Africa that they used to feed the growth of their industrial economies. Europeans sought large quantities of valuable minerals such as gold, diamonds, and tin. As industrialization in Europe developed, other resources like rubber and oil became more valuable, because these were used to produce and power new machines and methods of transport.



A gold mine in Burkina Faso

and Belgian colonies. The British mostly used a system called indirect rule in

places such as Ghana and Nigeria. There, the British entrusted part of the role of government to local rulers, to whom they gave power and support. For some colonial nations, indirect rule was considered easier and sometimes more effective than direct rule because the system worked with native rulers and local governments. Notably, the European colonizers were always afraid of the possibility of revolts and revolutions. Hence, the Europeans kept their grip on power through violence and harsh punishments for those who disobeyed or objected to their rule.

Another form of colonial system emerged in places like South Africa and Zimbabwe. These were called settler colonies. They are considered different from the others because so many Europeans moved to the colonies that they formed a ruling class consisting of white European settlers and their descendants. These white settlers put themselves at the top of a social and political system that gave white people more rights, opportunities, and protections than Black Africans.

Wherever they were, the colonies had their own armies, laws, and police forces. Colonial governments were expected to run the colonies to benefit their home nations, and they built infrastructure to

connect important places in the colonies through roads and rails. They built schools to educate children and to spread European ideas throughout the colonies.

Infrastructure was necessary to transport raw materials from mines and plantations to markets and ports. It was also used to transport soldiers and other equipment to control the colonies. Schools, houses, and government buildings built by the European colonizers allowed the European settlers to enjoy living standards similar to those they had in Europe. Schools, laws, and infrastructure were also useful tools of colonial government. For example, schools were used to educate local African children in European languages and values. When these children grew up, they found jobs serving the European colonial administrations. These colonial structures and laws would eventually form the core of the newly independent governments in the postcolonial era.



Workers dig for diamonds at the De Beers diamond mines in the late 1800s. Many of the first diamond mines were located in southern Africa.

Find Out the Facts



What are the uses of raw materials found in Africa, like diamonds, gold, phosphates, rubber, and ivory?

Think Twice



What were the advantages of indirect rule for colonial governments?



Colonialism Ends

World War II weakened colonial rule in Africa. Many Africans had fought as part of the Allied armies against the Axis Powers of Germany and Italy. Africa was also a major battlefield between 1940 and 1943, as German and Italian troops had tried to take over French- and British-controlled parts of the continent. The Free French armies who resisted the Nazis and Vichy France had a major power base in Cameroon and French Equatorial Africa (including the modern nations of Chad, Gabon, the Republic of the Congo, and the Central African Republic). Africans were not just called up to fight for France—they volunteered from all across the continent. These Africans who fought for France were told that their contributions would be honored after the war with greater independence.

To be clear, Africans did not sit idly by and accept colonial rule. Many wanted independence and equality. Those African veterans who fought in the war returned home with new skills to help already-developing nationalistic movements fighting for freedom from the colonizers. Meanwhile, the war weakened the colonial powers; the financial strain felt by European nations from both the war effort and the widespread destruction across Europe made governing far-off colonies impractical. Furthermore, the values the Allies fought for—freedom, self-determination, democracy—were embraced by Africans who wanted their own freedom and the right to govern their own nations.

In the French colony of Algeria, in North Africa, for example, the independence movement erupted into a major war. The Muslim population of Algeria fought for France, believing that this would help them gain independence. The French government recognized their contribution by giving some Algerians French citizenship after the war, but this did not go far enough for those who wanted a free Algeria. Algerians demonstrated for independence in 1945, and French soldiers shot the demonstrators. This

led to a period of violence that killed thousands of Algerians and some French settlers. In 1954, Algerian nationalists launched a war of independence. The Algerians used a mixture of guerrilla warfare and diplomatic pressure to achieve their goals, while the French responded with military force and harsh punishments, including torture, for Algerian nationalists. The conflict was very bloody. France sent as many as five hundred thousand soldiers to the country, and fighting killed up to a million and a half Algerians. Eventually, in 1962, France agreed to Algerian independence.

Like Algeria, Kenya won independence after a long conflict. In the mid-1940s, some Kenyans thought a more militant approach was needed to gain independence, so they organized a violent resistance to British rule. The British colonizers deemed the more militant independent fighters the *Mau Mau* and later banned the organization in 1950. However, the *Mau Mau* continued their militant attacks and assassinations against the British and any Kenyans who worked for them. The British government declared a state of emergency in Kenya and used harsh tactics against the *Mau Mau*. The British killed thousands of

Kenyans accused of being Mau Mau and sent thousands more Kenyans into detention camps. As many as 150,000 Kenyans were “screened”—interrogated or tortured—at the camps because they were accused of supporting the Mau Mau. The British killed at least ten thousand Mau Mau fighters, and thousands of additional Kenyans died in the fighting. However, the British actions only made the independence movement stronger. The fighting ended in 1960, and the British allowed elections to take place early the next year. These elections created a government that wrote a new constitution for an independent Kenya. Jomo Kenyatta (1894–1978), a leader in the movement for independence, became Kenya’s first prime minister. Notably, Kenyatta had spent most of the 1950s in prison because he had been accused of directing the Mau Mau attacks.

In other parts of Africa, nonviolent protest movements were successful in achieving independence. Some of these movements were led by people motivated by the goal of freeing African nations from European rule so that they could work to create a new African society together—an idea known as Pan-Africanism.

Kwame Nkrumah (1909–72) was one such leader. He was born in the British colony of the Gold Coast in West Africa. He studied in the United States, where he was inspired by the teachings of Christianity, Black American thinkers like Marcus Garvey, and the socialist ideas of Karl Marx and Vladimir Lenin. In the late 1940s, Nkrumah returned to the Gold Coast and got involved in the independence movement in the colony. In 1949, he formed the Convention People’s Party (CPP), which gained mass support among the people of the Gold Coast. The CPP demanded independence. The party organized protests, strikes, and other acts of noncooperation with the British authorities. Although the British put Nkrumah and others in prison, they could not stop the tide of change. Nkrumah won election to the Gold Coast’s new parliament. In 1952, he became prime minister. The CPP’s independence platform gave the party a large majority of seats in the Gold Coast parliament, and it used this power to formally gain the Gold Coast’s independence. In 1957, the Gold Coast was recognized as an independent nation and renamed Ghana.



Kwame Nkrumah was a successful nationalist leader who mobilized the Gold Coast's people in a campaign for independence.

The late 1950s was a period of immense success for African independence movements. In 1946, France had changed its empire into the French Union, which gave colonies a little power to govern themselves and to be represented in France. In 1958, changes to the French constitution turned the French Union into the French Community. The Community was a reaction to the Algerian war of independence. It was designed to give former colonies more autonomy while making sure France still controlled their resources and foreign policy. Every

French colony agreed to join except for Guinea, which decided to become independent instead. France cut off its economic support to Guinea in 1958 as a result of this decision. However, in late 1959, French president Charles de Gaulle said that any of France's colonies could choose to become independent. Cameroon declared independence on New Year's Day, 1960; a string of other colonies made similar declarations over the course of the year. All told, fourteen former French colonies in Africa became independent in 1960, as well as two British colonies and one Belgian colony. The year 1960 came to be known as the "Year of Africa."

Think Twice



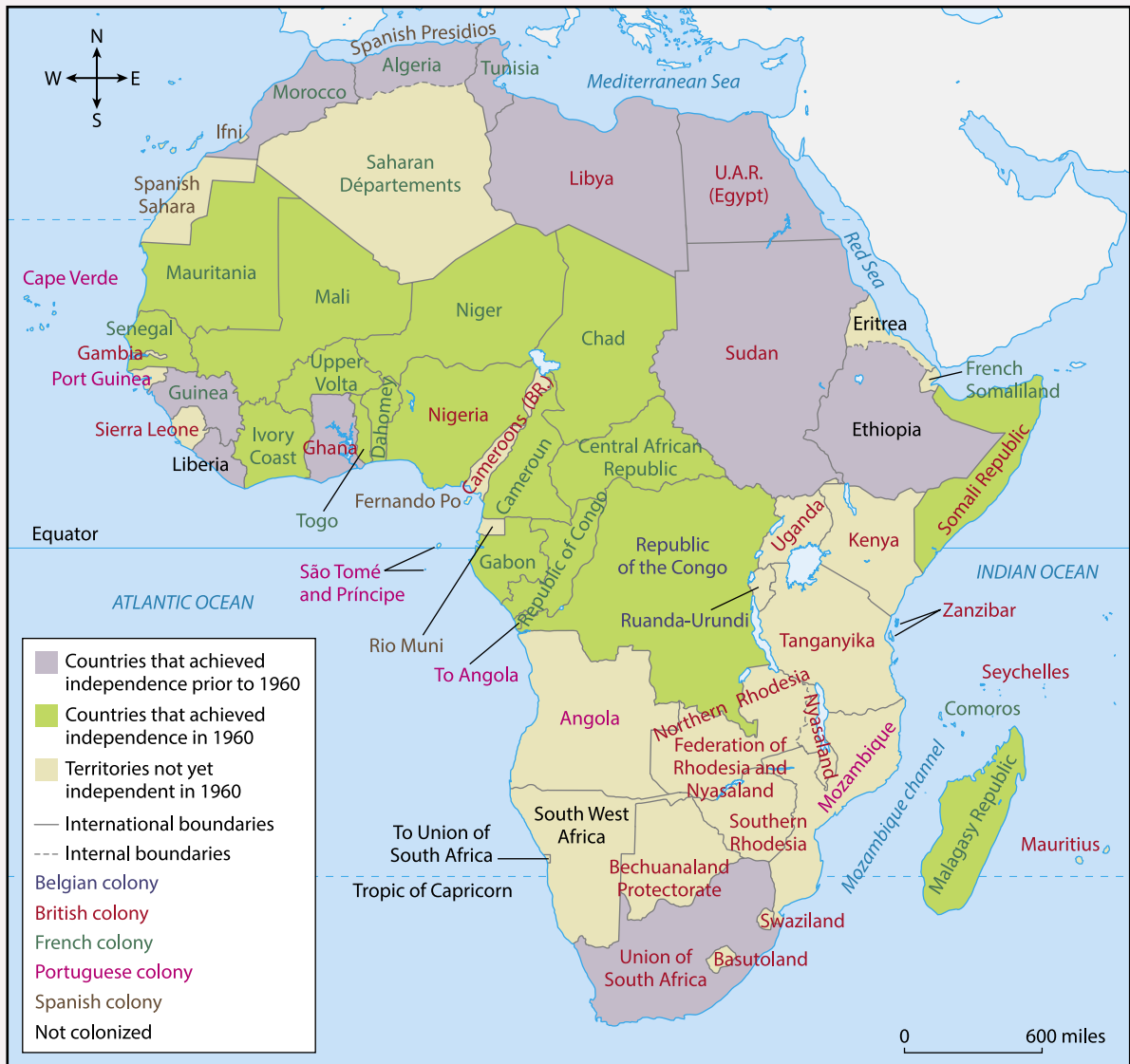
Why did some African nations choose independence over membership in the French Community?

Writers' Corner

Write a newspaper editorial from the perspective of an African who supports independence. Explain why you think independence would be best for your nation and why your country should end colonial rule.



Africa: Political Status in 1960



Struggles and Civil Wars

The newly independent African nations had won their liberty, but they faced many challenges. Their borders had been drawn by European powers, and many of the new countries contained

mixes of ethnic and religious groups that did not always agree with national policy—or with their neighbors. The new nations also had to decide what to do about laws and constitutions that had been written by Europeans in the colonial era, and they needed to decide what their relationships with

other countries around the world would be. This was vitally important because of the huge impact it could have on their economic futures. Many colonies had been set up to export wealth and resources to enrich powerful European empires. The new nations wanted to use their independence to benefit their own people. Continuing to sell resources was a quick and easy way to grow the economy, but it meant giving foreign nations a great deal of power to shape their economic and political destinies.

Libya is an example of how these problems led to instability, conflict, and oppression. Libya had been an Italian colony before World War II. After the war, a new Libyan nation was created, ruled by a king who declared the country independent in 1951. The country was poor and depended on foreign aid. In 1959, oil was discovered in Libya. Suddenly, Libya had a precious resource it could sell to the world, and the profits from oil sales made Libya's rulers very rich. The Libyan government developed close ties with countries like Britain and the United States. The king's positive relationship with the West was not shared by many Libyan people. When the king failed to criticize Israel after the Six-Day

War of 1967 (in which Israel defeated Egypt, Jordan, and Syria), Libya's military staged a coup in 1969. This brought a young officer named Muammar al-Qaddafi (1942–2011) to power. Qaddafi was a nationalist who ruled Libya as a dictator. He also supported guerrilla movements around the world and was alleged to have sponsored terrorism. Under Qaddafi's rule, Libya invaded several of its neighbors. Libya's oil wealth made Qaddafi rich, and it brought some development to the country, but it did not bring stability. Ultimately, Qaddafi was overthrown and killed in a revolt in 2011.

