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World History Since 1500: An Open and Free Textbook

John Rankin

East Tennessee State University, rankinj@etsu.edu

Constanze Weise

East Tennessee State University, weisec@etsu.edu

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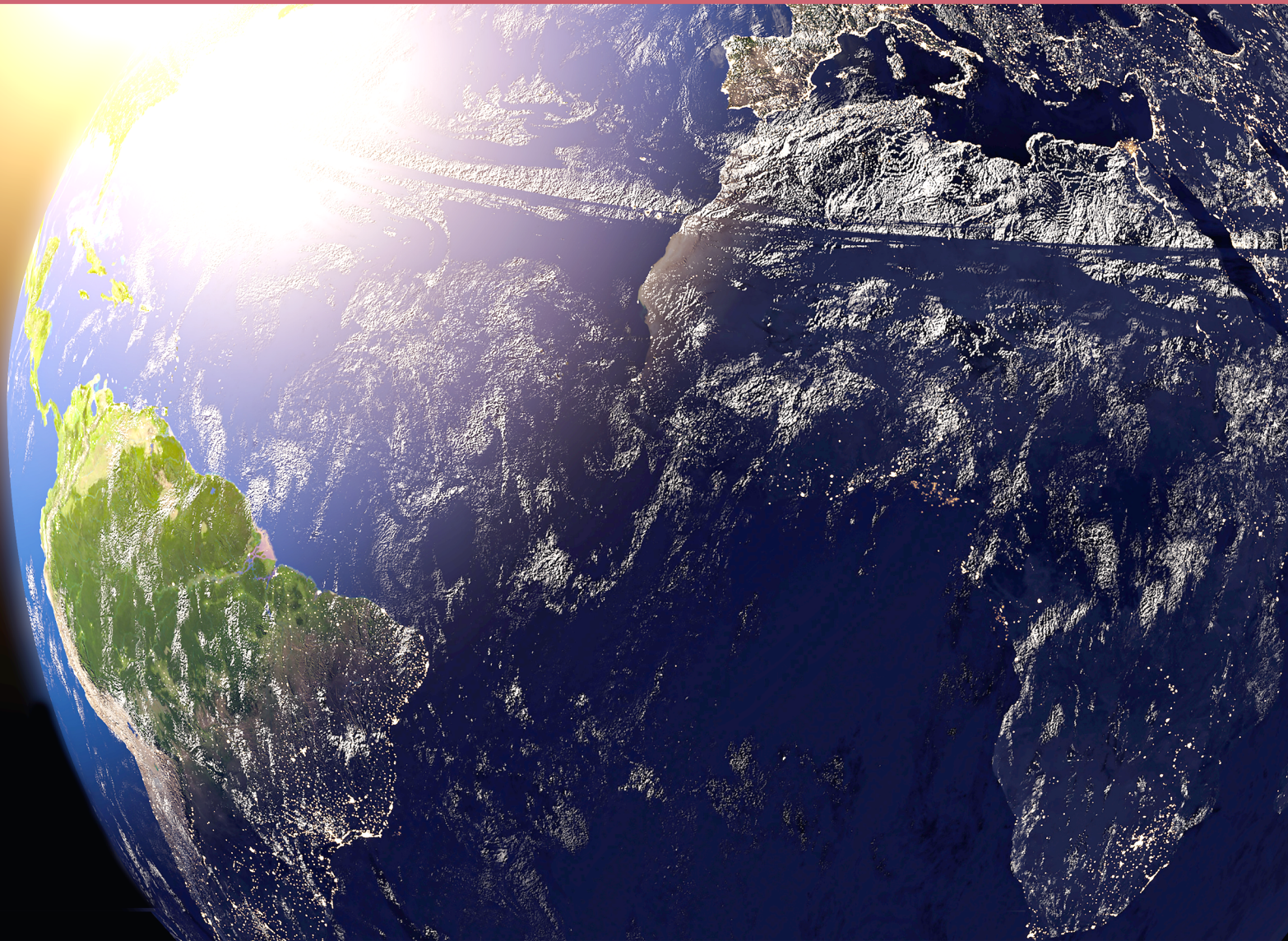
Recommended Citation

Rankin, John and Weise, Constanze. 2022. *World History Since 1500: An Open and Free Textbook*.
Johnson City: East Tennessee State University.
<https://dc.etsu.edu/etsu-oer/13>

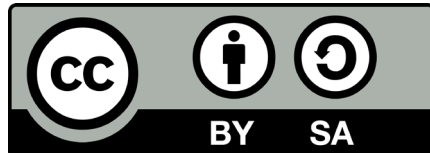
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WORLD HISTORY

SINCE 1500: *An Open and Free Textbook*



John Rankin and Constanze Weise



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AUTHOR BIOGRAPHIES

John Rankin is an Associate Professor in the Department of History at East Tennessee State University. His interests lie in the overlapping themes of imperialism, transnational and global studies, issues of race and racism and the social history of medicine. His monograph, *Healing the African Body* (University of Missouri Press, 2015) examines the intersection of health, race, and empire in British West Africa, 1800-1860. His research interests also include the Atlantic World, British history, public health, the press and the history of epidemic disease. He teaches courses in the history of medicine as well as English, Scottish, Caribbean and World history.

Constanze Weise is an Assistant Professor in the Department of History at East Tennessee State University. Her interests lie in the History of Africa and the African Diaspora pertaining to issues of politics, religion, ritual and urbanization. Her work has appeared in peer-reviewed journals and edited volumes such as *African Arts*, *The Canadian Journal of African Studies*, the *Oxford Handbook of Nigerian History* and the *Oxford Encyclopedia of African Historiography: Methods and Sources*. In 2010 she participated in the internationally touring exhibition curated by the UCLA Fowler Museum and the Musée du quai Branly, Paris, titled “Central Nigeria Unmasked: Arts of the Benue River Valley”. She contributed to this exhibition with original video footage and images of ancestral masquerades from her field research in central Nigeria. At ETSU she teaches courses in the history of Africa, the African Diaspora and World History.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

World History Since 1500: An Open and Free Textbook is the culmination of a year and a half of hard work and dedication. The textbook would not have been possible without the generous support of the Tennessee Board of Regents, especially Dr. Robert Denn, the team at Achieving the Dream and our coach, Associate Director of Teaching and Learning, Susan Adams. An OER (Open Education Resource) Cycle 3 Grant from the Tennessee Board of Regents was crucial in initiating, supporting, and completing this project. We are very thankful to the TBR and Dr. Denn for all their support.

The completion of this textbook would not have been possible without our incredible team. It was a true team effort, and we are grateful to our team members Ashley Sergiadis and Philip Smith for their support. We could not have done it without Ashley's and Phil's expertise in anything OER and OEP (Open Educational Practices). Ashley, in particular, worked tirelessly to verify the copyright status for all images and maps. We are indebted to our map maker, John Greenlee, who produced amazing maps for this book. We owe a lot to our graphic designer, Angelica Ares, for setting the graphics and managing our constant requests for amendments and changes. We are grateful to Jill Fair and the entire graphic design team at ETSU Biomedical Communications for their support for this very difficult project. We are also indebted to Dr. Tom Cox at Sam Houston State University for his expertise and suggestions and to Dr. Steve Carter at Henderson State University who piloted the textbook in multiple sections of his world history class. Finally, we would like to thank our department chair, Dr. Doug Burgess, who believed in the project and supported it wherever he could.

Above all we would like to thank our students in the various world history classes we taught in spring 2023 who made suggestions, asked poignant questions, and kept up a positive spirit while we were finishing the book.

John Rankin and Constanze Weise

East Tennessee State University

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The World in 1500



Costume 16th Century Europe

Artist: Brockhaus

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EUROPE

As the world approached the 1500s, old institutions and polities gave way to new structures. The decline of the Mongol Empire, which had controlled much of Eurasia for centuries, and the rise of the Islamic Ottoman Empire changed the course of human history. The newly dominant Ottomans began disrupting trade, especially the lucrative spice routes to Asia. In response, Europeans increasingly turned to maritime exploration to find new routes to Asia.

In 1492, Christopher Columbus crossed the Atlantic Ocean, initiating a five-century interchange between the Americas, Africa, Asia and Europe. This “Columbian Exchange” circulated people, diseases, plants, goods and ideas throughout the world.

Europe in 1500 was comprised of numerous highly competitive states, many of which still exist today (although their borders and compositions have altered

with time). European political and religious leaders during this period sought not merely to expand their kingdoms but to solidify power within their borders. A hierarchical society for most European polities, the monarch was the most powerful person in the realm. The monarch ruled over a class of nobles, people who acted as not only extensions of a monarch's power but also a check upon it. Nobles and monarchs were special people who had their own rules, had the right to wear certain clothes, and owned most of the land and wealth. Most nobles were expected to serve the monarch, including providing military service when required. Below the nobility were a class of merchants, traders, artisans and craftsmen, some of which could be rather wealthy. Peasants who worked the land of nobles formed the lowest rung of the European social order. Regardless of whether they were sharecroppers who shared their produce with local nobles or serfs tied directly to the land, peasants had little to no freedom of movement.

FEUDAL SOCIETY IN MEDIEVAL EUROPE

The chronic instability of Europe's stratified and hierarchical social classes often fostered disunity,

violence and even rebellion. Monarchs struggled against their nobility for control over the levers of power. One of the most successful in this regard would be the long-ruling self-proclaimed Sun King Louis XIV (r. 1643-1715) of France, who successfully controlled and managed his nobility. In contrast, in the 15th century, a bloody conflict between two houses of the Plantagenet dynasty (the Lancastrians and Yorks) turned into a civil war that tore England apart. The civil war would last until 1485 when Henry Tudor (r. 1485-1509), a scion of the House of Lancastrian, won the throne of England at the Battle of Bosworth Field.

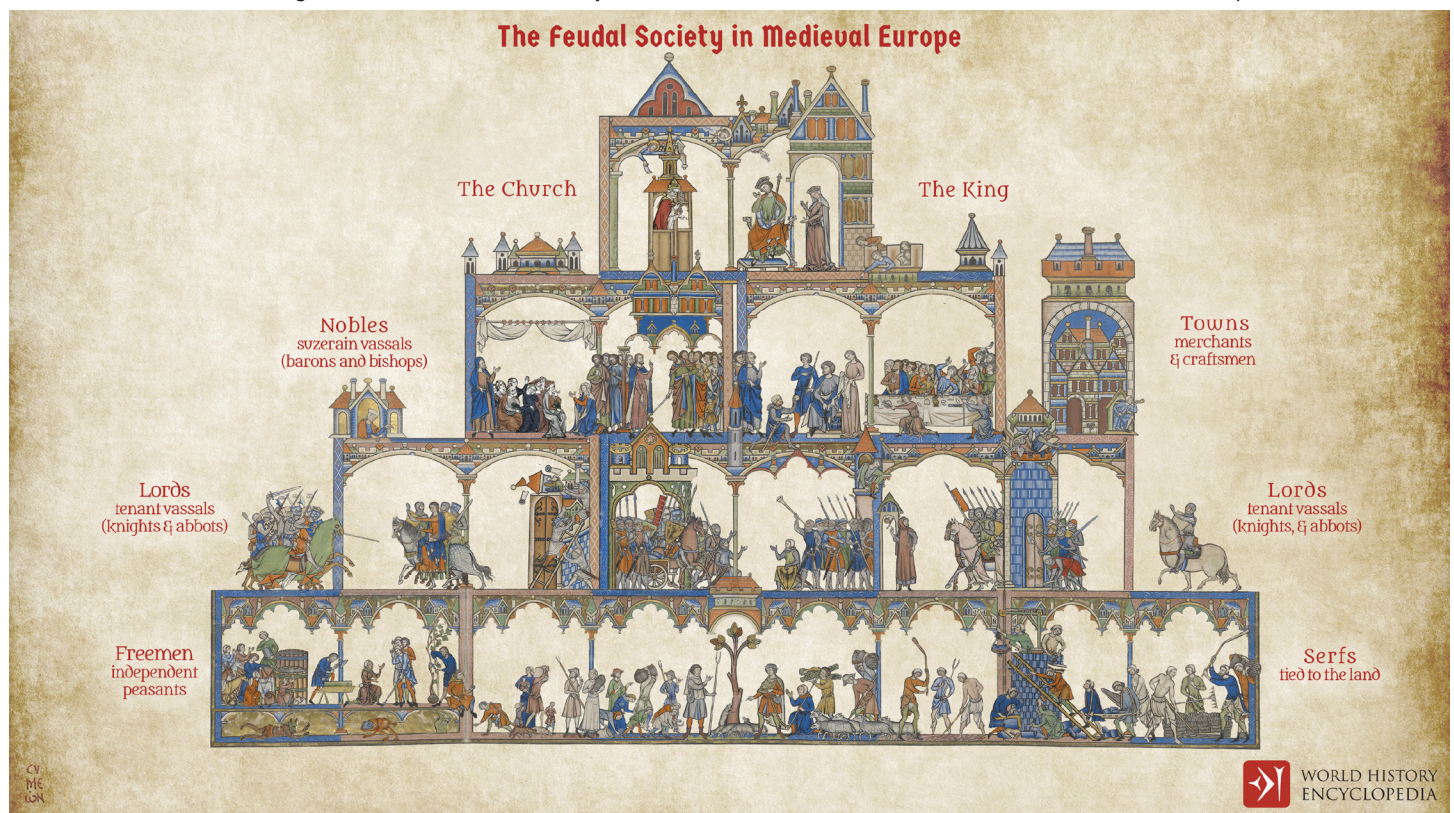
Early modern monarchs struggled to control not just the minds and bodies but also the souls of their subjects. For most Europeans, the "Church" referred to the Catholic Church seated in Rome. A pillar of European society, the Church's wealth, power and influence often rivaled that of the monarchs and emperors. For centuries, monarchs attempted to gain religious autonomy from Rome and to find ways to divert religious taxes into their own coffers. Following a split from the Catholic Church in the fourth century, the Eastern Orthodox Church became the dominant religion, not merely in Central Europe but also parts of Africa and the Middle East.

Artist: Simeon Netchev

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The Feudal Society in Medieval Europe





Map of Europe in 1500

Artist: Eren Yetkinler

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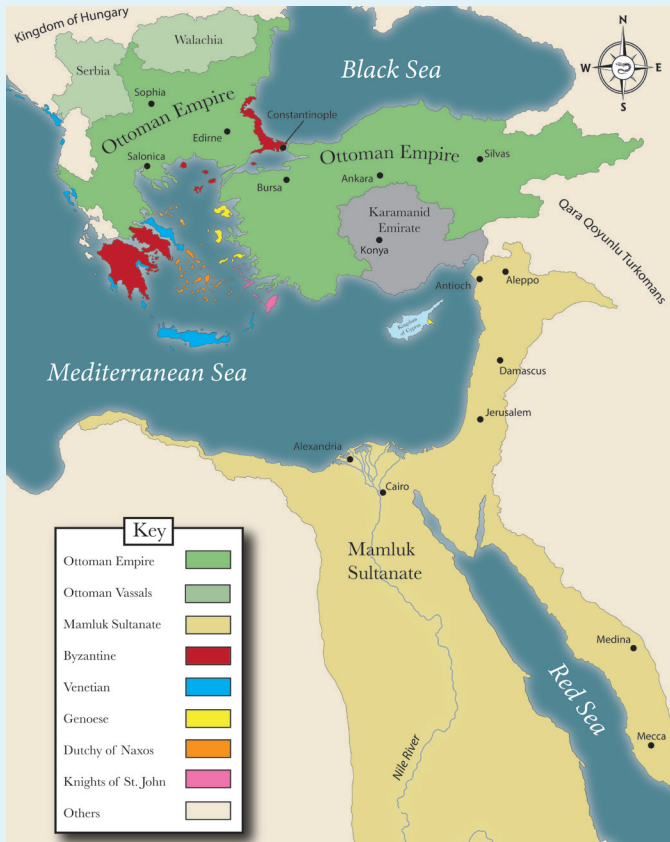
Intense competition on the continent inspired European monarchs to look outside their borders and the known world for ways to tap into the riches of Africa and Asia. The merging of new maritime technologies and a desire to find new trade routes led to a period of naval expansion, which would change the world not only for Europeans but also for the people they encountered.

MUSLIM EMPIRES

In the 14th century, new powerful states emerged in territories formerly controlled by the Mongol Empire. Many of these states adopted Islam, a faith that originated in the early seventh century in Arabia. By the early to mid-1500s, the Ottomans (1299-1922) had already established themselves as a dominant power centered around Anatolia, the Persian Safavid Empire (1501-1736) was just beginning,

and so too was the Mughal Empire (1526-1857) in India. During this period Egyptian Mamluks (manumitted slave soldiers) spread Islamic theology across North Africa. The Mamluks were great patrons of the arts, and the splendor of their architecture is still evident today. By the 1600s, Islam had become the dominant religion across much of Eurasia, India, the Middle East, and North Africa.

Map of the Ottoman Empire c. 1450



Artist: John Wyatt Greenlee

Source: World History Since 1500 (Rankin, Weise)

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SUNNI AND SHIA ISLAM

Today Sunnis account for 85-90% of all Muslims, with the rest identifying as Shias. Both Sunnis and Shias read the Quran, fast during Ramadan, make pilgrimages to Mecca, pray multiple times a day and practice charity toward the poor.

The schism between Sunnis and Shia began over the issue of who should succeed the Prophet Muhammad (570-632) as head of the Muslim faith. Those later labeled as Sunni asserted that their “caliph” or leader should be selected based on leadership skills. At the same time, those who argued that caliphs ought to be a member of the Prophet’s family became the forebearers of Shiism. They initially supported Muhammad’s cousin and son-in-law Ali’s (600-661) claim to become caliph. However, Shias were vastly outnumbered by Sunnis who backed Muhammad’s friend and long-time companion, Abu Bakr (573-634). In time Umar (583/584-644) and then Uthman (573/576-656) succeeded Abu Bakr. Both caliphs pursued policies that centralized religious power which further contributed to the growing political turmoil. Both Umar and Uthman were murdered, which paved the way for Ali to become the fourth caliph. He too met a violent end in 661. Such strife led to the creation of two branches of Islam that would, over the subsequent centuries, develop distinctive political and religious traditions.

To understand the rise of the Ottomans, we need to examine the expansion of Turkic tribes westward into Central Asia from the 600s to the 1100s. The rise of the Mongol Empire checked this expansion until the mid-14th century when the Mongols, no longer the force they once were, began retreating from Persia and Central Asia. With the decline of the Mongols, new regimes including the Ottomans, the Safavids and the Mughals would emerge. Because of their use of muzzle-loading firearms, the three empires are sometimes referred to as the (Islamic) Gunpower Empires.

OSMAN I

The Ottomans derived their name from Osman (r. 1299-1326), a Turkic leader that had important victories over other warlords and eventually the declining Byzantine Empire. By 1352, the Ottomans were the chief power in the Balkans. In 1453, during the reign of Sultan Mehmed II (r. 1451-1481), Ottoman armies conquered the Byzantine capital of Constantinople. Renamed Istanbul, the city became the center of a sprawling and culturally dynamic Islamic empire that Asian, Middle Eastern, Northeastern and European leaders viewed with envy and fear.



Sultan Gazi ‘Father of Kings’
Uthmān (Osman) Han I

Artist: Bilinmiyor

Source: Wikimedia Commons

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The Entry of Sultan Mehmed II into Constantinople

Artist: Fausto Zonaro
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AFRICA

From 300-1450, a variety of complex political systems, social structures and cultural groups emerged on the African continent. As agricultural populations grew and trade in high-value commodities increased, new states rose to prominence. Over time the introduction of Islam to the region by Arab merchants became important for the development of madrasas, literacy and state bureaucracies. The opening of the trans-Saharan trade integrated Africa into the Mediterranean world, Europe and the Middle East. The emergence of the new trade-oriented Swahili city-states along the East African coast represented an important example of these changes.

By the 1640s, the coastal people of West Africa, previously on the margins of the trans-Saharan trade routes, became central players in the newly forming transatlantic trade. They founded powerful states,

including the Oyo Empire during the 17th and 18th centuries, the Kingdom of Dahomey during the 17th through the 19th century, and the Asante Kingdom, 18th through the early 20th century. In Central Africa, local rulers rebuilt old trade roads and created new ones to meet the ever-increasing demands of European and Arab merchants for more slaves. This altered the political sphere as older polities, such as the Kingdom of Kongo (14th -18th centuries), struggled to adapt to changing circumstances. Although Kongolese rulers initially profited from contact with the Portuguese, soon Afro-Portuguese merchants found ways to circumvent the kingdom's monopoly over coastal trade by relocating to remote areas (such as Luanda) beyond the reach of royal officials. Increasingly dependent on trade with the Portuguese, the Kingdom of Kongo declined as an independent state. The creation of new competitors located in the central portion of the southern savanna

belt in Central Africa, such as the Luba (16th through 19th centuries) and Lunda Empires (17th through 19th centuries), put further pressure on the Kingdom of Kongo.