Conflict between different religious, ethnic, and cultural groups in some parts of Africa led to some of the worst massacres of the late twentieth century. Colonial powers had sometimes turned traditional groups into fixed legal categories with different privileges. This happened in Rwanda. The two main groups in Rwanda were the Tutsi and the Hutu. Traditionally, the Tutsi were a smaller, wealthier group, while most of the Hutu majority were poor farmers. When first Germany and then Belgium took control of Rwanda, they made the Tutsi into a true ruling class with their

own rights. When Rwanda gained its independence in 1961, it was because of a Hutu coup against the Tutsi rulers. Violence against Tutsis happened on and off in Rwanda for decades. In 1994, Hutu extremists launched a campaign of mass murder directed at Tutsis and moderate Hutus. More than eight hundred thousand people, mostly Tutsi, were killed. The violence in Rwanda is considered a genocide—a deliberate attempt to wipe out the Tutsi as a people and as a culture.

Political instability continued to plague other African countries. Some have been ruled as military dictatorships, as was Uganda under Idi Amin (1924–2003). Rule by dictators is bad enough, but war and disruption also result when dictators lose power. Mobutu Sese Seko (1930–97) ruled the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) as a dictator from 1965 to 1997. In 1997, he was removed in a rebellion. The DRC's new government banned political parties, leading to a rebellion that took control of the eastern part of the country. Some neighboring governments supported the DRC in the rebellion, while others armed the rebels. The conflict, which started in 1998 and lasted until 2003, involved nine nations and claimed

three million lives due to fighting, disease, and starvation.

Some African nations have seen their fortunes improve since the late twentieth century. In Ghana, a military officer named Jerry Rawlings took power in a coup in 1981 and was democratically elected in 1992. While he was in office, Rawlings brought political stability to the country and implemented economic reforms that led to higher growth rates than in many other African countries. He stepped down from the presidency in 2001, and a series of free and fair elections has followed. The country of Namibia gained its independence from South Africa in 1990 and established a politically stable democracy. It has one of the strongest economies in Africa and has seen strong growth for most of the last three decades.

Think Twice



Why was civil war so common in postcolonial Africa?

Find Out the Facts



Which nations were involved in the Second Congo War, and what were their goals?



South Africa

South Africa won its independence from Great Britain in 1910, but most of its people were not free. The Black population did not have the same rights and power as the white minority that controlled the government and the economy. Despite accounting for less than 20 percent of the population, the white minority officially imposed a system called **apartheid** in 1948. Apartheid means separateness. This policy separated the races and discriminated against non-whites. Under this system, white and non-white people were required to live in separate areas and could not use the same public facilities.

Vocabulary

apartheid, n. the South African policy of segregation and discrimination on the basis of race

The two-tiered racial system of apartheid was not a sudden creation. The white minority in South Africa had used laws to oppress the Black majority for decades before apartheid became law. In 1913, South Africa's government passed the Land

Act, which led to the forced removal of Black South Africans from their land. Their property was then sold by the government to white farmers at a reduced cost. Black South Africans were relocated to other areas, where they lived in poverty and despair. Marriage between white and Black people was prohibited, and Black people were required to identify themselves by showing a passbook when they traveled.

An organization of Black South Africans called the African National Congress (ANC) fought apartheid policies. Formed in 1912, shortly after South Africa's independence, it fought for the voting rights of non-white people in South Africa. After apartheid was enacted, the ANC protested government policies with nonviolent marches, strikes, and boycotts. The South African government tried to silence the organization by harassing its leaders. In 1960, police forces killed sixty-nine unarmed demonstrators in an incident known as the Sharpeville massacre, after which the government outlawed the ANC. Still, the organization carried on. Nelson Mandela, who had first led peaceful protests against apartheid, became the leader of an armed wing of the ANC called *Umkhonto we Sizwe* (Spear of the Nation). This wing carried out attacks against the South African

government. In 1964, Mandela and other ANC leaders were sentenced to life in prison for their militant activities.

Until the late 1970s, the ANC operated mostly underground, but it began to reemerge after police killed about six hundred Black South Africans during protests in the township of Soweto in 1976. The international community was outraged and began to pressure the South African government to end apartheid and release Mandela from prison. Countries, including the United States (after sustained domestic political protests sometimes led by prominent U.S. civil rights organizations), punished South Africa with **sanctions**.

Vocabulary

sanction, n. a penalty for disobeying a rule

Protests across South Africa and increasing pressure from the rest of the world created problems for the South African government. President F. W. de Klerk responded in 1990 by legalizing the ANC and freeing Nelson Mandela and other ANC leaders. The South African government began to end apartheid and in 1994 allowed South Africans of every race to vote. Nelson Mandela was elected president.

The election of Nelson Mandela gave Black South Africans hope for a better life, but they continued to struggle economically in the decades that followed. Apartheid had done lasting damage to Black South Africans. It had denied them education and work opportunities for decades, and it had kept money flowing to white areas, with the consequence of keeping places where Black people lived in miserable poverty. Black South Africans had little wealth, and the land and areas where they lived were often poor and lacking in critical infrastructure and services. Moreover, gaining political equality did not mean that Black South Africans gained economic power at the same time. By the early twenty-first century, white South Africans still controlled almost three-quarters of the country's farmland. White South Africans remain far richer than most Black South Africans, and the gap between the richest and poorest South Africans is one of the largest in the world.

Think Twice

How did Nelson Mandela's rise to power mirror the aspirations of non-white South Africans?





This memorial to Nelson Mandela, who died in 2013, is located in Johannesburg, South Africa.

It is incorrect to think of Africa only as a place with problems. Independence has brought many opportunities and successes to the continent and its peoples. African cities and nations have emerged as global leaders in science and technology in the new millennium. The cities of Algiers in Algeria, Lagos in Nigeria, Nairobi in Kenya, and Johannesburg in South Africa are all considered major international centers for business and culture. By 2013, more than six hundred million Africans were mobile phone users, especially young people and professionals. Innovators

across the continent have come up with new solutions to age-old problems, such as how to transport water and bring medical care to rural areas, and addressed new challenges like expanding mobile and Internet access. Many of these inventions are rooted in computer and mobile technology, an area in which African nations are leading the rest of the world.

Find Out the Facts



What are some recent achievements and developments made by Africans and African nations?

Writers' Corner



Write a brochure advertising a modern African city. Explain the city's history and how it has developed, and make a case for people to come live and work there.



The Middle East

The Middle East is not a distinctive geographic zone or a continent. It is a region defined primarily by European and American observers in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. The Middle East stretches from Egypt in the west to Afghanistan in the east and from the Arabian Peninsula in the south to Turkey in the north. North African nations such as Libya, Egypt, Tunisia, Morocco, and Algeria are sometimes considered part of the Middle East because they are majority-Muslim nations with a long history of close ties to the region. The term *Middle East* is part of the legacy of colonialism. The name was created by people from Europe and the United States to distinguish between this region and the Far East—China and Southeast Asia.

In the twentieth century, the Middle East became strategically very important to the world economy. This is because a large

proportion of the world's proven oil reserves are in the Middle East—principally in Saudi Arabia, Iran, Iraq, the United Arab Emirates, and Kuwait. The importance of oil to the world economy has made politics in the Middle East a subject of interest for many nations around the world and provided the region's governments with wealth and power that they could not have dreamed of in the colonial era of the nineteenth century.



Israel and Regional Conflicts

Prior to World War I, the Ottoman Empire controlled the land of Palestine. Palestine had a large Arab population. In the nineteenth century, a few thousand Jewish people lived in Palestine, most of them in and around Jerusalem. However, during this time, European anti-Semitism and a desire for self-determination led some Jews to seek a national homeland for themselves in Palestine. A political movement, **Zionism**, called for territory

Vocabulary

Zionism, n. the movement to establish and develop a Jewish nation in the land of Palestine

in Palestine to be handed over for the creation of a Jewish nation.

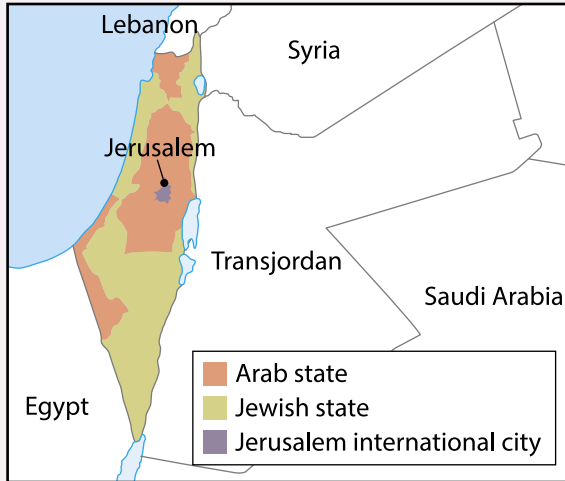
The empires of Germany and the Ottomans were broken up at the end of the war, and the League of Nations handed out former Ottoman territories to other nations to rule as mandates. Great Britain received a mandate to rule Palestine. In 1917, during the First World War, the British issued the Balfour Declaration, which officially supported the creation of a Jewish homeland in Palestine. The British did not follow through on their pledge, and Zionist movements campaigned throughout the 1920s and 1930s for them to do so. At the same time, many Jewish people fled to Palestine to escape persecution by the Nazis and their allies before and during World War II. The Jewish population in Palestine grew to about six hundred thousand by 1945. Arabs numbered around a million. Violence broke out between the two groups—and both sides attacked the British.

After World War II ended, the British decided to give up their mandate in Palestine. They let the United Nations decide what should be done. The UN created two states, one Jewish and one Arab, in 1947. The Jewish state declared its independence as Israel in 1948.

The division of Palestine set up a long-running conflict between the Jewish state and the Arab population that is still ongoing, both within Israel and in surrounding countries. One trigger for violence is the status of Jerusalem. As part of the division, the holy city of Jerusalem was divided in half. Jews and Muslims both consider Jerusalem to be among the holiest cities in the world. Another cause is the belief by Arabs that Israel is another colonial state that has forced Palestinians from their land. Immediately after the signing of the Israeli Declaration of Independence in 1948, armies from the neighboring Arab countries of Egypt, Jordan, Iraq, Syria, and Lebanon launched a war against Israel. Israelis also seized land from Palestinians. Fighting lasted for ten months. When it ended, Israel had expanded its territory beyond the land that had been designated for the Jewish state, and many people had been displaced—but Israel's independence was certain.

In 1967, Israel fought the Six-Day War against Syria and Egypt. Groups that supported an independent Arab state in Palestine launched guerrilla attacks against Israel. Israel launched air strikes against these groups and fought small

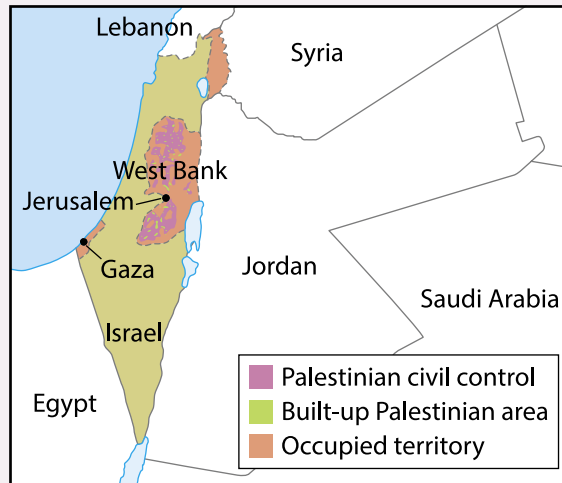
UN Partition Plan for Palestine



After the 1967 War



Israel's Boundaries Today



Israel has expanded its territory over the years.

battles against Syrian forces. Syria and its ally Egypt gathered their forces, fearing that Israel would attack. Israel's leaders feared that Syria and Egypt were going to invade, so they struck first. In a very quick campaign, Israel destroyed Egypt's air force and took control of Gaza and the Sinai Peninsula. Israel also occupied the Syrian territories of Golan and the

Jordanian areas of the West Bank and East Jerusalem. Less than a week after the war had started, the United Nations brokered a cease-fire.

Six years later, in 1973, Egypt launched a surprise attack on Israel during Yom Kippur, the holiest day of the year for Jewish people. The two nations battled for about three weeks. In 1979, Egypt

and Israel signed a peace treaty to end the off-and-on war that had been fought between the two countries for thirty years. Israel returned the Sinai Peninsula to Egypt, and Egypt agreed that Israel had the right to exist.