KINGDOM OF KONGO

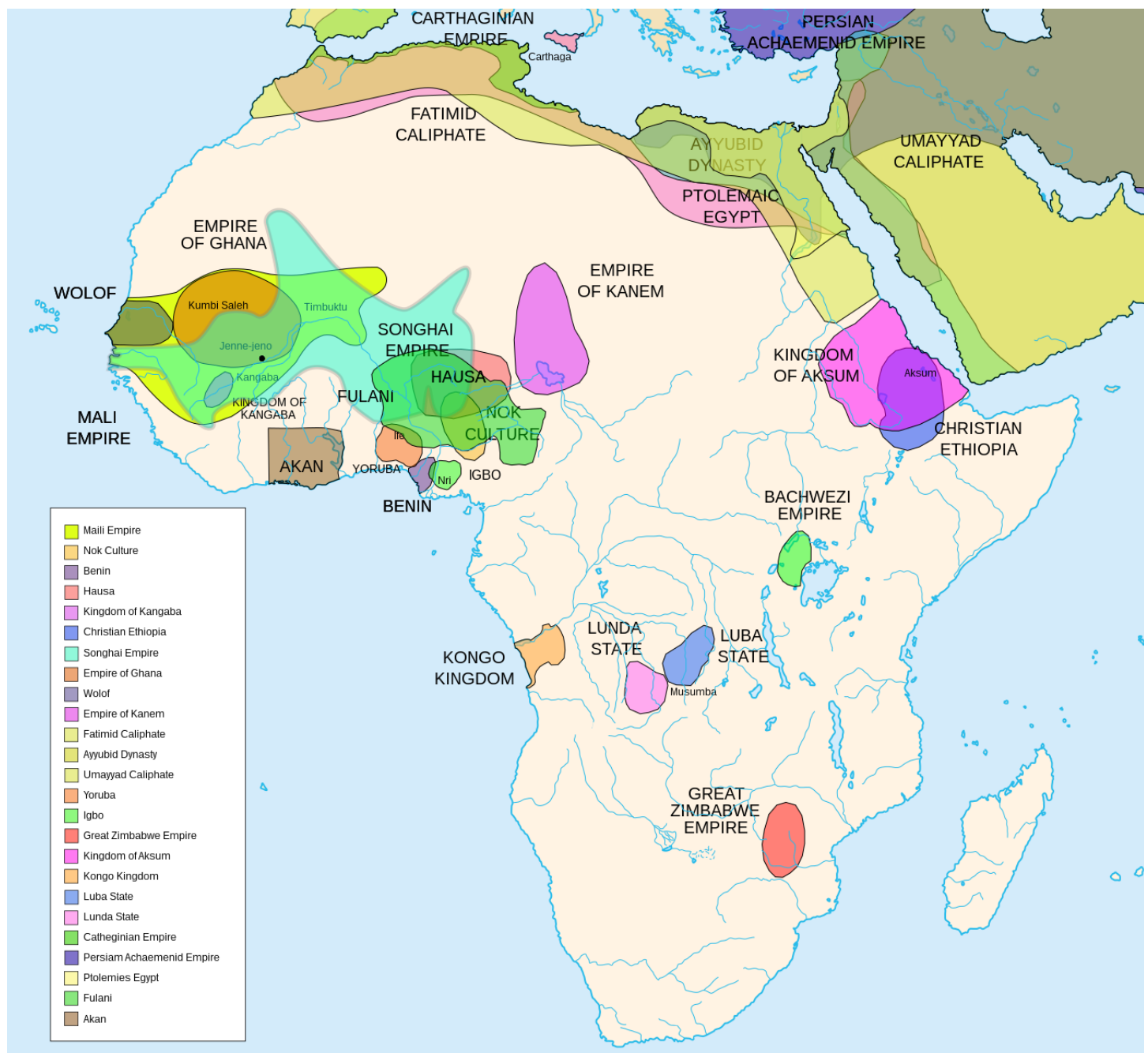
From the 1380s to the 1960s, the Kingdom of Kongo represented one of the most influential monarchies in West Central Africa. Located north of the Malebo Pool of the lower Congo River, the Kingdom profited

from fertile soils, abundant rainfall, and the presence of valuable iron and copper deposits. Beginning in the late 1300s, the Bakongo people living south of the Congo River unified into a single kingdom with a capital at Mbanza Kongo, from which the Manikongo (king of the Kingdom of Kongo) ruled. When the Portuguese arrived in 1483, the Manikongos of Kongo saw an immediate material advantage in establishing diplomatic and trade relations with the new arrivals. In the short term, participation in the Atlantic trade gave Kongo a competitive edge over Kongo's landlocked neighbors such as the Tyo.

African Empires 500BCE to 1500BCE

Artist: Jeff Israel

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The religion of the Portuguese (Catholic Christianity) appealed to the kings of Kongo, who hoped that conversion to the new faith would give them the same power which Portuguese rulers held over their subjects. After all, Catholic Christianity justified the rule of kings over their subjects, helping to legitimize and centralize the power of such monarchs. Furthermore, Catholicism was readily compatible with traditional Kongo spiritual beliefs. For instance, the Creator God of Christianity appeared similar to the Creator God of ancient Bantu belief. Catholic Christianity also had a group of holy individuals, the saints, who had died and gone to heaven and could be prayed to for help in this life. This concept again mirrored Kongolese beliefs in a sky God whose spirits could likewise be invoked to intervene in the lives of mortals.

In the early 1500s, the rulers of Kongo, particularly Afonso I, grasped the advantages of literacy and the possibilities of literate education. They aimed to strengthen and build a more effective administrative apparatus that would provide better communications both with Europe and among their own provinces. By the mid-16th century, Kongo scribes were literate in

Portuguese and Latin and, by the later 16th century, in the KiKongo language.

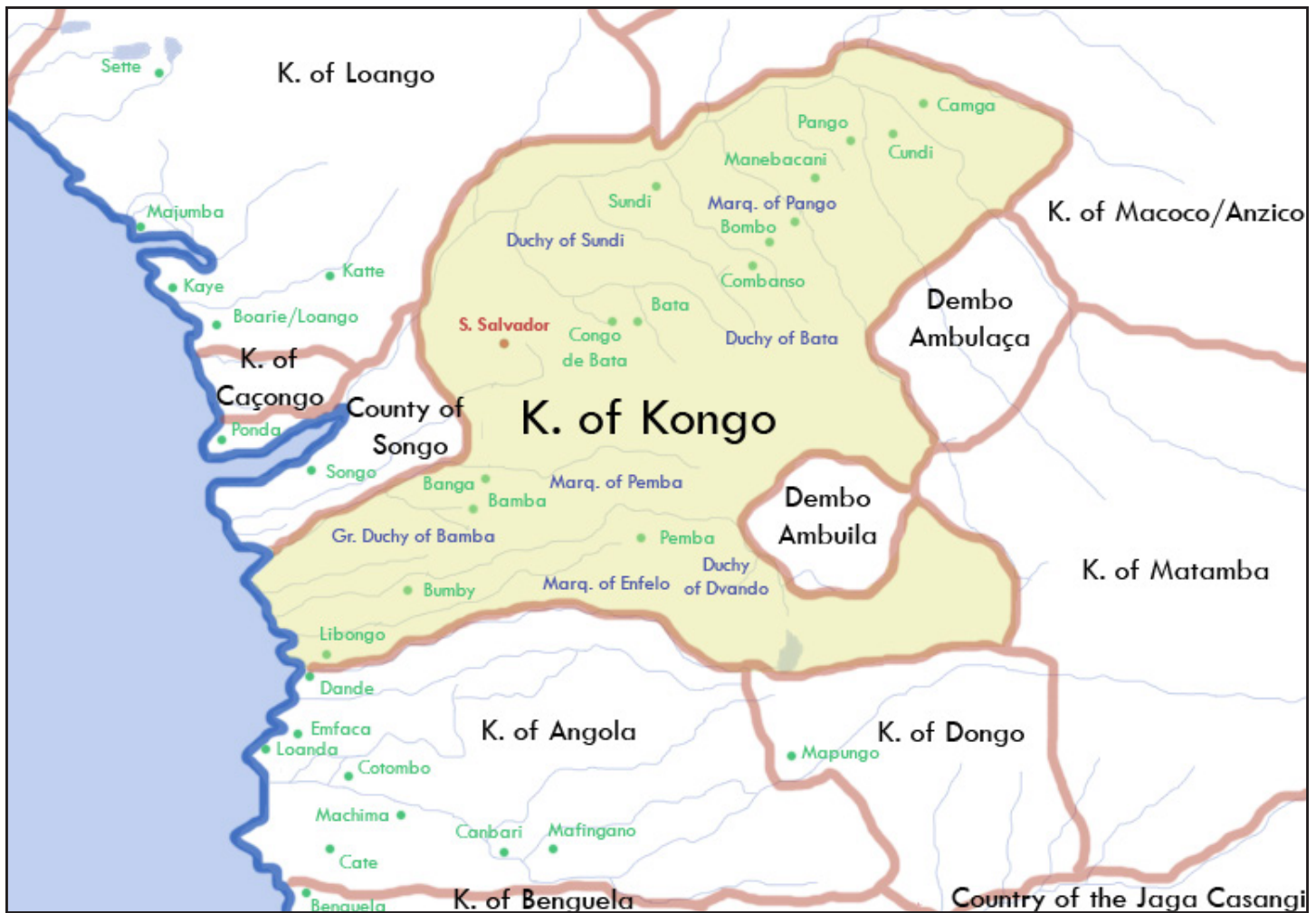
The contact with the Portuguese provided a commercial basis and a new set of ideas supportive of royal legitimacy and authority, helping Kongo become the most powerful kingdom of the region. Cities arose at the critical points of political authority and commercial connections. Mbanza Kongo, already a city in the 1480s, became a still larger city with more than 50,000 inhabitants. Provincial capitals developed into good-sized cities. Enslaved people, especially those captured in war, helped build these expanding urban centers. Significant growth in upper-class wealth took place, intensifying social stratification. Such wealth encouraged Kongo to become increasingly involved in the slave trade. In the 16th century, Kongo began to export nominally free people as well as slaves to the Americas, specifically to Brazil.

Although Kongo continued to be an independent power through the 18th century, new factors began undercutting its autonomy. In the 1570s, the Portuguese set up a colony along the coast, opposite Luanda Island, which dominated the production and supply of nzimbu shells (used as currency). Portuguese merchants also set up regular trade relations with local kingdoms to the south, drawing them away from the sphere of Kongo influence. The Atlantic trade also began to attract other European merchants to the coast by the late 1500s, most notably the Dutch. In the 1630s and the 1640s, Dutch traders offered new direct outlets for goods from the Lower Congo region. These new routes cut the Kongo kingdom off from lucrative trade connections in the interior. In 1665, Dutch forces and their African allies defeated a Kongolese expedition at the Battle of Mbwila. The kingdom then entered a period of civil war as powerful factions sought to install their own candidates as king. Having lost most of its power by the early 18th century, the Kingdom of Kongo existed largely in name only.



**Mangaaka Power Figure
(Nkisi N'Kondi)**

Artist: Kongo artist and nganga, Yombe group
Source: The Metropolitan Museum of Art
License: Public Domain



Map of the Kingdom of Kongo

Artist: User "Happenstance"
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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By the 16th century, European mercantile companies started to establish permanent trading posts along the West, Central and Southern African coasts. Until the partition of Africa in the 19th century, most European involvement in African affairs remained confined to these coastal regions and relied heavily on African middlemen and collaborators. Even African nations such as Mali and Kongo that bore the brunt of European

occupation prior to the 1800s were transformed rather than outright destroyed by the new power dynamics brought about by overseas trade. When European powers annexed these regions into their colonial empires during the late 19th and early 20th centuries, many pre-1800 institutions continued to exist, albeit under a different jurisdiction and with a different kind of sovereignty.

AMERICAS

The arrival of the Europeans in the New World led not only to the exchange of crops and commodities but also the imposition of European economics, habits and values on indigenous populations. Enslaved Africans were also imported to many regions of the Americas, which led to the creation of creole cultures. Whereas Spain created colonial societies on the ruins of the Aztec (1428–1521) and Maya Empires (1511–1697), Portuguese settlers moved into areas that comprise much of modern-day Brazil. Profiting from forced labor, both Portugal and Spain shipped large quantities of gold and silver back to Europe. Exposure to diseases brought from Europe, coupled with overwork in

the *encomienda* system, caused massive population declines among indigenous peoples over the course of the 16th and 17th centuries.

In North America, European exploration led to the establishment of settler colonialism, the appropriation of Native American/First Nations lands and eventually, the decimation, marginalization and displacement of Native Americans. During the colonial period (from the early 17th century until the formation of the United States), Spain, France, England, the Netherlands and Russia sent out expeditions to claim North American territory.



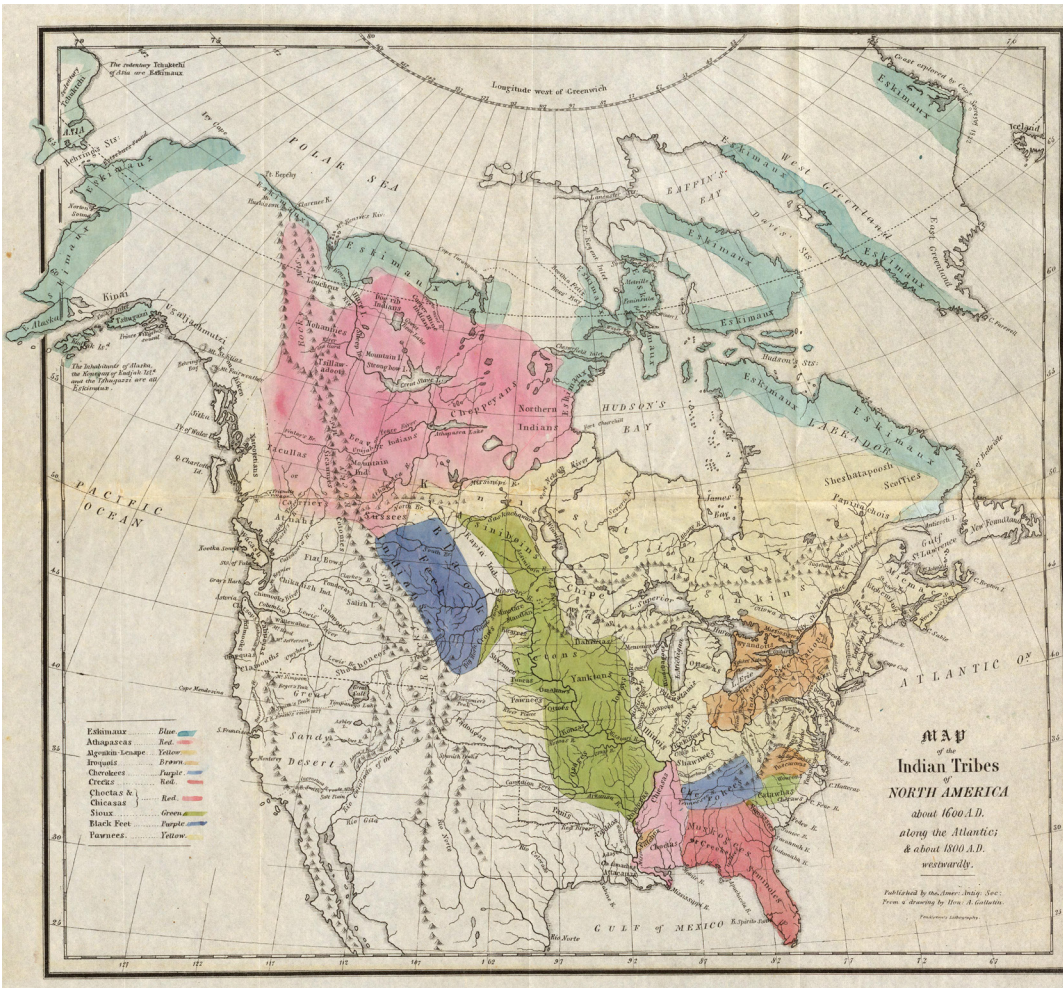
Kneeling Female Figure
15th - early 16th century

Artist: Aztec
Source: The Metropolitan Museum of Art
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ENCOMIENDA SYSTEM

The arrival of the Europeans in the New World resulted in an exchange of goods, ideas and people that scholars later dubbed the “Columbian Exchange.” Beginning in the 16th century, Spanish conquistadores expanded into the Caribbean, Mexico and Peru. Following conquest, colonial officials incorporated these areas into the Spanish Empire. Spanish soldiers, priests and administrators forced Iberian Catholic economic institutions, habits and values upon indigenous people. During this time, crown lawyers legally defined the status of Native Americans within the empire to more effectively tax them. To help administer its New World territory, the Spanish crown entrusted conquistadores and other officials with grants of land and Native American slaves known as *encomiendas* (from the Spanish word *encomendar* - “to entrust”). The recipients of such grants, the *encomenderos*, would in turn, collect tribute in the form of gold, kind, or forced labor from the Native Americans who lived on the allotted land. Spanish officials demanded that landholders provide military protection to their Native American laborers and make provisions to convert them to Catholicism. However, most *encomenderos* claimed the land they occupied without fulfilling their obligations to either protect or convert their Indian slaves.

Developed in part to support the needs of the early mining industry, the *encomienda* system allowed for the rapid development of areas like the San Luis Potosi silver mines in Bolivia. However, given the brutal human costs of mining and the exhaustion of many mines over the course of the 17th century, Spanish officials began to view the *encomienda* system as outdated. They instead promoted the *hacienda* system that resembled early modern European style feudalism. Under the terms of the *hacienda* system, landowners kept peasants in debt so that they could neither leave the land they were working on nor the landowner who owned the *hacienda*.



First Nation Control over North America about 1600 AD

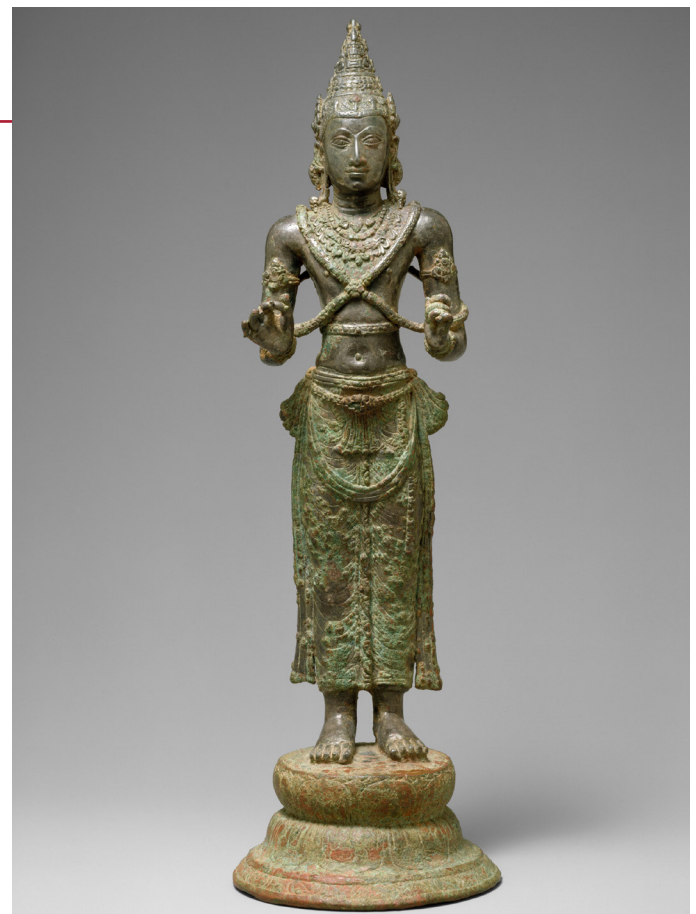
Artist: Albert Gallatin
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Bodhisattva, probably Avalokiteshvara

Artist: Unknown
(Sri Lanka c. eighth century)
Source: The Metropolitan Museum of Art
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ASIA

Today Asia is generally divided into four different regions: Southeast Asia (mainland Southeast Asia and maritime Southeast Asia), South Asia (Indian subcontinent), East Asia (Far East), Central and West Asia (the Middle East and the Caucasus), and North Asia (Siberia). It shares the continental landmasses of Eurasia, Africa, and North and South America. It is bounded by the Pacific, Indian and Arctic Oceans. Nomadic horsemen dominated steppe life, conquering large sections. Russian explorers and settlers began relocating to Asia in the 1600s, a process they would complete by the 19th century. During this same period, the Ottoman Empire expanded throughout Anatolia, the Balkans and Egypt. In the 17th century, the Manchu-led Qing dynasty (1644-1912) conquered China. The Islamic Mughal Empire (1526-1857) and the Hindu Maratha Empire (16th to early 19th century) likewise controlled much of India from the 16th to 18th century. Japan held sway over most of East Asia, parts of Southeast Asia and Oceania until 1945.



SOUTHEAST ASIA

Over the centuries, the term “Southeast Asia” has meant different things to different people. For instance, Chinese mapmakers referred to the coastal areas of Southeast Asia as Nanyang (literally “the Southern sea”). On the other hand, Arab explorers called the region Zīrbād or Zīrbādāt (“land below the winds”). Geographers did not refer to Southeast Asia as a geographical and distinct political term until the mid-twentieth century.

Today experts refer to mainland Southeast Asia (also known as the Indochinese Peninsula), comprising Cambodia, Laos, Myanmar, Peninsular Malaysia, Thailand and Vietnam, under the general heading of Southeast Asia. Maritime Southeast Asia consists mainly of the Malay Archipelago, including Brunei, East Malaysia, East Timor, Indonesia, the Philippines and Singapore.

As in the case of Africa, European explorers, soldiers, merchants and missionaries who voyaged to Asia from the 1500s through the 1800s primarily dealt with coastal areas. For example, Portuguese merchants arrived in the region in the 1500s to dominate the spice trade. However, in the 17th century, the Dutch displaced the Portuguese by establishing trading relations with the Sultans of Java and Sumatra. By the 1800s the British East India Company dominated large sections of India and controlled Hong Kong on the south China coast and Penang and Singapore in Malaysia. Although the bulk of Spain’s overseas colonies lay in Central and South America, Madrid still maintained a tight hold over the Philippines. However, unlike the Americas where Europeans quickly imposed their religious and cultural beliefs on native populations, in Southeast Asia Thais, Burmese, Vietnamese and other groups learned European economic techniques but continued to follow Theravada Buddhism, Mahayana Buddhism and Islam. In sum, prior to 1500, Europeans

wielded little influence over Southeast Asia and even afterward were forced to limit such influence to the relatively small coastal areas.



Southeast Asia:
Political Map (2003)

Artist: Unknown
Source: ANCHOR
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Tibetan Wall Fresco on the wall of the Jokhang Monastery

Artist: Unknown
Source: iStock.com/Grafissimo
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BUDDHISM

During the sixth or fifth centuries BCE, an Indian monk named Siddhartha Guatama taught a form of spiritual asceticism. Enshrined by his followers as the “Buddha” or enlightened one, his teachings became known as Buddhism. As the Buddha eschewed religious dogma and urged individuals to develop their own methods of meditating and praying, Buddhism flowered throughout Asia in a variety of contrasting styles and traditions. Today Tantric, Northern Mahāyāna, and Southern Hinayana Buddhism represent the three largest groups of Buddhists in the world. Native to Sri Lanka (Ceylon), Myanmar (Burma), Thailand, Cambodia and Laos, the Theravada school represents the most conservative branch of Buddhism. Theravadins (Pali; “Way of the Elders”) enshrine the teachings of Buddha’s followers, maintain a sharp division between monks and ordinary practitioners, and venerate the Buddha as not merely a spiritual leader but the perfect master.