After the establishment of Israel in 1948 and the war that immediately followed, approximately 750,000 Palestinians fled the land they considered their home. Now homeless, these Palestinians spread across different neighboring countries and were not organized politically. In 1964, Palestinian leaders formed the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO). It was formed to free Palestinians from what it considered to be a military occupation and to bring about the destruction of the state of Israel. Yasser Arafat became the leader of the PLO in 1969 and directed the organization to carry out attacks on both the Israeli military and civilians.

From 1987 to 1991, Palestinians participated in a series of protests and riots called the first intifada to protest the occupation of Gaza and the West Bank. This led to a peace agreement called the Oslo Accords, which established the Palestinian National Authority as the governing body of parts of Gaza and the West Bank. It also set a

timetable for Israel to slowly withdraw from some of the occupied territories. The peace process was derailed by the second intifada, which was much more violent than the first and lasted from 2000 to 2005. Israel withdrew from Gaza toward the end of 2005. Fighting between Israelis and Palestinians continues to flare up occasionally as they struggle to find an acceptable solution that both sides can agree to.

Find Out the Facts



Learn about the Palestinian belief in the right of return.

Think Twice



How is the Israel-Palestine conflict connected to the ancient history of the region?



Egypt

An Egyptian revolution that started in 1919 led to the end of British rule in Egypt in 1922. However, the British and the French refused to give up control of the Suez Canal, which they saw as vital to their trade interests. This caused tension for more than



thirty years and eventually contributed to another revolution in 1952. An army officer named Gamal Abdel Nasser (1918–70) orchestrated the overthrow of King Farouk, whom many Egyptians believed was corrupt and had not done enough to oppose the British or to challenge Israel.

In 1956, Nasser's government took control of the Suez Canal. The seizure was in reaction to a broken promise by the United States. The U.S. government had promised to finance the creation of a hydroelectric dam at Aswan on the Nile River that would provide electricity for Egypt. The Americans had then changed their minds and backed out. Nasser seized the Suez Canal Company to pay for the dam and provide income for his country—and also to show that Egypt was not going to be bullied by Western powers.

Those same powers—Britain, France, and Israel—decided to invade Egypt to seize back control of the canal in October 1956. Israel sent troops into Egypt, and British and French soldiers followed, supposedly to enforce a UN cease-fire. But the British and French had miscalculated. The United States was anxious that the Soviet Union would use Britain and France's actions to get involved on Egypt's behalf. U.S.

leaders feared a major war would erupt. After about a week of fighting in Egypt, the United States intervened through UN resolutions. The United States threatened to impose sanctions on Britain and France if their attacks continued. The Europeans soon withdrew their forces; Israel left early the next year. Nasser's success strengthened his rule in Egypt.

Nasser died in 1970 and was succeeded by Anwar al-Sadat, who pursued friendlier relations with the West and Israel. The Camp David Accords he signed with Israel

in 1978 received a great deal of support from the Egyptian people but angered many leaders in the Arab world. He was assassinated in 1981 in part because of his efforts to make peace with Israel. Hosni Mubarak then ruled Egypt from 1981 until 2012. Mubarak was an authoritarian who also pursued close ties with the West, until he was removed in the popular revolutions of the Arab Spring.

Think Twice



Why was Anwar al-Sadat assassinated?



From left to right: Anwar al-Sadat, U.S. president Jimmy Carter, and Israeli prime minister Menachem Begin at the Camp David peace summit



Revolution in Iran

In 1941, Mohammad Reza Pahlavi became the shah, or king, of Iran. He favored having strong ties with Great Britain and the United States. Nationalists led by Mohammad Mosaddegh disagreed with the shah's approach. They wanted Iran's oil wealth to be used to fund development programs to benefit ordinary Iranians. Mosaddegh built political support for a program to nationalize Iran's oil company. In 1951, Mosaddegh's oil nationalization law passed, and the shah made him the country's premier. The nationalization angered Great Britain and the United States, which lost a favorable price for Iran's oil in the process. In 1953, the United States and Great Britain orchestrated a coup that overthrew Mosaddegh and returned the shah to total control of Iran. Mosaddegh was jailed for treason, and the profits from Iranian oil were renegotiated. Iran got to keep half, while an international group got the other half.

The shah was a brutal ruler who maintained a large secret police and routinely jailed and tortured his opponents. His government was also corrupt, and the country's oil wealth was used to enrich a small number of Iranians. Many Iranians who lived in rural areas

disliked the shah's embrace of the West and Western ideas. Many of these people were poor, and they believed in what they felt were traditional Islamic values. One especially outspoken critic was Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini, a **fundamentalist** who advocated the overthrow of the shah. He wanted to transform Iran into an Islamic state. The shah felt that the ayatollah, a religious leader, was a threat to his rule and removed him from the country.

Vocabulary

fundamentalist, n. a person who adheres strictly and literally to a set of basic principles, such as religious principles

In the mid-1970s, Islamic leaders grew even angrier with the rule of the shah, who responded by brutally suppressing the opposition. Dissatisfied with Iran's economy and the shah's rule, more members of the public began to support Khomeini. The shah responded to demonstrations against him in September 1978 by ordering his security forces to fire into a crowd. Hundreds were killed, and thousands more were wounded. Riots broke out two months later, and Khomeini called for the overthrow of the shah. In December, the governing regime fell when members of the shah's army turned against him. He fled the country.



A portrait of Ayatollah Khomeini hangs in Imam Square in Isfahan, Iran, in 2018.

Khomeini became the leader of the new Islamic Republic of Iran in 1979. The new government set up a **theocracy** based on religious beliefs and implemented Islamic laws. Like the shah's government had done, the new government repressed dissent. Unlike the shah's government, the new government treated the United States and other Western countries as adversaries. In late 1979, student revolutionaries, likely supporters of Khomeini, stormed the United States embassy in Tehran, the capital of Iran, and took more than fifty American hostages. They were held for 444 days before their release.

Vocabulary

theocracy, n. a system of government by religious leaders

Find Out the Facts



What do women in Iran have to wear according to their country's religious laws? What other countries have dress codes for women?

Find Out the Facts



Which countries belong to the Arab League?

Conflicts in the Persian Gulf

Iran's neighbor, Iraq, was ruled from 1979 to 2003 by Saddam Hussein (1937–2006). Hussein was an Arab nationalist who used force and repression to control the country. Unlike the Iranian government, Iraq's ruling party was secular; the ruling Ba'ath Party was originally formed as a party for closer cooperation between independent Arab nations. This caused tension with the Iranian revolutionary government. The Iranians disliked secularism, and the Iraqis feared that an Islamic revolution would spread to Iraq. Iraq and Iran had been hostile to each other throughout the 1970s because of disputes over territory. In 1980, Saddam Hussein ordered an invasion of Iran. This caused a war that lasted until 1988. The Iran-Iraq War killed as many as

half a million people but did not result in a victory for either side.

Saddam Hussein kept looking for ways to expand Iraq's power and wealth—and his own. In 1990, Iraq invaded and annexed the neighboring country of Kuwait to claim its oil fields. A United States–led coalition of international forces quickly repelled Hussein's forces from Kuwait in the 1991 Persian Gulf War, yet Hussein remained in power.

On September 11, 2001, **terrorists** belonging to the Islamic fundamentalist group al-Qaeda launched an attack on the United States. They hijacked and flew planes into the twin towers of the World Trade Center in New York City; the Pentagon, just outside Washington, D.C.; and a field in Pennsylvania. In total, nearly three thousand people, including the nineteen hijackers, were killed that day. The United States responded by launching a war against the Taliban, the de facto government of Afghanistan, which had allowed al-Qaeda to use the country as its headquarters. The United States quickly

Vocabulary

terrorist, n. a person who uses violence against civilians to achieve political goals

Think Twice



Why did the United States go to war in Afghanistan after the attacks of September 11, 2001?

removed the Taliban from power and set up a new government friendly to its interests. In 2011, U.S. soldiers in Pakistan found Osama bin Laden, the al-Qaeda leader responsible for the September 11 attacks, and killed him. The war in Afghanistan continued until 2021, when the United States withdrew all its troops. The Taliban quickly returned to power.

Concurrently, the United States invaded Iraq in 2003 based on claims that Iraq had weapons of mass destruction. Hussein was forced from power, tried for war crimes, and eventually executed. Hussein's removal left Iraq without a strong leader. Different factions of Shiites and Sunnis violently vied for power. They launched attacks against civilians, government workers, and military personnel from the United States and other countries. It's unclear how many Iraqis died during the Iraq War, but some experts believe the number to be more than five hundred thousand. U.S. troops finally left in 2011. Since then, the country has struggled to find stability. Weapons of mass destruction were never found.

Chapter 10

Latin America in the Second Half of the Twentieth Century



Latin America

In the second half of the twentieth century, many Latin American nations began to transition from military dictatorships to democracies. Populist leaders tapped into the energy of the working classes and took control in many places. The United States continued its involvement in Latin America as the Cold War accelerated. In the 1970s, military dictatorships took control of many Latin American countries, but democracy eventually returned in most places.

Vocabulary

populist, adj. relating to the support for policies that benefit the working class

The Big Question

How did Latin American leaders connect with the people of their nations?



Revolutionary leaders such as Che Guevara are honored throughout Cuba. Many Cubans drive cars built in the 1940s and 1950s because restrictions on trade have made it difficult to acquire new cars.



Mexico and Central America

The only country in North America that is also considered to be part of Latin America is Mexico. Central America stretches from Guatemala through Panama and is made up of countries that have varying levels of industrialization. Central American countries rely largely on agricultural exports such as coffee, sugar, and bananas, and raw materials. Most Central American nations were once colonial possessions of Spain before they achieved their independence. The United States also inserted itself into Central American and Caribbean commerce and governance in the early twentieth century. It intervened more than thirty times before 1933, at which point President Franklin Roosevelt adopted the Good Neighbor Policy, which called for an end to armed U.S. intervention in Latin America.

Mexico

Mexico is the third-largest country in Latin America. Its growing economy favors the wealthy elite, many of whom

are landowners and investors, and passes over the millions of urban and rural poor. Considered to be a developing nation, Mexico is an important economic and political player in Latin America thanks to its booming industry and service sectors as well as its mineral resources. Like many other countries, Mexico's recent history includes periods of civil war and unrest.

Mexican Revolution veteran Venustiano Carranza (1859–1920) became the first president of the new Mexican republic in 1917. He oversaw the rewriting of the Mexican constitution. Carranza was eventually succeeded by Lázaro Cárdenas (1895–1970) in 1934. Cárdenas was the first Mexican president to truly implement the economic and social reforms outlined in the 1917 constitution. Cárdenas cut his own salary, removed corrupt union leadership, and distributed forty-four million acres of land to the Mexican people through land reform. He embraced economic populism by nationalizing railroads and the oil industry. Taking control of its own oil allowed Mexico to develop an economy independent from the United States and western Europe, which at the time was

a significant accomplishment for a Latin American country.

The Institutional Revolutionary Party (PRI) took over as the nation's dominant political force after Cárdenas's presidency ended in 1940. The conservative group created a system that ensured political stability and avoided a repeat of the political assassinations that had characterized the revolutionary era. Each president served a term of six years. The president and PRI leadership would choose a successor, whose victory was practically guaranteed by the endorsement of influential political leaders. Those who didn't like the system, which essentially made Mexico a one-political-party nation, were satisfied by the PRI's practice of selecting presidents with different political beliefs.

The PRI was eventually taken down by charges of corruption. The devastating 1985 earthquake in Mexico City revealed that political leaders had awarded construction contracts to businesses that cut costs by overlooking safety measures, many of which were in place to prevent damage from earthquakes.

In 2000, Vicente Fox, a businessman and

right-wing populist, won the presidency as a member of the National Action Party (PAN).



A hotel collapses after Mexico City's 1985 earthquake, which measured 8.1 on the Richter scale. More than ten thousand people died in the earthquake; forty thousand more were injured.



Think Twice

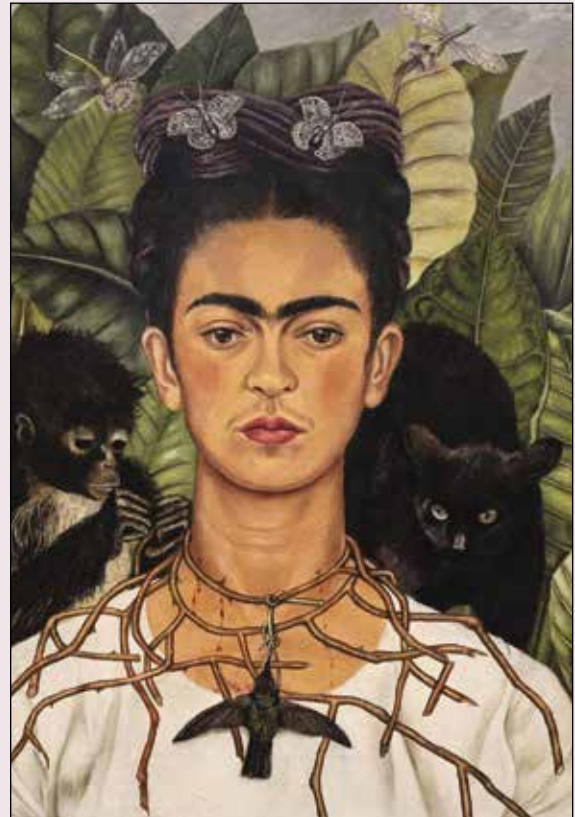
How did the earthquake in 1985 show the effects of the PRI's corruption?