The Mahāyāna (Sanskrit for “Greater Vehicle”) movement arose in India around the ninth century CE and spread rapidly through Central and East Asia. Central to Mahāyāna ideology is the idea of the bodhisattva, the one who seeks to become a Buddha. Mahāyāna Buddhists believe that everybody can aspire to become a bodhisattva. Bodhisattvas seek to understand the nature of reality through acquiring wisdom (prajna) and actualization through compassion (karuna). Providing an organized monastic movement and large scholastic centers, Mahāyāna Buddhism remains a very popular form of Buddhism. Mahāyāna accepts the primary scriptures and teachings of early Buddhism but also recognizes other texts that are not accepted by Theravada Buddhism, such as the Mahāyāna Sūtras, which emphasizes the history of bodhisattvas.

EAST ASIA



Map of Ethnic Groups in Indonesia

Artist: Gunawan Kartapranata
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Today cartographers regard China (including Hong Kong and Macau), Japan, Mongolia, North Korea, South Korea and Taiwan as part of East Asia. East Asia shares borders with Russia, Southeast Asia and Central Asia.

For nearly 300 years, the Ming dynasty provided China with a relatively stable government and economy. The last Han Chinese dynasty to occupy the throne, the Ming came to power in 1368 after having ousted the Mongols, who had ruled China for nearly a century. Ming emperors promoted domestic agricultural production and tried to reduce dependency on foreign trade and merchants. Ming officials capitalized on

American crops such as corn, squash, peanuts and beans introduced to Asia by European merchants to greatly increase Chinese crop yields. The Ming dynasty also established regular commercial exchanges with Japan. In the 1400s, Ming fleets led by Admiral Zheng He used sophisticated seamanship and maritime technology to reach Malaysia, Indonesia, India, Arabia and East Africa.

Negative encounters with Portuguese, Spanish and Dutch trading enterprises and missionaries led Chinese officials to expel foreigners en masse and prohibit the teaching of western religion. Losing control of the country, the Ming dynasty would be replaced in 1644

Ming China around 1580

Artist: User "Jahn"; Derivative of Rise Ming.png by Michal Klajban
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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by the Qing. The Qing dynasty would, in turn, govern China until 1912.

Despite being heavily influenced by Chinese culture and politics, Japan developed its own political, cultural and economic traditions. Although nominally led by an emperor, Japan was actually ruled by daimyos (feudal lords) who competed to control the imperial

government. Until the emergence of the Tokugawa dynasty (1603-1868), led by the former dynamo and eventual military dictator (shogun) Tokugawa Ieyasu (1603-1868), Japan had been a fractured and violent state. Borrowing from Chinese precedents, Tokugawa and his successors expelled Christian missionaries and reduced their exposure to European trade and ideas. This isolation would last until the 19th century.

SOUTH ASIA

Today, South Asia includes the countries of Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka. The region is bounded by the Himalayan mountains to the north and the Indian Ocean in the south. When Europeans traders in the 1500s and 1600s first moved into the region,

they faced opposition from the Mughal Empire that dominated Northern India. However, the decline of the Mughals in the 18th century provided an opening for the British Empire, which would eventually gain control over much of the region.

SUMMARY

This chapter has laid the essential groundwork for our investigation of world history. The following chapters will build upon this information by encouraging readers to broaden their horizons and confront the past from a multitude of perspectives. As we cover more than 500 years of history, we will see that while many aspects of the human experience have radically changed, other areas retain a high degree of continuity. When reading through this text, try to identify trends of continuity and change over time. The next three chapters deal with empires that governed vast lands in Europe, America, Asia, Eurasia and the Middle East. The following three chapters examine revolutions in science and religion, social and cultural revolutions that challenged and toppled existing political orders, and a technological revolution that changed the world. We then examine how various societies dealt with the challenges of modernity and outside encroachment. Our textbook concludes with an investigation of the 20th century and our modern world.

2

Expanding Empires, Europe and the Americas, 1500-1700



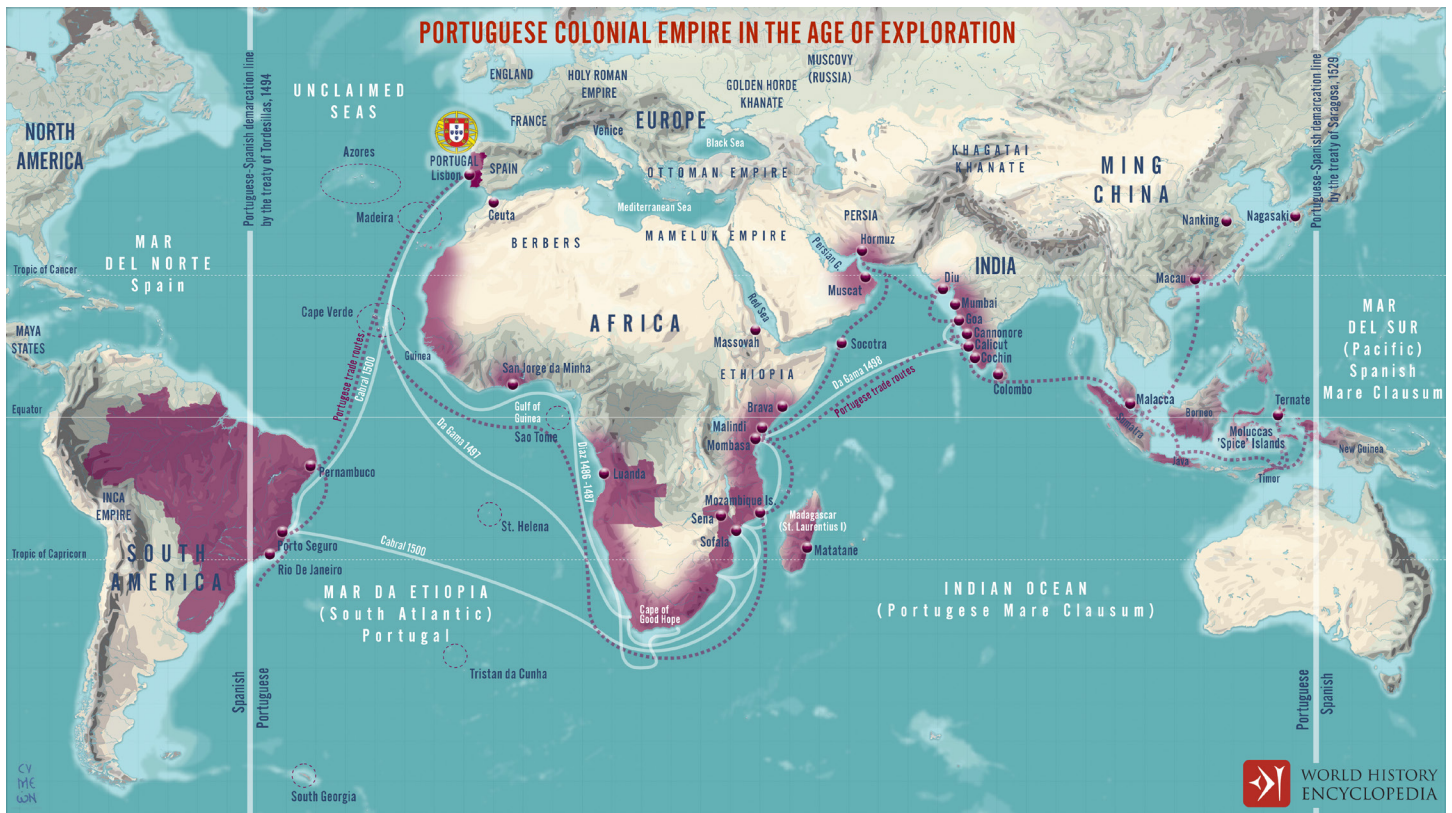
Monument to the Discoveries
(Padrão dos Descobrimentos) in Lisbon, Portugal

Artist: Marcus Lindstrom
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EUROPE

The Ottoman conquest of Constantinople and subsequent expansion into the Mediterranean World impeded European commercial development. Increasing competition between different European states and the Ottomans encouraged European monarchs to look beyond their shores for new markets. They heavily invested in their navies, not just in new ships but new maritime technology such as astrolabes and caravels with ribbed hulls, which gave captains and navigators the ability to explore the wider world. Europeans started to look for routes that would allow them to circumvent the Ottoman Empire by sea. The Portuguese were the

first Europeans to circumnavigate the African continent and venture into the Indian Ocean. The silver they gained from the Americas, coupled with the application of new military and maritime technologies, allowed the Portuguese to become important participants in the Indian Ocean trade. As a vital component of this flourishing market, the Portuguese, and eventually other Europeans, transacted with Arab, Persian, Indian and Chinese merchants, and polities. The Portuguese ruler King Henry the Navigator (1394-1460) played a vital role in the growth of Portugal as a sea power.



Portuguese Colonial Empire

Artist: Simeon Netchev
Source: World History Encyclopedia
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PROTESTANT REFORMATION

CAUSES OF THE PROTESTANT REFORMATION

During the early 1500s, European nations began to export not merely colonialism and mercantilism but also Catholicism to the Americas, Africa and Asia. However, while Portuguese, Spanish and French missionaries repurposed traditional Catholic theology to justify imperialism abroad, philosophers and scientists back home were developing a new consensus toward the natural world and the role of humans within this world. Over time, Humanism, the Renaissance, the Protestant Reformation, the Counter-Reformation and the Scientific Revolution would fundamentally transform European society.

Around 1500 most Europeans still practiced some form of Christianity. Western European nations clung

to Roman Catholicism, while Orthodox Christianity dominated Eastern Europe, the Balkans and Russia. Smaller sects of Coptic, Syriac, Chaldean, Assyrian, Maronite and St. Thomas Christians dotted Africa, the Middle East and India. Although alarmed by the Ottoman conquest of Constantinople in 1453, Christians fought among themselves during this period as much as against Muslim armies.

During the medieval period in Europe a succession of Popes authorized the selling of indulgences. Indulgences granted a full or partial remission for sins. In the catholic belief system, every sin must be purified either before death through confession and absolution or, after death, during time spent in purgatory. Through a donation to the church of either service or money, priests would reduce the amount of time a person would have to spend in purgatory before advancing to heaven. In the 14th century, reformers such as John Wycliffe and

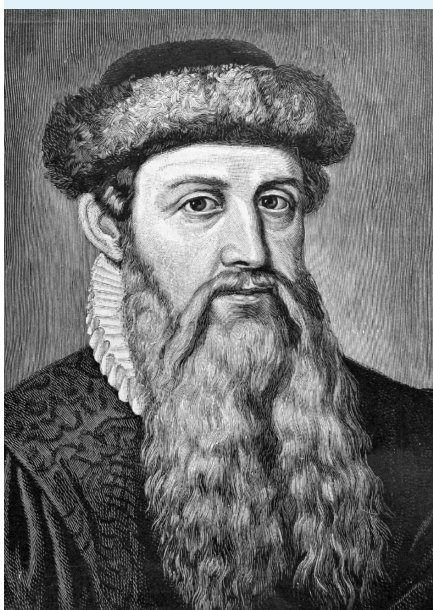
Jan Hus dismissed the practice and many other church doctrines as corrupt. Although church officials executed Wycliffe and Hus in 1509, Dutch theologian Erasmus of Rotterdam's *Praise of Folly* raised the same issue of corruption in the church. Due to Gutenberg's invention of the moveable-type printing press in 1453, *Praise of Folly* quickly became available across Europe.

Doctrinal questions about the Catholic church's ultimate authority, combined with the invention of the printing press, set the stage for the Protestant Reformation. In 1517, the German monk and scholar Martin Luther (1483-1546) challenged the Catholic church with his "Ninety-Five-Theses." Like many before, Luther was dissatisfied with several Catholic doctrines and practices, including the selling of indulgences. Luther stressed that salvation could only be gained by faith in God. Luther's *Justification by Faith* spread rapidly throughout Europe. In 1521, a group of religious and political leaders known as the Diet of Worms declared Luther a heretic and suggested his ex-communication from the Catholic church. Luther's subsequent separation from the church sparked a new movement known as Protestantism. For many individuals, including John Calvin, Luther had not gone far enough in his reformative endeavors. As these dissonances grew, the Catholic church fought back, creating religious orders to win back believers. However, the rise of Protestantism led to the creation of many new Christian denominations.



Commentary on Solomon's from Gutenberg's Latin bible, circa 1453 –1456

Artist: Johannes Gensfleisch zur Laden zum Gutenberg
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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JOHANN GUTENBERG

Johannes Gensfleisch zu Laden zum Gutenberg was born around 1399 in the German town of Mainz. A goldsmith, gem cutter and metallurgist, he invented one of the most revolutionary devices in modern history – the printing press. Previously monks and scribes wrote and copied texts by hand. The possibility of having movable blocks of letters and graphics in a type setting form made it possible to print texts and entire books faster, cheaper and in greater numbers. Gutenberg initially printed Latin Bibles with colorful illustrations for distribution across Europe. When the Protestant Reformation started, the printing press allowed for the mass publication of Bibles translated into vernacular languages. This sparked popular interest in theology and contributed to rising literacy rates throughout Europe.

Artist: T. Allom (Illustrator) and J. Tingle (Engraver)
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EFFECTS OF THE PROTESTANT REFORMATION

Catholic teachings stressed the importance of doing good deeds and sacraments that depended heavily on church traditions to earn salvation. However, Luther argued that Christianity rested solely on the Bible's authority and that salvation could only be achieved by faith alone. In letters and proclamations, Luther challenged the Pope's authority and the Catholic Church's organization. While these changes transformed European society, women did not necessarily profit from these new developments. The male Jesus figure moved to the center of Protestant faith, and the Virgin Mary and other female saints lost their iconic status within the church. Even as literacy and education flourished across Europe, women's roles became more defined by domesticity, marriage and motherhood, roles more bound to the house than outside of it.

Luther's translation of the New Testament into German soon inspired the translation of the Bible into other languages across the globe. The rise of the printing press allowed these new volumes to be quickly produced and distributed. As the Protestant movement spread, it fractured into a wide array of competing denominations, such as Calvinists, Anglicans, Anabaptists and Quakers. Formulated by French attorney and theologian John Calvin in the Swiss canton of Geneva, Calvinists espoused "predestination," the concept that from the moment of creation, an omniscient God had predetermined certain Christians for election to heaven. Calvinists thus had to be exemplary Christians, not to earn their way into heaven, but as members of the "divine elect," there would naturally be observable signs of their holy status. Although an extreme faith by the standards of the time, Calvinism appealed to many "middling sorts" such as bankers, merchants, doctors, attorneys and publishers who did not fit neatly into traditional European feudal society but who craved divine and secular approval of their accomplishments.

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Teaching the Reformation in the 16th Century





MARTIN LUTHER'S WIFE, KATHARINA VON BORA

Martin Luther's wife, Katharina von Bora, is believed to have been born in 1499 in the German village of Lippendorf. As a child, she attended a Benedictine monastery in Brehna in 1504 and later moved to the Cistercian monastery Marienthron in Nimbschen, near the German town of Grimma. Interested in the reformist movement, she secretly asked Luther for help in leaving the monastery. Katharina escaped with some other nuns from the convent to Wittenberg, hiding on a food delivery wagon Luther had sent on Easter Eve, April 4, 1523. Realizing that the nuns would be rejected by their families, Martin Luther found many of them homes, husbands and jobs.

Initially, Katherina stayed with the city clerk of Wittenberg, Philipp Reichenback but eventually ended up living with the painter Lucas Cranach the Elder and his wife, Barbara. Katherina received several marriage proposals but held out hope for an engagement to Luther. Although worried that pursuing a relationship might impair his leadership of the Protestant reform movement, Luther eventually proposed marriage. On June 13, 1525, Martin Luther married the 15 years younger Katherina von Bora, setting a precedent for allowing reformist clergy to marry. The couple moved into the Augusteum, dubbed the "Black Cloister," the former dormitory and college of Augustinian friars studying in Wittenberg. Von Bora took over the monastery's administration, oversaw a small farm associated with it, and ran an on-site hospital. Martin and Katherina had six children together, of which only three survived. They also took in four orphans. When her husband died in 1546, Katherina struggled financially without his income as a pastor and professor. Although Luther had named her his heir in his will, it did not conform with Saxon Law. She was forced to leave Wittenberg at the outbreak of the Schmalkalden War, a conflict between Protestant and Catholic nobles from 1546 to 1547. She died in poverty at Torgau in Germany in 1552 at 53. She was buried at St. Mary's Church in Torgau, far away from her husband, Martin Luther.

Top:

Katharina von Bora

Artist: Lucas Cranach the Elder
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Bottom:

Martin Luther

Artist: Lucas Cranach the Elder
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THE ENGLISH REFORMATION

The marital problems and dynastic ambitions of King Henry VIII (1491-1547) led to the creation of an independent Church of England. Increasingly worried about not having a male heir, Henry wished to divorce his Spanish Catholic wife, Catherine of Aragon (1485-1536). Worried about offending Catherine's nephew King Charles V of Spain (1500-1558), Pope Clement VII (1478-1534) refused Henry's request for an annulment (similar to a divorce but would mean that in the eyes of the Catholic Church Henry and Catherine's marriage had never happened and he would be free to marry whoever he liked). Frustrated with the lack of progress, Henry eventually persuaded the English Parliament to pass the 1534 Act of Supremacy, which made the King of England rather than the Pope the head of the English (Anglican) Church. Henry then had his marriage to Catherine annulled so he could marry his long-time favorite Anne Boleyn (1501 or 1507-1536). When Henry and Anne proved unable to conceive a male heir, English officials executed her, in May of 1536, on charges of witchcraft, incest and adultery. Henry would go on to have another four wives. He and his third wife would produce a son, Edward VI, who reigned from 1547-

1553. Edward was succeeded by his eldest half-sister Mary (daughter of Henry VIII and Catherine) who returned England to the Roman Catholic fold. Mary (b. 1516) reigned until her death in 1558 when she was replaced by Henry and Anne's Anglican daughter Elizabeth, who would become one of the most successful and longest reigning (1558-1603) monarchs in English history.

Throughout the 16th century, government-sponsored Anglicanism became the dominant faith among English subjects. However, several branches of reform Protestants also proved popular to the masses. Led by the reformer John Knox (c. 1514-1572), Scotland adopted Presbyterianism. Presbyterians emphasized local churches by rejecting the hierarchy and especially the power of appointed bishops, a feature of Anglicanism. Meanwhile, in England, a branch of strict Calvinists known as Puritans sought to "purify" the church from features associated with Catholicism, such as the hierarchy of bishops, Latin liturgies and the use of sacraments. From the 17th century onward, immigrants from the British Isles brought Calvinist ideas to the Americas.

OTHER EARLY PROTESTANT FAITHS



During the 16th century, other new Protestant groups emerged with religious beliefs that did not easily align with either Lutheranism or Calvinism. In the German states, Mennonites began to preach that parishioners were equal to one another as the Christian church constituted the body of Christ on Earth. Anabaptists likewise rejected infant baptism, arguing that only adults capable of freely agreeing to baptism could be cleansed of sin. In the German states, the Mennonites practiced traditional agrarian lifestyles and spoke a variant of Alemannic German. In the 1600s and 1700s, many Mennonites and Amish migrated to Canada and the United States. To this day, Old Order Mennonites and Amish continue to live conservative lifestyles and eschew automobiles in favor of horses and carriages.

Traditional Garment of the Swiss Anabaptists

from the *Collection de costumes suisses des XXII cantons, peints par J. Reinhart et publiés chez P. Birrmann à Basle, 1819* (Privatsammlung; Bibliothèque de Genève, Archives A. & G. Zimmermann)

Artist: J. Reinhart

Source: Das Historische Lexikon der Schweiz

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Traditional Amish buggy riding in Lancaster, PA

Artist: Unknown
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THE COUNTER-REFORMATION

The Reformation provoked a Catholic Counter-Reformation. During the Council of Trent (1546-1563), Catholics reaffirmed their doctrines, sacraments, practices and the authority of the church. New emphasis was placed on the education of priests and their supervision by bishops. Church officials also created an official list (*Index Librorum Prohibitorium*) of heretical books to be burned. In 1540, Pope Paul III (1468-1549) granted Spanish soldier Ignatius of Loyola (1491- 1556) the right to organize the Society of Jesus. Accountable only to the Papacy, the Jesuits focused on education and spreading the Catholic faith. By the 1700s, the Society of Jesus became one of the first global Catholic orders.

RELIGIOUS WARS AND THEIR OUTCOMES

By 1555 the Peace of Augsburg ended a 10-year civil war and split the German states into Catholic and Protestant areas. The rest of Europe likewise fragmented (see map) along religious lines. Scandinavia became almost entirely Lutheran. At the same time, Austria, Hungary and Poland remained Catholic but retained large Calvinist and Lutheran minorities. Portugal, Spain and Italy remained solidly Catholic. Russia and southeastern Europe continued to practice Orthodox Christianity. In Ottoman-occupied areas such as Romania and Bosnia,

Portrait of the Brak Family, 1752, Amsterdam
Mennonites

Artist: Tibout Regters
Source: Rijksmuseum
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Map of the Religious Divisions in Europe Following the Protestant Reformation c. 1590

Artist: John Wyatt Greenlee
Source: World History Since 1500 (Rankin, Weise)
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Islam became influential. In France, which remained a predominantly Catholic nation, the Protestant-born but Catholic-practicing King Henry IV (1553-1610) proclaimed the edict of Nantes in 1598, which promised freedom of conscience and the right to hold office to French Calvinists known as Huguenots.

As the ruler of Spain, Spain's overseas colonies, the Spanish Netherlands (which included Holland and Belgium) and parts of Italy, Phillip II (1527-1598) aimed to reestablish Catholicism as the dominant faith in Europe. In 1588, he sent a massive invasion fleet known as the Spanish Armada to return England to the Catholic fold. Due to the innovativeness of the English fleet and the appearance of a typhoon dubbed the "Protestant Wind," two-thirds of the Armada never returned to Spanish ports.