Guatemala

The first peaceful transition of power in Guatemala's history took place in 1950, when Jacobo Arbenz replaced Juan José Arévalo as president. Arbenz was elected on his promise to make Guatemala economically independent. He embraced the idea of agrarian reform that would raise the standard of living for all. In 1952, he passed a reform that would redistribute

Frida Kahlo

Today, Frida Kahlo (1907–54) is one of the world's most recognized artists, but she didn't have her first solo exhibition until the year before she died. She is known for her self-portraits, which often focused on her personal health challenges and pain. Kahlo had polio as a child and was in a devastating trolley accident as a young adult. As a result, she was in great pain for most of her life. In 2021, one of her portraits sold for \$34.9 million, the most ever paid for artwork by a Latin American artist.



uncultivated land from large, wealthy estates to rural workers. Much of this land was owned by the United Fruit Company, an American corporation.

The concept of land reform alarmed the U.S. government, which believed that communists would use the policy to organize the population. It instructed the CIA to undermine and destabilize the Guatemalan government and authorized the U.S. Air Force to provide arms to Guatemalan military officer Colonel Carlos Castillo Armas (1914–57). Castillo Armas successfully staged a military coup against the democratically elected Arbenz in 1954 and claimed the presidency. He halted the agrarian reform program, returned all confiscated land to the United Fruit Company, and thwarted farmworkers' attempts to unionize. Castillo Armas was assassinated by one of his own guards in 1957.

U.S. intervention in Guatemala was deeply unpopular with Latin Americans. For some, it was a life-defining event. Ernesto "Che" Guevara (1928–67), an Argentine physician working in Guatemala, took up arms against the U.S.-backed Guatemalan military to fight for Arbenz. Guevara believed that political reform could not be achieved through the ballot box and instead opted for revolution. Along with

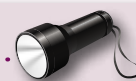
Raúl (b. 1931) and Fidel Castro (1926–2016), Guevara became one of the leaders of the 1959 Cuban Revolution.



Che Guevara (left) and Fidel Castro

Military governments subsequently ruled Guatemala for several decades. A gruesome civil war spanning thirty-six years resulted in the death of about two hundred thousand people, more than 80 percent of whom were Indigenous Guatemalans. A 1996 peace agreement finally restored the nation's representative government. Today, Guatemala is considered to be a less developed nation. Two-fifths of its population works in agriculture; another two-fifths works in the service sector. The

Find Out the Facts



Learn about the role of the United States' Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) in the coup that overthrew Jacobo Arbenz.

remaining one-fifth of the population works in manufacturing and construction.

Panama

Panama, or the Republic of Panama, was the first Spanish colony on the Pacific. It is the location of the famous Panama Canal, which connects the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans. It was recognized as an independent nation by the United States in 1903 after it allowed joint control of the Canal Zone.

In 1977, U.S. president Jimmy Carter broke with the interventionist policies that his predecessors had taken toward Latin America and signed a treaty that promised to return the Canal Zone to Panama on December 31, 1999. In 1989, during the presidency of George H. W. Bush, the United States helped overthrow Panamanian military dictator Manuel Noriega. That did not affect ownership of the Canal Zone, which was transferred in 1999 as planned.



Nicaragua

Nicaragua was subject to United States intervention many times during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Between 1934 and 1979, the Somoza dynasty ruled Nicaragua. It was known for violence against its enemies and for corruption. For example, foreign aid intended to help the Nicaraguan people after a devastating earthquake in 1972 instead went to the Somoza family and their supporters.

In 1979, a rebel group called the Sandinistas carried out a successful socialist revolution against the Somoza regime. However, maintaining unity in the revolution's aftermath was difficult. One of the first orders of business was land reform. The Sandinistas confiscated and redistributed land owned by the Somoza family, which amounted to about 20 percent of all Nicaraguan land. Before long, demands of the rural poor soon came into conflict with the desires of landowners.

The Sandinista revolution occurred at a time of political change in the United States. New president Ronald Reagan took a hard-line stance against the so-called red tide of communism in the Americas. The Reagan administration helped fund and train a counterrevolutionary military force

called the Contras to topple the Sandinistas. The Contras consisted largely of ex-members of the Nicaraguan National Guard who had once served in Somoza's military.

In the Nicaraguan presidential election of 1984, Sandinista leader Daniel Ortega (b. 1945) won 67 percent of the vote. The following year, the United States imposed a five-year trade embargo that strangled Nicaragua's economy. Even though the U.S. Congress passed bills that called for an end to Contra funding, the Reagan administration continued to secretly support the counterrevolutionaries. In 1986, it was revealed that the U.S. National Security Council had illegally sold weapons to Iran at inflated prices and used the profits to fund the Contras. This is known as the Iran-Contra Affair.

In 1990, Nicaraguans surprised many onlookers with the election of Violeta Barrios de Chamorro (b. 1929), a newspaper publisher who had once served in the Sandinista government before speaking out against its Marxist and authoritarian leanings. As president, she proclaimed an end to fighting and announced unconditional forgiveness for political crimes. Another political surprise was the election of Ortega to the presidency once

again in 2006. His twenty-first-century presidency has been quite different from his presidency during the Sandinista era. His implementation of conservative laws, support for extreme right-wing ideology, and suppression of the press have drawn comparisons to the Somoza dynasty that Ortega helped overthrow in 1979.



Contra rebels prepare to cross the border from Honduras into Nicaragua in July 1986.

Writers' Corner

Write a victory speech for Violeta Chamorro to give following her 1990 election win.



El Salvador

El Salvador's economy was largely agricultural in the early twentieth century. Rural workers were frequently exploited

by influential landowners who hoarded wealth and land. Salvadorans fought back. Students organized protests. Catholic priests focused their work on improving the lives of their rural parishioners, many of whom began demanding political change. Those in power began viewing the Catholic Church as an enemy of the ruling elite, the armed forces, and the landowning oligarchy.

Beginning in the 1960s, guerrilla and anti-government forces in El Salvador drew support from the rural and often migratory peasantry. The success of the Sandinistas in 1979 inspired Salvadorans to also rise against their oppressive government. Between 1979 and 1985, a rebel group called the Farabundo Martí National Liberation Front (FMLN) almost overthrew Nicaragua's ruling elite. The Reagan administration, however, strongly supported the Salvadoran military in its fight against the FMLN guerrillas. Between 1980 and 1992, the United States sent El Salvador's government more than \$4 billion in economic and military aid. The assassination of Archbishop Óscar Romero in 1980 and the murder of eight people, including six Catholic priests, in 1989 were two of many tragedies that

provoked international pressure to end the ongoing war. The United Nations finally brokered a peace agreement between the Salvadoran government and the FMLN in 1992. It required the establishment of a truth commission to investigate the causes of the violence.



South America

Brazil

The Brazilian economy, which was largely based on coffee exports, was hit hard by the global depression of the 1930s. Getúlio Vargas (1882–1954), a well-known Brazilian politician, represented the reform party in the 1930 presidential election. After he lost, he led an armed revolution that overthrew Brazil's oligarchic government. Vargas and his working-class supporters disapproved of the oligarchy of business interests that had ruled the country. Vargas centralized power by replacing the corrupt coffee barons who ruled the southern part of the nation. In 1937, with the help of the Brazilian military, he assumed dictatorial powers and rewrote the country's constitution. This period was known as the New State.

Inspired by Mussolini's rule in Italy, Vargas imposed an authoritarian regime and prohibited political parties that opposed his government. He stressed that nationalism would unify a country composed of many different groups of people. Vargas brought large numbers of working-class citizens of mixed-race descent into his nationalist movement by linking nationalism with a glorification of racial mixing. Vargas ruled with some violence, but Brazilians cared more about the results he delivered. He made improvements to the educational system, enacted social security laws, established a minimum wage, and gave women the right to vote, among other initiatives.

Vargas was overthrown during a 1945 military coup but still maintained widespread public support. He was elected president of Brazil in 1951 and, until his death in 1954, led in a more democratic manner than before. This approach was followed by subsequent presidents until 1964, when the military took control of the country out of fear of a communist revolution.

Writers' Corner



Write a journal entry from a young person's point of view during Getúlio Vargas's revolution.

Argentina

Populist Juan Domingo Perón (1895–1974) was an Argentine military officer who rose to power during a 1943 government coup. As minister of labor, he recognized that workers could be an important political force. He became so well-loved by workers that the other military officers, threatened by his growing power, arrested and jailed him. His supporters took to the streets and demanded his release. Perón was freed on October 17, 1945, which is now known in Argentina as Loyalty Day. He was elected president in 1946.

Men mostly controlled politics during the populist era. Eva "Evita" Duarte de Perón (1919–52), the wife of Juan Perón, was an exception. Despite never being elected to office, she became one of the most powerful female leaders in Latin America. A well-known radio performer, Evita transformed the traditionally supportive role of the First Lady in Argentina and became a leading voice for change. One of her early successes was helping establish the national vote for women in 1947.

Evita was also well-known for her deep connection with the people of Argentina. Argentine adults and children mailed her requests for items they needed, which

she delivered in person at a government building called the Pink House. The communication skills she developed as a radio performer served her well during the many powerful speeches she gave from the Pink House's balcony.



Eva Perón makes a speech on the balcony of the Pink House.

Evita fought for women's rights but did so in a traditional way. She presented radical ideas, like giving women who worked in the home a monthly salary, but also argued that men should continue to take the leading role. Evita often said that everything she did was for her husband, casting herself as the symbolic mother of all Argentines—a role that working-class Argentines embraced. Perón lost one of his most vocal and visible supporters when Evita died in 1952.

Find Out the Facts



Find out more about the cultural impact of Eva Perón, such as the 1976 musical *Evita*. How does her portrayal in pop culture compare to the reality of her life?

Perón rewrote Argentina's constitution in 1949. Workers now had a bill of rights, but free speech was restricted. Due to the economic difficulty of supporting the working classes, Perón found himself under pressure from the military and the Church to step down from power. The military overthrew him in 1955. Because he was so popular, the Argentine military tried to erase all memory of Perón and attempted to "de-Perónize" society by prohibiting any politician belonging to the Peronist party from holding office. Perón himself was exiled to Spain.

The political tensions of the Cold War and the economic turmoil of the 1970s fragmented Argentine society. Public opinion shifted, and it was generally agreed that Perón was the only person who could return stability to the country. He returned to Argentina and was reelected president in 1973 but died in office of a heart attack the following year.

Writers' Corner



Write a song about the impact that Juan and Eva Perón had on the people of Argentina.

Colombia

Colombia is the third most populous country in Latin America, after Brazil and Mexico. Its history often diverts from the path of other Latin American nations. For example, Colombia experienced waves of violence after the assassination of popular politician and presidential hopeful Jorge Eliécer Gaitán in 1948. This period was known as La Violencia, or the Era of Violence. Laureano Gómez (1889–1965), an extremely conservative politician who was suspected of being involved in Gaitán's assassination, was elected president of Colombia in 1950. He believed that elite politicians were better leaders than those who catered to the masses. After censoring the press, restricting the courts, and persecuting Protestants, Gómez was overthrown by the Colombian military in 1953. His replacement, General Gustavo Rojas Pinilla (1900–75), was a corrupt authoritarian whose presidency was even more restrictive than Gómez's.

Guerrilla insurgent groups faded away in most of Latin America after the Cold War, but

Populists and Democracy

Were the populists of Latin America democratic? On the one hand, they improved the lives of women and the working classes. They limited the hours of the work week, provided social security, and increased wages. Populists' power increased through their support of working-class people. Those people organized into unions and voted for the populists. Small details had big impacts. For example, Perón passed the "law of the chair," which enabled cashiers, security guards, and other workers to sit while working.

However, this populism was also hierarchical, directed from above by a male leader who held great appeal for the people. Populists didn't support democratic institutions. They controlled the press and wrote textbooks that supported their political and economic goals.