THE LEGACY OF THE REFORMATION

The Protestant Reformation completely transformed Europe by shattering the dominance once held by the Catholic Church. Europe was now divided primarily into Protestant and Catholic camps. It also led to long-lasting cultural changes such as higher literacy, the beginning of mass education and an emphasis on individual moral responsibility. To create a "harvest of souls" for their respective churches, Protestant and Catholic missionaries spread their faiths (and their rivalries) across the Americas, Africa and Asia. One of the most significant accomplishments was that lay people could read, debate, and discuss theology on their own terms. It took power away from the clergy and demanded that individuals take active steps to assure their own salvation.

AMERICAS

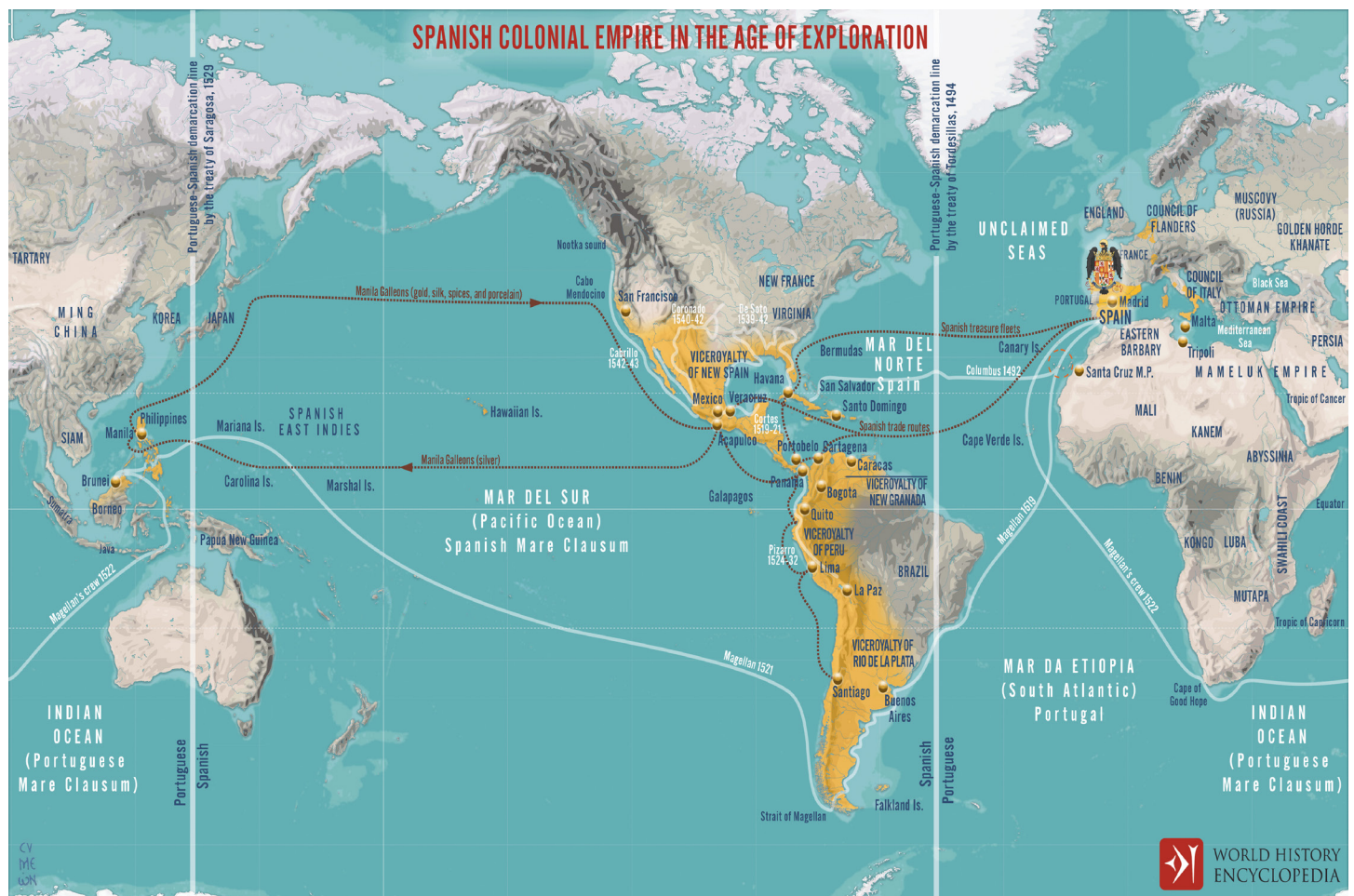
European arrivals in the New World triggered a tremendous exchange of crops, diseases, people and ideas. Beginning in the 1500s, Spanish conquistadors asserted their will over millions of Aztecs, Mayans and Incas. Epidemic diseases like smallpox, measles and influenza decimated local Native American populations. Following waves of colonists, merchants and priests attempted to destroy traditional Native American cultures, or merged them with Iberian Catholic institutions, customs and ideas. The emerging “castas” society represented a hybrid of Native American, African and European peoples and cultures. Facing continued resistance from Mayans in Central America, Incas in Peru, Mapuche in Patagonia, and Pueblos in New Mexico, Spanish officials created systems of fortified missions such as Santa Fe and San Francisco to

convert and train Native Americans to assume positions in Spanish colonial society.

While the Spanish conquered large swathes of North and South America, Portuguese explorers concentrated on the area of Brazil. With less manpower and resources to devote to colonization, Portuguese settlers quickly intermarried with Native Americans. Their descendants became known as mamelucos in Brazil and mestizos in Spanish-speaking regions. Both Portuguese and Spanish colonies profited from large plantation systems, especially those that focused on sugarcane. The big agricultural estates were initially run by an encomienda system that later gave way to the hacienda system. Some areas were also rich in gold and silver mines.

Map Illustrating the Rise of Spain into a Global Colonial and Trading Power Following the European Age of Exploration of the 15th Century

Artist: Simeon Natchev
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AFRICA

In the 17th and early 18th centuries, English, French and Dutch explorers began to colonize parts of the Americas and the Caribbean, partaking in the trans-Atlantic slave trade and exploiting people of African and Native American descent. This led to multiple slave uprisings, the most successful of which was the Haitian Revolution (1791-1804) led by Touissant L'Ouverture (1743-1803), which resulted in the first independent state in the new world governed by former slaves. By the early 1800s, a wave of additional revolutions created sovereign states like Mexico, Honduras, Columbia, Peru, Venezuela, Argentina and Chile.

The African continent experienced many changes between the 15th and the 17th centuries. In some regions of Africa, Europeans only dealt with African intermediaries and never set foot into the interior. Africans who lived in coastal areas experienced the most significant changes. Some of the empires in the hinterland such as the declining Songhay Empire, the Hausa city-states, and the Kanem-Bornu Empire remained more focused on the trans-Saharan trade. In

contrast, certain coastal kingdoms, such as Benin and Oyo, started to play an essential role in the emerging Atlantic trade.

A rise in international trade helped create new kingdoms in the Great Lakes region around Lake Victoria and Lake Tanganyika. Bunyoro-Kitara emerged as one of the most important regional powers, ruling over the kingdoms of Karagwe, Burundi and Buganda. By the late 18th century, the Kingdom of Buganda and coastal Swahili City-states likewise became key players in the Atlantic world. Great Zimbabwe experienced influences from the Portuguese and the Omani Arabs, whose trading monopolies intersected in the Indian Ocean. The Portuguese tried to dominate the East African ivory and gold trade. They established significant fortifications in Mozambique and Mombasa while controlling regional trading hubs such as Paté, Lamu, Malindi, Pemba, Zanzibar and Kilwa. In the 1660s, the dominance of the Portuguese in East Africa would be challenged by not only the Swahili but their Arab allies, especially the Imamate of Oman (in southeast Arabia).



**In the Room of
the Slave Ship**

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Map of both intercontinental and transatlantic slave trade in Africa 1600-1850

Artist: User "KuroNekoNiyah"
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THE TRANS-ATLANTIC SLAVE TRADE AND AFRICANS IN THE MAKING OF THE ATLANTIC WORLD

Beginning in the Early Atlantic Age (1450 – 1640), a ‘third zone’ of commercial encounter sprang up along the West African coast. Different European nations, such as the Portuguese, Castilians (Spanish), Dutch, English and French, began exchanging goods with African traders and middlemen along the coasts. New markets for existing commodities started to open, which initially stimulated domestic trade. These new markets provided copper and ivory from the Congo Basin, textiles from Benin, and enslaved people from western Sudan.

During the Middle Atlantic Age (1640 – 1800), English, Dutch, French, Danish and Spanish sugar planters

in the Caribbean increased demands for slave labor. As European merchants began to pay West African chieftains for increasing numbers of slaves with produce and manufactured goods, the traditional practice of carrying goods from one African coastal area to another began to break down.

The shift in trade away from Central and West Africa and toward the Atlantic World also brought about tremendous political changes. Powerful empires such as the Oyo and Benin began to play important diplomatic and economic roles in the region. Women rose to prominent roles in West and Central African kingdoms. For example, in the Kingdom of Dahomey, women served as soldiers and administrators. New emerging states and the development of new trading networks in West-Central Africa marginalized some of the existing power players, such as the Kingdom of Kongo.

AFRO-CARIBBEAN RELIGIONS – SANTERIA AND CANDOMBLÉ IN THE AFRICAN DIASPORA



Members of the Candombles religion are seen during a religious procession in the city of Salvador, Brazil

Artist: Joa Souza

Source: iStockPhoto.com/Joa_Souza

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The rise of the trans-Atlantic slave trade led to the spread of African religious practices through the African diaspora. The Yoruba people of present-day Nigeria were among the largest and the latest groups forcibly transported to the Americas. Many enslaved people retained memories of their religious practices while simultaneously merging such beliefs with those of other enslaved African groups and elements of Catholicism. In Cuba, these religious practices became known as Santeria; in Brazil, they were referred to as Candomblé.

The name Santeria comes from comparisons some followers made between Roman Catholic saints (santos) and the Yoruba deities known as orishas. Many modern practitioners refer to the religion as “the religion of the orishas” or the “Lucumi religion.” In Santeria, we can find many practices such as divination and spirit possession gleaned from West African religious traditions. Santeria was initially practiced by enslaved people and later by people of African descent. Many exiles fleeing the Cuban Revolution brought the faith to the United States.

Like Cuba, Brazil represented one of the largest importers of enslaved Africans. Salvador de Bahia became one of the centers for the practice of Nagô Candomblé. Like Santeria, its origins lay in Yoruba religious practices but also integrated Central Africa spiritual practices. Also, here, we can again find a duality of Catholic saints and African deities. After the downfall of the Oyo Empire and the rise of the Sokoto Caliphate, many Yoruba were forcefully enslaved and shipped across the Atlantic at the beginning of the 19th century. Because their faith resembled an organized religion, it made it easier to merge with Catholicism. An organized priesthood, complex religious ceremonies, and texts and prayers used in divination provided avenues for religious syncretism on many levels.