Populists embraced nationalism. The mid-twentieth century saw increased pride in national identity and the history and traditions of one's nation. This sense of nationalism inherently rejected concepts of foreign superiority, which had dominated the ideas of Latin American elites in the nineteenth century.

not in Colombia, where the Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia (FARC) and other groups waged war in the countryside. Identifying as Marxist forces, they supported their movement with money they made from trading in illegal drugs and kidnapping to hold them for ransom. Álvaro Uribe (b. 1952) was elected president of Colombia in 2002 and waged a war against these rebel groups. More than two hundred thousand Colombians lost their lives in this conflict, and millions more were displaced. Uribe was reelected and served until 2010.



Think Twice

How does the history of Colombia differ from that of other Latin American nations?

South American Military Dictatorships

Neither revolutions nor populist leaders solved the economic and political challenges of Latin American nations. Economic reforms that led to the replacement of imports with domestic products did not lead to higher standards of living, as had been promised. Wealthy landowners and prosperous business owners worried about erosion of their

1948 CE
La Violencia (Colombia)

1949 CE
People's Republic of China is founded

1950–53 CE
Korean War

1954 CE
Castillo Armas stages a military coup to take control of Guatemala

1959 CE
Cuban Revolution

1961 CE
Bay of Pigs invasion (Cuba)






1961 CE
Construction of Berlin Wall begins

1973 CE
Cease-fire agreement in Vietnam

1979 CE
Sandinista socialist revolution (Nicaragua)

1994 CE
Apartheid ends (South Africa)

1999 CE
United States returns Canal Zone to Panama

authority and profit margins. Economic crises gave way to political chaos. Historically, the military had stepped temporarily in to restore calm, but modern, more advanced militaries took power and wanted to permanently replace democracy with military rule.

The democratic governments of several South American countries were ruthlessly overthrown in the 1960s and 1970s. These new military regimes opposed populist governments that were attempting to improve their nations' economies, end foreign dependency, and reduce societal polarization. Military leaders believed that democracy had proven ineffective at stopping the rise of communism and furthering the development of South American economies.

The rise of military dictatorships in South America resulted in full-scale attacks on democratic institutions. Political parties were banned, legislatures were shut down, the press was censored, and all lawmaking was done by decree. Dictators reversed populist policies that benefited workers and instead banned unions, strikes, and other public demonstrations. They seized control of education and media and reshaped them into tools of propaganda. Region-wide, the military regimes shared

the belief that communism or other communist-like political forces had contaminated their nations and needed to be purged from society. Each regime set up special security forces to kidnap and kill anyone suspected of **leftist** or anti-government activities. In Argentina alone, historians estimate that up to thirty thousand people were "disappeared," or kidnapped and never seen again.

Vocabulary

leftist, adj. relating to having left-wing political views



A protester at an anti-Pinochet rally holds a flier that names some of those who disappeared during Pinochet's dictatorship.

The beginning of the Cuban Revolution in 1953 prompted the U.S. government to assess the appeal of communism to Latin American countries. It decided to combat the spreading ideology by funneling money into Latin American economies. Between 1955 and 1976, Argentina received almost

\$400 million in military support from the United States. In Chile, the U.S. Navy and CIA provided military support for the September 11, 1973, coup that replaced socialist president Salvador Allende (1908–73) with dictator Augusto Pinochet (1915–2006).

Influenced by economists from the United States, Chile under Pinochet embraced capitalism. Pinochet rewrote the nation's constitution. Universities were put under the control of military men, who controlled course curricula and the hiring and firing of faculty. History courses were restructured around war heroes and stories of building the nation. By 1980, Chile had become the most privatized and unregulated economy in the world. How successful the economy was for Chileans depended on their social class. The ranks of the upper and middle classes expanded, creating devastating conditions for the lower-middle class and the poor.

Pinochet responded to criticism of his rule by holding an election in 1988 that asked Chileans whether he should remain in office. He was confident he would win because he had courted the women's vote, and Chilean women had historically been more conservative than men. However, women still faced great financial hardship trying to feed their families, even though they were

working more than ever before. Pinochet lost the election but maintained his role as head of the armed forces until 1998.

Find Out the Facts



Learn which industries Salvador Allende nationalized in Chile and what he did to help the working class.

In Argentina, the military tried to divert attention from its repressive rule and faltering economy by invading the Falkland Islands, also called the Malvinas Islands, which had been a source of dispute between Britain and Argentina since 1833. The 1982 invasion was a failure, as were the Argentine military dictatorship's efforts to help the economy.

Raúl Alfonsín (1927–2009) was democratically elected president of Argentina in 1983. During his first week in office, he created the National Commission on the Disappeared. It compiled a report detailing the disappearances of Argentine civilians, worked to locate survivors, and tried to find the bodies of those who had been killed. Alfonsín also agreed to give the outgoing military government **immunity** to ensure a stable future for the country.

Vocabulary

immunity, n. exemption from criminal prosecution

In Brazil, the military regime began a slow transition to democracy in the 1970s during a period known as the *abertura*, or opening. The original reason for the military takeover—the threat of a communist revolution—was no longer a concern in 1974, giving the military less reason to stay in power and less legitimacy in general. The Catholic Church in particular turned against the military due to its many human rights abuses. Military leaders claimed that they had never wanted to permanently rule and stepped down.

The aftermath of these dictatorships resulted in many challenges for South American countries as they made their transitions to democracy, including the question of how to hold the military governments accountable for their brutal treatment each nation's citizens. Most nations wanted to move forward but still acknowledge the past. They did so by establishing days of remembrance, repurposing detention centers into museums about the military era, and building memory parks and other markers of public space.

Mothers of the Plaza de Mayo

In Argentina, most college students live at home and go to the university in their city. During the years of military dictatorship, many Argentine students disappeared. They simply did not come home one day. Mothers organized themselves to demand answers from the state about the whereabouts of their children.

A ban on the assembly of groups larger than two people made organizing difficult. The mothers developed a plan to avoid arrest while also informing the public that their children had been disappeared by the military. On Saturday, April 30, 1977, a little more than a year into the military dictatorship, a small group of mothers marched in front of the Pink House government building. They walked in pairs around the central Plaza de Mayo so as not to violate the strict law that limited groups to two people. They wore white scarves to symbolize their roles as mothers and carried posters with photos of their children and the date they were last seen. They demanded that the government tell them what happened to their children. This was the first of more than two thousand marches that eventually led to trials of thousands of killers.





The Caribbean

The Caribbean refers to the islands of the Caribbean Sea, whose economies rely on fishing and the export of agricultural products such as sugarcane as well as tourism. Most are former colonies of Spain, France, England, or the Netherlands. However, some still remain under the control of foreign powers, such as Puerto Rico, which is a territory of the United States. The history of many of the Caribbean islands includes the decimation of Indigenous peoples, like the Taino, who were the original inhabitants of the Caribbean. Colonial powers enslaved both the native populations and Africans to harvest the region's abundant and profitable sugar.

Cuba

No event impacted Cold War tensions in Latin America more than the Cuban Revolution of 1959. Cuba's evolution toward an alliance with the Soviet Union during the Cold War was a result of its history of being interfered with, first by four hundred years of Spanish colonialism and then by the United

States after the Spanish-American War of 1898. Although Cuba won formal independence that year, the United States became heavily involved in its affairs.

In 1903, the United States passed the Platt Amendment, which stated that the U.S. government had political authority over Cuba. This authority lasted until 1934, when it was ended by the Good Neighbor Policy. For the next quarter century, Cuba was led by rulers who were friendly to American interests. In 1933, Fulgencio Batista (1901–73) led a coup that overthrew the government, and for much of the next seven years, he controlled a string of presidents from the background. In 1940, he was elected president himself. Despite initially ruling as a populist leader, he eventually became increasingly bound to the United States, which he moved to after his term ended in 1944. Batista returned to Cuba in 1952 and staged a successful coup with the support of the Cuban military. Back in power, he worked with leaders of organized crime in the United States to promote tourism based on gambling casinos and the promise of corrupt moneymaking schemes.

A young, middle-class law student named Fidel Castro was a leading opponent of Batista. On July 26, 1953, Castro led a failed insurrection in eastern Cuba, during which many Cubans were killed and Fidel and his brother Raúl were arrested. Upon their release in 1955, they went into exile in Mexico, where they met Ernesto “Che” Guevara, who had left Guatemala after the overthrow of Arbenz. Guevara wanted a global revolution and the Castro brothers were nationalists, but they all agreed that Batista needed to be removed from office. They organized a revolutionary group called the 26th of July Movement in honor of the failed attempt to oust Batista in 1953.

The Castros, Guevara, and seventy-nine other revolutionaries sailed to Cuba from Mexico in 1956 on an old, battered yacht. Many rebels were killed upon landing and even more were arrested, but the three leaders and about twenty others managed to escape. For three years, they lived in the Sierra Maestra mountains and attracted more members to their movement. The revolutionaries waged a guerilla battle against Batista’s forces, and on January 1, 1959, the rebels

entered the Cuban capital of Havana. Batista fled. The Cuban Revolution had succeeded.



Fidel Castro and other Cuban revolutionaries enter Havana, Cuba, in January 1959 after overthrowing Batista’s regime.

The revolution did not immediately lead to the establishment of a socialist or communist government. Fidel Castro had been part of Cuba’s Orthodox Party, which represented the interests of Cuba’s middle class. Embracing nationalism, he pushed back against U.S. economic dominance. Primarily concerned with its business interests, the United States watched events closely as they unfolded. In 1960, Castro made a pact to sell Cuban sugar to the Soviet Union, partly because doing so would reduce Cuba’s financial dependence on the United States.

U.S. president Dwight D. Eisenhower’s administration retaliated by ending diplomatic relations with Castro. It

also created a plan to organize Cuban **dissidents** in Florida to return to Cuba and overthrow Castro, which was carried out by President John F. Kennedy (1917–63) right after he took office in 1961. Information about the plan was leaked to the Cubans, and the 1,400 dissidents who landed at the Bay of Pigs on April 17, 1961, were greeted by 20,000 Cuban troops. Castro himself took command of the defense and defeated his opponents in two days. The United States' failed Bay of Pigs invasion increased Castro's popularity at home. Kennedy attempted to defeat Castro once more during Operation Mongoose, a CIA operation meant to get rid of Castro and destabilize the Cuban government. This also failed.

Vocabulary

dissident, n. a person who opposes the official views of a regime

After these events, Castro declared the revolution socialist in 1961. In October 1962, U.S. spy planes took satellite photos of an installation of Soviet nuclear warheads in Cuba. Soviet leader Nikita Khrushchev (1894–1971) had installed

these weapons to counter ones that the United States had placed in Turkey. Kennedy called for their immediate removal. The ten tense days that followed were the closest the world came to nuclear confrontation during the Cold War. Finally, the Soviet Union agreed to remove the missiles in exchange for a promise by the United States to not invade Cuba, bringing the Cuban missile crisis to a peaceful end.

The Cuban Revolution also transformed the United States' population. The first wave of 250,000 Cubans came on the heels of the revolution itself and consisted



Women protest for peace in New York City in 1962.

of well-educated professionals and the political elite who had benefited from Batista's rule. Castro demonized these emigrants, whom he referred to as *gusanos*, or worms, in his political speeches. From 1965 to 1973, thousands of "Freedom Flights" carried an additional three hundred thousand Cubans to the United States. The most famous phase of emigration was the Mariel boatlift of 1980, in which an additional 125,000 Cubans came to the United States. Most Cuban emigrants ended up in Miami, Florida.

Over time, the revolution that had been dominated by figures like Che Guevara and the Castro brothers became more inclusive of female leadership. By the 1980s, about one-quarter of the leaders were women. The revolution made great headway in improving the literacy rates and health care of the island's inhabitants. It became increasingly authoritarian, however, and a one-party system dominated Cuba's politics. The revolution never was able to break out of economic dependency. The Cubans ultimately traded reliance on the United States market for reliance on the Soviet Union. In fact, this dependence on the Soviet Union—which accounted for 80 percent of Cuban trade in the 1980s—resulted

in economic devastation after the Soviet Union collapsed. Cuba entered a period of significant economic hardship in the early 1990s that extended to every facet of daily life. In 1993, the U.S. dollar was legalized in Cuba, which would have seemed impossible during the revolutionary era. Cuba returned to its old methods of foreign investment and tourism to improve its economy. Fidel Castro died in 2016, and Raúl took over as president. The United States maintains an economic embargo against Cuba.

Think Twice

How did the failed Bay of Pigs invasion help Fidel Castro?



Writers' Corner

Research and write a brief biography of Che Guevara.



Haiti and the Dominican Republic

Haiti and the Dominican Republic share the island of Hispaniola, located in the Atlantic Ocean just southeast of Cuba. Haiti covers the western third of Hispaniola plus several smaller surrounding islands. Its population of approximately 11.7 million people is largely descended from enslaved Africans who were

brought to the Caribbean by Europeans. The Dominican Republic covers the central and eastern portions of Hispaniola. The culture of its eleven million people is more closely related to Spanish-speaking Latin America than French-speaking Haiti.

United States Marines were stationed in Haiti from 1915 until 1934 to provide political stability. In 1957, the United States supported François “Papa Doc” Duvalier (1907–71) as Haiti’s president. Duvalier sided with U.S. interests but ruled through violence. He created his own private police force that terrorized Haitian citizens. Despite his corruption, Duvalier continued to hold the support of the rural masses. As he neared his death, he was able to install his son, Jean-Claude “Baby Doc” Duvalier (1951–2014), in office. The younger Duvalier continued to bankrupt Haiti and was ousted in 1986. The Duvaliers turned Haiti into the poorest country in the Western Hemisphere. The per capita income was \$300 in the city and \$150 in the countryside.

The United States also has a history of involving itself in Dominican affairs. It occupied the Dominican Republic from 1906 to 1922, during which time it installed leaders supportive of U.S. interests and helped establish a national guard to put down uprisings. In 1965, the United States

fearing a communist takeover, sent troops to the Dominican Republic to end a civil war and install an authoritarian government friendly to its interests. Since the late 1970s, the Dominican Republic has functioned as more of a representative democracy.



End of the Cold War

The end of the Cold War reduced the importance of Latin America in U.S. foreign policy. New alliances and allegiances were formed. In 1993, the United States, Mexico, and Canada formed the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA). The formation of NAFTA led to a rebellion by forces known as the Zapatista National Liberation Army (EZLN). They contested Mexico’s embrace of free trade, which they believed had the potential to harm small farmers. China entered Latin America as an investor and trading partner during the 1990s and 2000s, while the United States focused on wars in Southwest Asia. Within Latin American countries is an emphasis on native peoples organizing for their rights. These efforts are part of a push to reclaim Indigenous peoples’ rights to their land and to maintain their own languages, cultures, and politics.

Chapter 11

Challenges and Change in the Modern World

The Big Question

What are the challenges, changes, and successes that have shaped the world in the early twenty-first century?



The Dawn of the Third Millennium

The beginning of the twenty-first century in the year 2000 brought with it a mixture of hope and anxiety. The Cold War had ended, and the world was more connected than ever thanks to trade, technology, and efforts at international cooperation. A period of peace and economic growth had made some people wealthier and more comfortable than they had ever been. Science and technology promised to deliver advances that would help people live longer and healthier lives.



Climate change is causing ice near the North Pole to melt, destroying the habitats of animals such as the polar bear.



Yet many of the problems that existed in the twentieth century still remain. The wealth generated by global trade and production is not shared equally among Earth's growing population. Some unresolved conflicts of the twentieth century lingered into the twenty-first century and, in some instances, prompted a new generation of wars and struggle. Underlying some of the world's problems in the new century is the threat of climate change. The industry of the late nineteenth and twentieth centuries put the world on a trajectory where economic growth and development were based on the widespread use of fossil fuels. In the twenty-first century, it has become clear that we need to rethink the way we generate our energy and how we care for our planet.



Globalization

For much of human history, humans have traveled to other places and sought contact with other people to find opportunities for exchanging goods and information. Empires such as those of the Romans and the Chinese created vast networks of trade and influence. Goods and ideas were transported

across thousands of miles. The wave of exploration by Europeans in the fifteenth century set in motion more widespread interactions that, over time, brought together people from even more distant regions. In a world that became more interwoven through empires and trading networks, regional conflicts became more internationally impactful. For example, when Europe went to war in 1914, so did many nations outside of Europe. During World War II, troops fought on three continents and on the world's oceans. The Cold War was a contest between two superpowers for world supremacy.

Today, we are more connected than ever before through networks of production, distribution, and trade, as well as through lightning-fast communications technology. These connections created not only the capacity for goods to crisscross the planet but also the opportunity for ideas and culture to spread to anywhere around the world. The creation of this connected world is called **globalization**.

Vocabulary

globalization, n. the development of a worldwide economy that includes free trade and the use of inexpensive labor markets in other countries

How did we get here? The modern globalized economy is a result of the end of the Cold War in 1991. The collapse of the Soviet Union left the United States as the world's only remaining superpower. The United States had a massive military, the world's largest economy, and immense cultural influence. These were all used to shape the direction of the post-Cold War world. People around the globe watched U.S. movies, listened to U.S. pop music, and adopted U.S. fashions. The opening of the first McDonald's restaurant in Russia in early 1990 symbolized the dawning of a new economic and cultural moment. It was hoped that the spread of trade and business around the world would help banish the conflicts of the past.

The first test of the United States' power came during the Persian Gulf War (1990–91). Iraq invaded neighboring Kuwait in 1990. The United States put together a coalition of countries to oppose the invasion and liberate Kuwait, a move that was approved by the collapsing Soviet Union. A swift military operation followed, driving Iraqi forces out of Kuwait. Many people viewed this situation as an example of how the world order was going to work on the eve of a new century.



Teenagers were among the thirty-eight thousand Russians lined up for hamburgers and fries on opening day of Russia's first McDonald's. The restaurant opened on January 31, 1990, in Moscow's Pushkin Square.

The triumph of the United States in the Cold War provided the backdrop for changes in international institutions. The World Trade Organization (WTO) was formed in 1995 to set standards for global trade and exchange. The WTO helped integrate world economies and trading rules to take advantage of global trade. The formation of the WTO was one of many developments and trends that defined the era of globalization.

One impactful shift was the rise of China as an industrial power. The nation industrialized rapidly between 1978 and 1998. Production of goods in Chinese villages expanded, bringing in money that helped end food scarcity problems that plagued the lower classes. China swiftly became the world's leading exporter of textiles, furniture, and toys. China's industrial expansion shifted focus to infrastructure in 1999. High-speed rail, highways, building materials, and ships were all produced at an astonishing pace. By the early twenty-first century, China had transformed into a powerhouse of global production. It was admitted into the WTO in 2001.

The other major international trend was the growing use of **offshore**, or foreign, labor. In the twentieth century, the economies of countries like the United States had been built around industrial production of consumer goods. After long struggles by unions and the labor movement, industrial labor provided decent wages and benefits for many workers. The motivation to generate profit, however, led many business leaders to seek ways of reducing

the cost of doing business. That included reducing the cost of labor. Business leaders began investing in developing countries like India and China, where workers were paid less than workers in the United States and Europe. Developing countries had fewer safety and environmental regulations, which also helped reduce business costs. They also had favorable tax rates that encouraged foreign investment.

The trend of American and European businesses using offshore labor began slowly in the mid-twentieth century and accelerated over time. The type of labor performed overseas also changed. The economic growth of these developing nations led to improved systems of education, which produced greater numbers of skilled workers and university graduates. This caused an increase in the amount of skilled labor that was outsourced to the developing world.

Vocabulary

offshore, adj. outside of the country

Think Twice

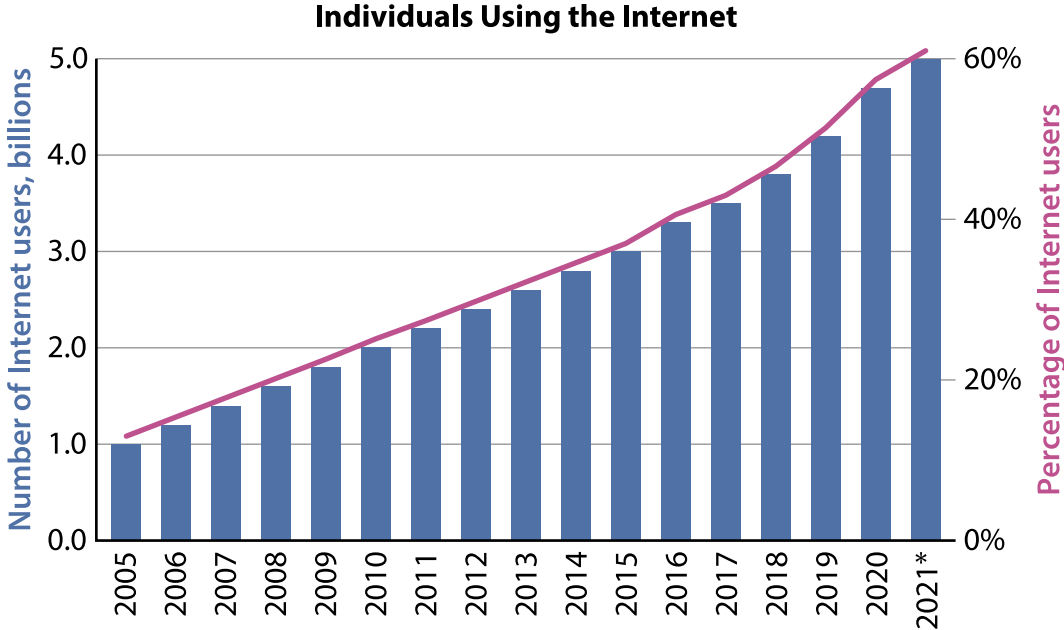


What factors led to the rising use of offshore skilled labor?

Technology played a significant role in making globalization possible. The train and road networks developed in countries

such as China were used to transport goods and raw materials to ports. Massive ships moved containers full of materials from those ports to factories and distribution centers around the world. The rise of globalization coincided with the development of “just in time” supply. A just-in-time supply chain cuts costs by ensuring that the things needed at a point in the supply chain are delivered just before they are needed. It reduces the number of parts, materials, and products that sit in warehouses. Globalized supply chains became very effective at ensuring needed items arrived at the right time, even when long distances and multiple steps were involved.

Chains of production and supply are managed by telephone and Internet communications technology. These technologies connect billions of people around the world almost instantly. The number of people with an Internet connection expanded rapidly from 1990 onward. In 1990, only half a percent of the world’s population had an Internet connection. By 2020, more than half of the world’s population was online. The excitement about the potential of the Internet for business fueled an economic bubble, or a situation where assets cost more than they are fundamentally worth, that began to form in 1998 and crashed in 2000.



*ITU estimate

Nearly five times more people are connected to the Internet today than in 2005.

One of the critical factors in bringing the world online was the increasing popularity of mobile phones. Beginning in the late 1990s, satellites that allowed mobile phones around the world to communicate with each other were launched into space. By 2019, it was estimated that five billion people worldwide had mobile phones. About half of these phones are smartphones, which are effectively miniature computers that provide Internet access. Smartphone access is not restricted to the developed world, either. For example, about 24 percent of people in India have a smartphone.

Not everyone is happy about globalization. Some people argue that the purpose of globalization is to make a world that benefits business interests and little else. They contend that these interests lead to the replacement of local cultures, businesses, and ways of living with prepackaged, “globalized” products. They also argue that organizations like the WTO exist to favor the interests of primarily Western investors over the rights and dignity of people in the developing world. People from around the world gathered in Seattle, Washington, in 1999 to protest the WTO. This was one of the first major

protests organized via the Internet, showing that the technologies of globalization can also be used in the resistance to it. Some opponents of globalization believe it weakens national strength and limits the power of sovereign states. This helped spur the movement to withdraw the United Kingdom from the European Union in the late 2010s. Others dislike the way the spread of low-wage offshore labor has undercut the wages and living standards of people in the developed world.

Globalization may have brought the world together, but it has also led to more interconnected problems and crises. The global financial crisis of 2007–9 was initially triggered by the collapse of the housing market in the United States, but its effects were felt globally. Countries with strong connections to the global financial services industry, such as Iceland, were hit hard. Italy, Portugal, Ireland, and especially Greece suffered economic crises because their governments could no longer pay their debts. Greece also suffered a major social and political crisis.

Find Out the Facts



What was “Grexit,” and what happened to Greece after the financial crisis?



Workers assemble components of mobile phones in Shenzhen, China.

Global trade and travel also contribute to the rapid spread of infectious diseases. In late 2019, a coronavirus that causes the disease COVID-19 was identified in Wuhan, China. By early 2020, the disease had spread around the globe. The disease sickened and killed millions of people worldwide. Many countries adopted measures to restrict the spread of the virus. Factories and ports closed or worked on restricted schedules, which practically halted the global supply chain. A benefit of the globalized response to COVID-19, however, was the development

of vaccines and treatments for the disease. Vaccinations were developed very rapidly by international teams of scientists and funded by multiple governments and private corporations.

Population Challenges

An estimated 7.7 billion people lived on Earth in 2019. That was an increase of one billion people since 2007 and two billion since 1994. However, this rapid pace of population growth is expected to slow

as the twenty-first century goes on. The fastest rate of population growth recorded was 2.1 percent per year between 1965 and 1970. By 2010, the population growth rate had slowed to 1.1 percent per year and showed signs of slowing even further. The United Nations predicts that the world's population will reach a peak of about eleven billion people by 2100.

Population growth and change are driven by many factors. One is the birth rate, which refers to the ratio of births to living individuals in a given population. Globally, the birth rate is decreasing. In 1955, the average number of children a woman could expect to have in her lifetime was five. By 2015, the number was two and a half. The factors driving this decline are improvements in access to health care, especially contraception and family planning, and the increasing participation of women in the workforce. In Spain, for example, women made up 26 percent of the workforce in 1972 and 54 percent in 2016. Women with careers have more independence from traditional family structures. They can control their own money and have more freedom to choose their own course through life.

Another major factor influencing a rise in population size is decreasing infant

mortality. Infant mortality refers to the number of children who die before reaching the age of one year old. It is reduced by improving access to nutrition and medical care. The decrease in infant mortality has increased life expectancy. Life expectancy refers to the average number of years a person born in a particular year can expect to live. In 1955, life expectancy around the world was forty-eight years. In 2015, it was sixty-nine years. These numbers are expected to continue to rise.

Life expectancy and infant mortality vary around the world. A child born in the United States or Europe at the beginning of the twenty-first century could expect to live for seventy-seven to seventy-nine years. A child born in sub-Saharan Africa at the same time could expect to live to an age of fifty-five. These rates also vary within populations in the same country or region.

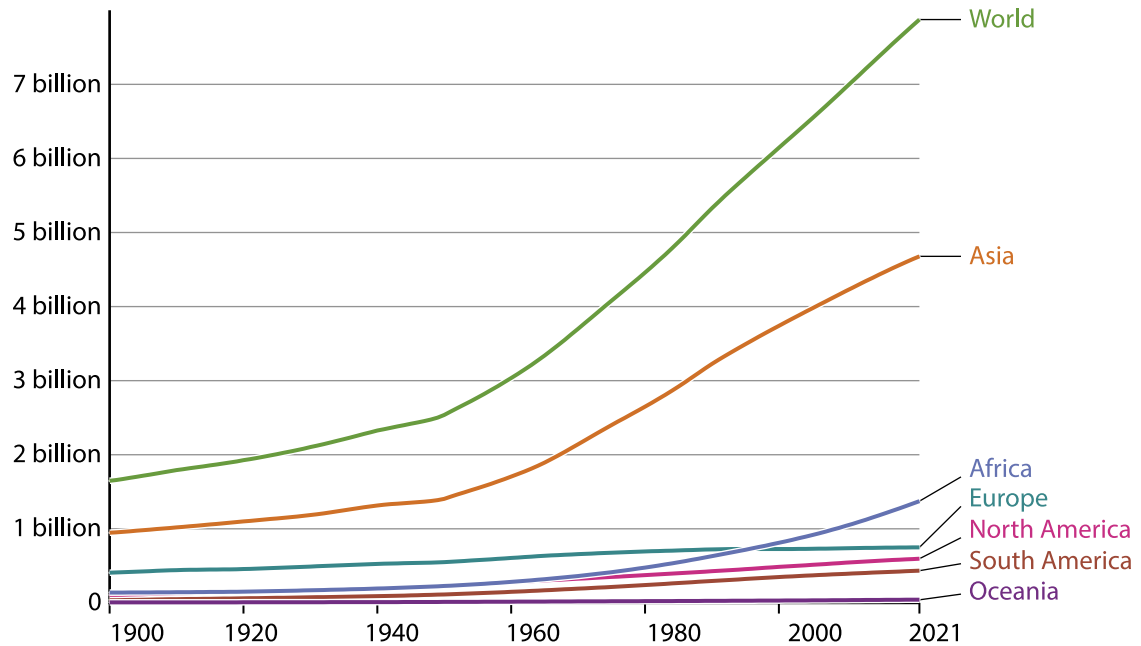
Find Out the Facts



What are some developments and programs that have helped reduce infant mortality worldwide?

An effect of these population trends is that people, on average, have become older. As more people survive childhood and live into their seventies or even eighties, the average age of the population has

Population, 1900 to 2021



Most of the world's population growth since 1900 has occurred in Asia and Africa.

increased. This trend is called population aging. Japan was an early example of population aging. Today, almost one-third of its population is aged sixty-five or older. Countries in Europe and the United States are also facing pressures caused by their own aging populations. Because older people tend to need more resources than younger people, an older population places greater pressure on health care and other support systems. Older people typically retire from the workforce and no longer pay taxes that fund these systems to the same degree they did when they were working. An older population also puts pressure on the working-age

population in another way. More people of working age must take care of their older relatives who are living longer. This causes stress on their own time and health.

Writers' Corner

Write a report on how nations like Japan are innovating new ways to help aging populations.



Another issue facing aging populations concerns retirement benefits. Many countries designed their retirement systems, including state pensions, during a time when people were not expected to live very long after retirement. For

example, if retirement benefits begin at sixty-five and the average life expectancy is sixty-eight, governments can expect to pay an average of three years of benefits per person. As populations grow older, countries must account for the increasing number of people who retire at sixty-five but live well into their eighties or nineties. Countries will have to figure out how to fund retirement and care systems to ensure that the elderly can live in comfort and dignity.

Migrating Populations

People have always moved from place to place. But a larger global population and an interconnected world economy have turned migration into a major issue that countries around the world have had to face. People migrate for many reasons. Some move to countries where they can get better jobs or receive better pay for their skills. Others flee conflicts or disasters in their home countries. The United Nations estimated that in 2021, 26.6 million people in the world were refugees seeking safety from conflicts and disasters. Another fifty-one million people were internally displaced, which means they had been driven from their homes but still lived

within their countries of origin. Refugees and other migrants who escape harmful situations are often very vulnerable. Many travel with few possessions and have little idea of what they will do next. They require support and accommodation.

At the same time, many countries in the developed world are seeing an increase in anti-immigrant sentiment. People fear that immigrants will take work from them, cause wages to fall, and alter the local culture. Some governments in Europe and the United States have responded to these fears by limiting the number of immigrants who enter their countries. Those limits push many to seek immigration options outside legal channels. These methods are very risky and often involve organized crime groups that prey on vulnerable people.

Find Out the Facts



What is an asylum seeker? What rules govern the rights of asylum seekers, and what are these rights?

Some countries have shown great generosity and have been able to accommodate and provide for refugees. Turkey has played a leading role in hosting Syrian refugees since the breakout of the Syrian Civil War in 2011.

Of the 6.8 million total refugees from Syria, approximately 3.6 million are in Turkey. As of 2021, only 2.5 percent of these refugees are still living in refugee camps. The rest have been integrated into Turkish society.



Conflict and Revolution

A major lingering issue from the end of the Cold War concerned the handling of the world's nuclear weapons. During the Cold War, the United States, the Soviet Union, Great Britain, France, China, India, Pakistan, and Israel built these highly destructive weapons. Other countries, like North Korea, Iran, and Iraq, have tried to develop them or threatened to do so. And others, like South Africa (which had them) and Libya (which tried to develop them), voluntarily stopped their nuclear program activities. The end of the Cold War ended the threat of a nuclear confrontation between the United States and the Soviet Union, but the United States and Russia maintained large stockpiles of weapons afterward. In the 1970s, the United States and the Soviet Union had agreed to limit the number of nuclear weapons in their arsenals, an effort that continued with Russia

through the 1990s. The first Strategic Arms Reduction Treaty (START), signed in 1991, aimed to limit the number of deployed weapons, or weapons that were ready to fire. By 2001, each country had reduced its number of weapons to START I's maximum of six thousand. The next phase of the agreement was 1993's START II, which lowered the maximum number of weapons held by each side to 3,500. The United States withdrew from START II in 2002, which nullified the agreement. New START, which was agreed upon in 2010 and runs until 2026, limits both sides to a maximum of 1,550 weapons.

The Cold War's threat of nuclear conflict between great powers gave way to a focus on smaller, regional conflicts. The collapse of the Soviet Union led to a series of conflicts between Russia and regions that had been part of the old Russian Empire and the Soviet Union. There was a significant conflict between Russia and Chechnya, a former Russian region that became independent in 1992. Russia invaded Chechnya in 1994 and took the capital, Grozny, but suffered many casualties from Chechen guerrillas. The war killed about one hundred thousand people. Russia invaded again in 1999. The conflict continued until Russian forces

killed Chechen leaders and installed warlord Ramzan Kadyrov as the region's president in 2007.

Tensions between Russia and its neighbors continued to develop in the early twenty-first century. South Ossetia, a region in the country of Georgia, declared its independence in 2008. Russia was one of the only countries to recognize South Ossetian independence. In 2008, fighting between Georgian troops and South Ossetian fighters drew Russia into the conflict. That August, Russian forces marched into South Ossetia and the nearby region of Abkhazia, defeating Georgian resistance along the way.

In 2014, a revolution in Ukraine forced pro-Russian leader Viktor Yanukovich out of power. In Crimea, a part of Ukraine, forces that wished to join Russia took control of government buildings. With the support of Russian troops, they invited Russia to annex Crimea, which it did in March 2014. In addition, other threats to world peace surfaced during the early part of the twenty-first century.



Find Out the Facts

What was the Euromaidan in Ukraine?

Other Threats to World Peace

Earlier in the century, after the attacks of September 11, 2001, the United States declared a global war on terrorism. According to the U.S. government, the major threat to world peace in the new century was not nations but small groups of terrorists that hid in certain countries and had to be tracked down and destroyed. The war on terrorism led to the invasion and occupation of Afghanistan and Iraq. It also led to the expansion of U.S.-led military operations against terrorist groups around the world. Special operations and unmanned weapons platforms called drones were used in the Middle East, Africa, and South Asia.

Following the global financial crisis of 2007–9, a wave of pro-democracy protests swept through North Africa and Southwest Asia in 2010–11. These protests were triggered by a mixture of economic crises and demands for political reform. In Tunisia, protests forced President Zine al-Abidine Ben Ali to resign in January 2011. In Egypt, a massive wave of protests in January and February 2011 forced the resignation of President Hosni Mubarak. Syria, Libya, and Yemen also experienced

popular uprisings mobilized against their governments. Commentators called this wave of resistance the Arab Spring.

The hopeful revolutionaries of the Arab Spring were unable to replace authoritarian leaders with democratic governments in many cases. In Egypt, armed forces took control of the country after it became clear that a candidate selected by the Muslim Brotherhood had a good chance of winning the country's 2012 presidential election. Authorities in Libya and Syria brutally fought back against their nations' protesters. In Syria,

the government of Bashar al-Assad used violence against the rebels. The rebel uprising turned into an extended civil war that has lasted for more than a decade. Almost seven million Syrians have fled the country. Even more have been displaced internally. In Libya, the brutal rule of dictator Muammar al-Qaddafi didn't end until he was removed from power after European and U.S. forces gave military aid to Libyan rebels. The rebels killed him in 2011, and since then, the entire Libyan nation has struggled to be governed under one uniform government.



Anti-government protesters crowd into Tahrir Square in Cairo, Egypt, on February 7, 2011.



Writers' Corner

Write a newspaper article (or a series of sections from newspaper articles from different points in time) that describes the protest movements in Tunisia, Egypt, and Syria. Provide perspective on people's hopes and their reactions to how events developed.

The conflict in Syria and continuing tensions in Iraq led to the brief rise of a new political-military group in the region. The Islamic State of Iraq and Syria (ISIS) emerged between 2011 and 2014. At the height of its power, the Islamic State controlled 30 percent of Syria and 40 percent of Iraq. An international coalition formed against the Islamic State and began attacks against it in 2015. In 2019, the last Islamic State stronghold was captured.



Climate Change

Perhaps the greatest threat that the world faces in the new century is climate change. *Climate* refers to long-term trends in weather in a particular area. Different parts of the world have different climates. The world, taken as a whole, has its own climate with its own trends. Changes in these trends indicate that Earth is becoming warmer.

Earth's atmosphere is composed of a mixture of gases. Changing levels of individual gases change individual functions and capabilities of the atmosphere. One variable affected by changes in gas levels is how much heat the atmosphere traps beneath itself. Some gases, like carbon dioxide and methane, trap a great deal of heat. An atmosphere containing larger quantities of carbon dioxide and methane traps more heat on average than an atmosphere with lower quantities of those gases. The atmosphere acts like the glass of a greenhouse, which is why we use the term *greenhouse effect* to describe the trapping of Earth's heat.

The advent of the industrialized economy in the late nineteenth century changed the way people consume and create energy. Factories moved away from human power and waterpower to produce new goods like cars, refrigerators, and the lightbulb, all of which needed energy sources of their own. Since the late 1800s, this energy has been produced by burning fossil fuels like coal, oil, and gas. When these fuels are burned, they emit large amounts of carbon dioxide, which causes the atmosphere to retain more heat.

Another contributor to the greenhouse effect is methane, which is a product of

modern farming. Every year, millions of animals are raised on vast areas of land to meet the global demand for meat. This leads to deforestation, or the clearance of forests. In Brazil, for example, large areas of the Amazon rainforest have been destroyed to create farmland. This is problematic not only because more methane is being released but also because plants filter carbon dioxide from the atmosphere. In a sense, plant respiration is the opposite of human respiration. We take in oxygen and let out carbon dioxide; plants take in carbon dioxide and let out oxygen. As the number of forests decreases, so does the amount of oxygen in the atmosphere.

The world has been aware of the greenhouse effect and the consequences of rising global temperatures for some time. Several global initiatives have attempted to tackle the issue by lowering emissions and making plans to transition to renewable, clean energy sources. The Kyoto Protocol, signed in 1997 and put into effect in 2005, committed industrialized nations to cut their greenhouse gas emissions and requested that developing nations do so as well. Even small differences in warming can have an impact on the overall health of the planet. The Paris Agreement, signed in 2015 and put into effect the following year, commits all parties to the reduction



Solar panels harness energy from the sun and generate electricity without worsening climate change.

of greenhouse gas emissions. Its goal is to prevent an increase in temperature of 1.5 to 2 degrees Celsius by the end of the century. Every five years, the countries that signed the Paris Agreement must adopt new goals to help them achieve this goal.



Find Out the Facts

What are some technological developments and social changes that can help with the transition away from our dependence on fossil fuels?

Popular movements, too, are helping drive the world's nations to stronger action on climate change. In 2018, Swedish teenager Greta Thunberg founded a movement called the School Strike for Climate. It encourages young people around the world to put pressure on their governments to take strong action to tackle climate change.



Science, Technology, and Medicine

Developments in science and technology at the beginning of the twenty-first century have revived an interest in space exploration. The possibility of exploring, and perhaps settling, Mars was raised by a series of successful missions in the 2010s. A robotic explorer rover named *Curiosity*

landed on Mars in 2012. It immediately began to transmit images and data from the red planet's surface back to Earth. The *Curiosity* mission was followed by others, like *Perseverance*, which landed on Mars in 2021. The *Perseverance* rover is about the size of a car.

China is also showing increased interest in its space program. In 2020, the *Chang'e-5* lander touched down on the moon's surface. It collected some samples of moon rocks and successfully returned them to Earth. These were the first samples to return from the moon since the 1970s. China plans more spaceflights in the 2020s, including a mission to retrieve samples from an asteroid, the launch of a new space telescope, and taking steps toward the goal of setting up a moon base.

Medical breakthroughs at the beginning of the twenty-first century have continued to extend and improve life for many people around the world. Much progress has been made in producing treatments for HIV, which affected about forty million people globally as of 2020. Of these, twenty-eight million people were taking therapies to help control the disease. Since a peak in 1997, new HIV infections have been reduced by 52 percent thanks to education, treatment, and global health measures. Today, effective

treatments and preventive measures are widely available, although availability is more limited in the developing world. As of 2020, some progress had been made toward producing an HIV vaccine.

In 1980, the world learned that the deadly smallpox disease had been eradicated. In 2011, smallpox was joined by a second disease, rinderpest. Progress has been made in eradicating several other infectious diseases, including Guinea worm disease and polio, which are on the brink of eradication. Efforts are underway to end the spread of other diseases, such as measles, mumps, and malaria.

Writers' Corner

Describe medical advances that are currently in development and your hopes for what the future may hold if these advances work out.



As we are still in the early years of this new millennium, we cannot be sure what the future will hold. People, nations, and humanity in general face a great many challenges. We also hold within our grasp the means to meet those challenges, as many of our ancestors did in the past. If we can combine our knowledge and our resources, set aside our differences, and work together, the future of humanity looks bright.



Technology is spurring advancements in carbon capture, robotics, space exploration, and medicine.

Glossary

A

apartheid, n. the South African policy of segregation and discrimination on the basis of race (190)

appeasement, n. the practice of meeting someone's demands in order to avoid trouble, especially when you do not agree with them (127)

aristocracy, n. a hereditary ruling class of nobles (60)

B

black market, n. an informal or illegal section of the economy (173)

bourgeoisie, n. the middle class; wealthy townspeople (62)

C

capitalism, n. an economic system in which resources and businesses are privately owned and prices are not controlled by the government (59)

censor, v. to remove or prohibit books, art, films, or other media that the government finds offensive, immoral, or harmful (25)

circumnavigate, v. to travel completely around something (such as Earth), especially by water (36)

clergy, n. in the Christian church, people, such as priests, who carry out religious duties (4)

collectivization, n. the act of abolishing private ownership and reorganizing under government ownership (124)

commune, n. a group of people who live together, share possessions, and work toward a common goal (148)

compass, n. a device that uses a magnetized pointer to show direction (28)

credit, n. a system of buying now and paying later (8)

D

demonstrator, n. a person who engages in a public protest (151)

dissection, n. the act of cutting something into parts in order to study it (46)

dissident, n. a person who opposes the official views of a regime (219)

domino theory, n. the idea that a political event in one country will cause similar events in neighboring countries, like a falling domino causing a line of dominoes to fall (156)

E

enclosure, n. the act of privatizing land (80)

F

factory system, n. the concentration of industry into large, specialized buildings where workers perform discrete tasks on large machines (82)

fundamentalist, n. a person who adheres strictly and literally to a set of basic principles, such as religious principles (199)

G

globalization, n. the development of a worldwide economy that includes free trade and the use of inexpensive labor markets in other countries (224)

gross domestic product, n. the value of all goods and services produced in one country during a specific period, usually a year or part of a year (163)

guerrillas, n. people fighting in small groups against a more powerful enemy (72)

guillotine, n. a device for beheading people with a sharp blade (68)

I

immunity, n. exemption from criminal prosecution (215)

imperialism, n. the practice of expanding a nation's power by conquering and controlling other parts of the world (86)

indulgence, n. the removal or reduction of certain punishments for sin, linked to a special act of penance (17)

innate, adj. existing in or belonging to since birth; inborn (49)

M

methodology, n. a set of rules and procedures for inquiry in a specific area of study (47)

monastery, n. a building where a community of monks lives, worships, and works together (4)

N

nationalism, n. belief in the superiority of one's nation (87)

natural rights, n. rights that all people are born with and that cannot be taken away by the government (53)

nonalignment, n. a lack of alliance or relationship with other nations or groups (168)

O

offshore, adj. outside of the country (226)

optics, n. the science that deals with light and images (6)

P

parallel, n. an imaginary line on a globe or map that circles Earth in the same direction as the equator, marking degrees of latitude (152)

penance, n. an act, such as praying, done to show regret over some wrongdoing (18)

perspective, n. a technique used to make something that is flat appear to have depth, in addition to height and width (12)

privatize, v. put into private ownership (80)

purge, n. removal from a group or place in a sudden or violent way (22)

R

radical, n. a person with extreme views (149)

reparations, n. money paid to compensate another person or country for harm caused to them (114)

S

sanction, n. a penalty for disobeying a rule (191)

T

terrorist, n. a person who uses violence against civilians to achieve political goals **(201)**

theology, n. the study of religious faith, practice, and experience **(6)**

theocracy, n. a system of government by religious leaders **(200)**

U

university, n. a school where advanced learning is taught **(6)**

Z

Zionism, n. the movement to establish and develop a Jewish nation in the land of Palestine **(193)**

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A pile of shoes of the people murdered in Belzec (Poland). Only two Jews survived Belzec death camp, 1945 / © Tallandier / Bridgeman Images / 133

Adolf Hitler greets British Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain at Munich 1938 / Universal History Archive/UiG / Bridgeman Images / 128

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Anne Boleyn, 1534 (oil on panel) / English School, (16th century) / English / Hever Castle Ltd, Kent, UK / Bridgeman Images / 22

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Arch Duke Franz Ferdinand and his wife, 1914 / Universal History Archive/UiG / Bridgeman Images / 105

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Berlin airlift: Blockade of Berlin by russian : Berliners looking at arrival of planes, approaching Berlin airport Tempelhof, which provided Berlin West in 1948, photo by Henry Ries / © Tallandier / Bridgeman Images / 166

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British colonial lady in Indian palanquin / Lebrecht History / Bridgeman Images / 89

Burning of the town of Cap-Francais, Saint-Domingue (Haiti), 1795 (colour engraving) / French School, (18th century) / French / Private Collection / © Archives Charmet / Bridgeman Images / Cover E, 73

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French colonies: Senegal (Saint Louis) - expedition to Saloum, barking troops at the post of Kaolack - drawing from a sketch by M. Questel - Engraving of the Illustrious World No. 408, 4 February 1865 - French colony - colonization - West Africa - / © Patrice Cartier. All rights reserved 2022 / Bridgeman Images / 86

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German East Africa (1885 - 1918) - African Captives in chains. Carl Simon Archive, image date circa 1905 / United Archives/Carl Simon / Bridgeman Images / 94

Giuseppe Garibaldi riding a horse Italian patriot, nationalist and soldier b. 1807 d. 1882 / Lebrecht Music Arts / Bridgeman Images / 95

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HOW THE INDIANS DIG THE GOLD FROM THE MOUNTAINS, 1601, engraving published by Wolfgang Richter. The biggest 17th century silver mine in the world, fed wealth into Spain and Europe. An estimated 8 million Inca slaves died in the process of the silver extraction. The mine was in the Cerro Rico Mountain, on the Bolivian Altiplano, over 4000 meters (13,000 feet) above sea level / Everett Collection / Bridgeman Images / 35

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Isaac Newton (1642-1727) english mathematician, physicist and astronomer, author of the theory of terrestrial universal attraction, here dispersing light with a glass prism, engraving colorized document / PVDE / Bridgeman Images / 51

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Martin Luther (1483-1546) hanging his 95 theses in Wittenberg, 1517 - On October 31, 1517, Martin Luther redified 95 theses against the virtue of the indulgences he placed on the gates of Wittenberg Cathedral. Engraving from 1865. / Unknown Artist, (19th century) / Private Collection / Stefano Bianchetti / Bridgeman Images / 18

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Microscope by Anton Van Leeuwenhoek (1632-1723) Dutch scientist and microscopist. / Universal History Archive/UiG / Bridgeman Images / 47

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Perspective view of the Chateau, Gardens and Park of Versailles seen from the Avenue de Paris, 1668 (oil on canvas) / Patel, Pierre (1605-76) / French / Chateau de Versailles, France / Bridgeman Images / 67

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Portrait of Adam Smith (1723 - 1790), Scottish philosopher and economist. / Unknown Artist, (19th century) / Private Collection / © Giancarlo Costa / Bridgeman Images / 83

Portrait of Antonio Lopez de Santa Ana (1794-1876), c.1858 (oil on linen) / L'Ouvrier, Paul (fl.1858) / Collection of the New-York Historical Society, USA / © New York Historical Society / Bridgeman Images / 78

Portrait of Henry VIII aged 49, 1540 (oil on panel) / Holbein the Younger, Hans (1497/8-1543) / German / Palazzo Barberini, Gallerie Nazionali Barberini Corsini, Rome, Italy / Bridgeman Images / 22

Portrait of Jean Jacques Rousseau, 1712-78 (print) / Tour, Maurice Quentin de la (1704-88) / French / Private Collection / Bridgeman Images / 60

Portrait of John Calvin (1509-64), French theologian and reformer (oil on canvas) / French School, (16th century) / French / Bibliotheque de la Societe de l'Histoire du Protestantisme Francais, Paris, France / Bibliotheque de la Societe de l'Histoire du Protestantisme Francais, Paris, France / Bridgeman Images / 19

Portrait of Toussaint Louverture (1743-1803) on horseback, early 19th century (colour engraving) / French School, (19th century) / French / Bibliotheque Nationale, Paris, France / © Archives Charmet / Bridgeman Images / 74

Queen Victoria (1819-1901) 1842 (oil on canvas) / Winterhalter, Franz Xaver (1805-73) / German / Château de Versailles, France / Bridgeman Images / 88

Queue Line in Front of Shop To Buy Cook Pork Meats in Vyborg December 14, 1990 (b/w photo) / Photo © AGIP / Bridgeman Images / 173

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Student Throwing Cobblestones during Demonstration in Paris on May 25, 1968 (b/w photo) / Photo © AGIP / Bridgeman Images / 171

Tank in action (b/w photo) / English Photographer, (20th century) / English / National Army Museum, London / © National Army Museum / Bridgeman Images / 110

The "Big Four" at Versailles, France during the peace treaty of 1919 at the end of World War One, from The Year 1919 Illustrated / English Photographer, (20th century) / English / Private Collection / Photo © Ken Welsh. All rights reserved 2022 / Bridgeman Images / 115

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The Germans entering Paris, from 'Signal', 14th June 1940 (photo) / French Photographer, (20th century) / French / Private Collection / © Archives Charmet / Bridgeman Images / 129

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