Both Santeria and Candomblé are examples of hybrid and creolized religious systems. On the one hand, they created something new and contributed to a newly emerging Afro-Caribbean culture. On the other, the ritual practices using the Yoruba language continued to maintain a strong connection to Africa.

SUMMARY

Between 1500-1700 the world underwent tremendous changes. Contact with Europeans rattled the African continent and led to one of the biggest genocides in world history – the trans-Atlantic slave trade. During this four-century ordeal, slave traders forcibly transported 15 million Africans to the Americas. Both the political and economic landscape in West and West-Central Africa was forever altered. Products imported to the African continent through the Columbian exchange changed the cuisines and diets of people. An emphasis on the trade in human beings contributed to the downfall of such powerful kingdoms like the Kingdom of Kongo, the rise and influence of European colonial powers on the African continent, and a change in the power dynamics providing coastal states with larger political and economic clout than they had previously held.

3

Cultural Encounters and Expanding Empires in Asia and Eurasia, 1500-1700



Piracy of the South China Sea

Artist: User "triotriotrio"
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RUSSIA

The Russian Empire's origins lay in the medieval Slavic state of Kievan Rus. Kievan Rus occupied most of present-day Belarus, Ukraine and northwest Russia. In the 13th century, the state, including the princes of the Grand Duchy of Moscow, remained under the command of Mongolian control. With the decline of the Mongol Empire, the princes of the Grand Duchy of Moscow successfully out-maneuvered other Kievan Rus princes, increasing their power and prestige.

Ivan III (r. 1462-1505) expanded his control and, by 1480, was strong enough to declare the autonomy of Moscow from the Golden Horde. Known by his followers as Ivan the Great, he and his successors incorporated political, military and technological ideas from Asia and Europe. The Muscovites relied on the Boyars (high-ranking nobles) and the church for support. After the fall of Byzantium, Russians increasingly viewed themselves as the protectors of Orthodox Christians both within and outside their borders.



Centralization accelerated under the erratic and iron-fisted rule of Ivan IV (r. 1533-1584), known to history as Ivan the Terrible. The term ‘terrible’ is better translated today to mean formidable. Unsatisfied with his status, in 1547 Ivan had himself crowned Czar of Russia. Ivan dedicated much of his reign to increasing both his power and that of the Russian state.

Ivan had a tumultuous personal life. He had at least six wives (and as many as eight), and he likely killed his son and heir in 1581 in a fit of anger. Ivan believed in his right to rule without challenge or consent and expected his people, including serfs (peasants tied to the land), to obey his every wish. He successfully allied with the Cossacks (semi-nomadic and militarized peoples who occupied the



Map of Russian Expansion, 1533-1696

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Source: World History Since 1500 (Rankin, Weise)
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Portrait of Ivan IV

Artist: Victor Vasnetov
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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borderlands in western Russia) and expanded Russia into Kazan, Astrakhan and the Ural Mountains. Under Ivan, Russia also made its first forays into Siberia. To reduce the power of the Boyars, Ivan established a new service-styled nobility, one which derived its position and power from supporting rather than challenging the crown. By his death in 1584, Ivan further strengthened Russia and the power of the Tsar.

Ivan's death in 1584 ushered in a period of chaos known as the Time of Trouble as his relatives struggled over the imperial throne. Centralized power waned until Ivan's nephew, the new Czar Michael (r. 1613-1645), re-established centralized control, establishing the Romanov dynasty that would rule Russia until 1917.

Resuming its expansionary push, Russia conquered parts of Ukraine in 1667 and seized control of Siberia by the end of the century. The borders of the Russian Empire now extended to the Pacific. The conquest of Siberia would be consequential for Russian development as its natural resources, especially its furs, brought increased wealth to the Russian state. In 1649, a new code of laws stipulated that anyone who did not own land would be considered a serf, which made it clear that landowners had the right to rule, direct and control the Russian state and people. The new laws also ended the period of religious tolerance and ordered all non-Russians to adopt the Eastern Orthodox faith.



Michael I of Russia

Artist: Johann Heinrich Wedekind
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Ivan the Terrible and His Son Ivan

Artist: Ilya Repin
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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CHINA

China also benefited from the end of Mongol rule. By 1500, the Ming dynasty (1368-1644) had ruled China for more than 130 years. The rise of the Mings ushered in a new period of peace that allowed China to flourish. However, by 1500 problems had begun to beset the Ming dynasty. A succession of weak and incompetent emperors, coupled with fiscal, military and bureaucratic issues, undermined the stability of the Chinese state.

Enthusiastic builders, the Mings constructed a new capital called Beijing. Built between 1407 and 1420, the new capital consisted of a series of squares within squares, each being more restrictive and private than the next. A palace complex of nearly 10,000 rooms, the Forbidden

City was the most private area. Within these walls, the emperor and the bureaucracy worked, sometimes together, others at odds, to run the Chinese state.

MING DYNASTY

Chinese scholar-officials represented the backbone of the Chinese state and bureaucracy. Unlike Europe, China had no hereditary aristocracy, nor did its merchant class become politically significant as in some European countries. Deriving power and status from their education and high government office, scholar-officials became the most formidable check on the absolute power of the emperor. Scholar-officials gained their place in government by passing rigorous civil service examinations held at the prefecture, provincial and capital levels. Quotas ensured that each province could only send so many worthy candidates to the capital, ensuring no regional dominance in government. The prestige associated with being sent to the capital meant that families who could afford to do so would hire tutors to give their male children an advantage. Based mainly on Confucian texts, the examinations could last for several days. The grueling process of the exams, the writing of essays, the drafting of mock state papers and edicts, and commenting on Confucian texts, coupled with the meager passing rates, ensured that those who advanced would be adept public servants capable of administering the Chinese state.

The rise of the Ming dynasty did not end the threat of another Mongol invasion. Ming rulers deeply respected and feared the Mongols, especially their fighting abilities. This encouraged them to expand, rebuild and improve a series of walls, some very old, to aid in keeping the Mongols at bay. Earlier walls, often made of rammed earth, were replaced, buttressed, or built anew with stone and brick. This increased the overall cost and labor needed to develop and improve the walls. The walls also had a series of watch towers and gates to facilitate trade, taxation and security.

Ming Dynasty Painting of the Forbidden Palace

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Map of Ming Dynasty, 1400-1660

Artist: John Wyatt Greenlee
 Source: World History Since 1500 (Rankin, Weise)
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It is estimated that 3,800 miles were added to the original defensive structure.

During the Ming dynasty, attention was paid to improving the countryside. During this period, whole populations, if judged necessary, would be moved to help increase farming or recover lands destroyed by natural disaster, war or neglect. The government also invested heavily in reforestation. Promoting agriculture led to increased food production and a healthier, wealthier and more numerous populations.

Merchants sold cotton, silks, paper and textiles to large Chinese cities and foreign nations. By the end of the Ming dynasty, tobacco, imported from the Americas, became a popular consumption item for men and women. Due to its focus on education and its papermaking and publishing industries, China, during this period, had an unusually high literacy rate.

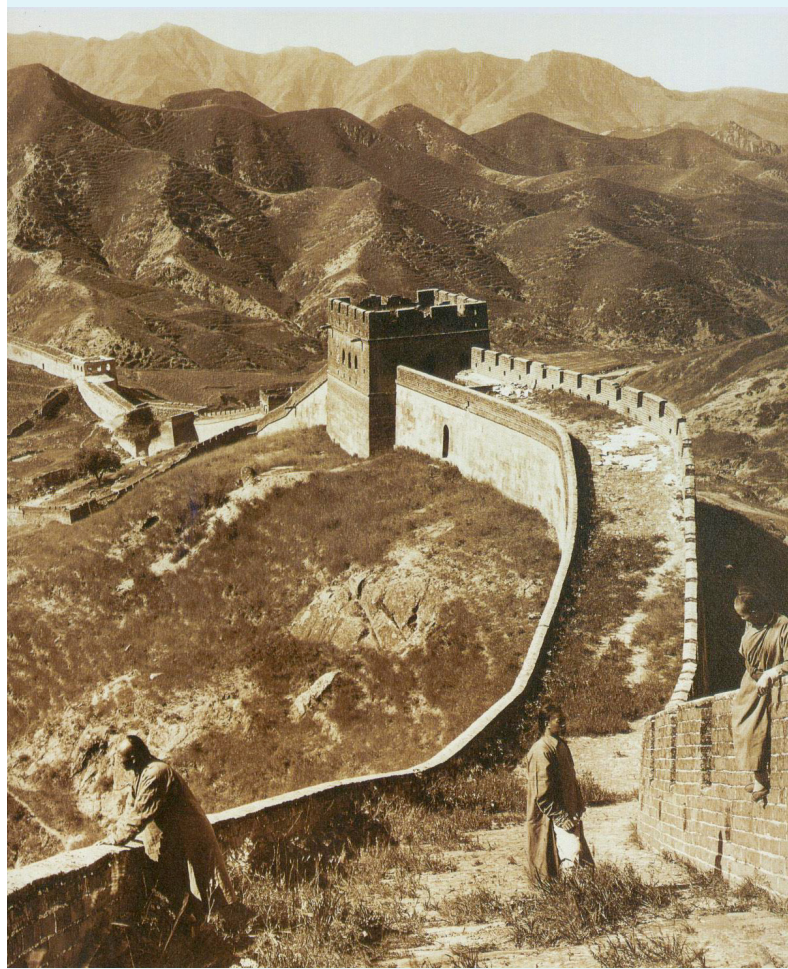
Historians today still debate the reasons for the decline of the Ming dynasty. Did disagreements between the emperor and the bureaucracy lead to the fall of the Ming? Or did a series of natural disasters bring about the end of the state? Whatever one's view, historians agree that the competition with Japan combined with a series of natural disasters (floods, epidemics, etc.,) put tremendous pressure on the Ming government, which disintegrated in the face of these problems and growing unrest.

Unable to defend the state or deal with its underlying problems, the final Ming emperor committed suicide in 1644 as a rebel army gained control of Beijing. The Qings (1644-1912) now ruled China. Descended from the Jurchens, the Qing dynasty came from Manchuria. Like the neighboring Mongols, the Manchus excelled at archery from horseback. The Qing dynasty brought stability to China, and by the end of the century, China once again experienced a period of wealth and prosperity.

A 15th Century Portrait of the Ming Official Jiang Shunfu

Artist: Unknown
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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GREAT WALL OF CHINA

The earliest origins of the Great Wall of China belong to the Spring and Autumn period (771-476 BCE). During the Qin dynasty (221-206 BCE), Emperor Qin Shi Huang (r. 221-210 BCE) connected some of the various defensive walls to create a more extensive fortification to protect his newly founded dynasty from outside invasion. Subsequent dynasties would also build new walls. The Great Wall of China as it stands today largely dates from the Ming dynasty (1368-1644). Not all of the Wall is manufactured from stone and brick as natural hills, mountain ridges and rivers are woven into the defensive structure. Although parts of the Wall have disappeared over time (it is estimated that the total building would equal more than 13,000 miles), today, the best-preserved section is still more than 5,000 miles in length.

Photograph of the Great Wall of China from 1907

Artist: Herbert Ponting
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Map of the Great Wall of China

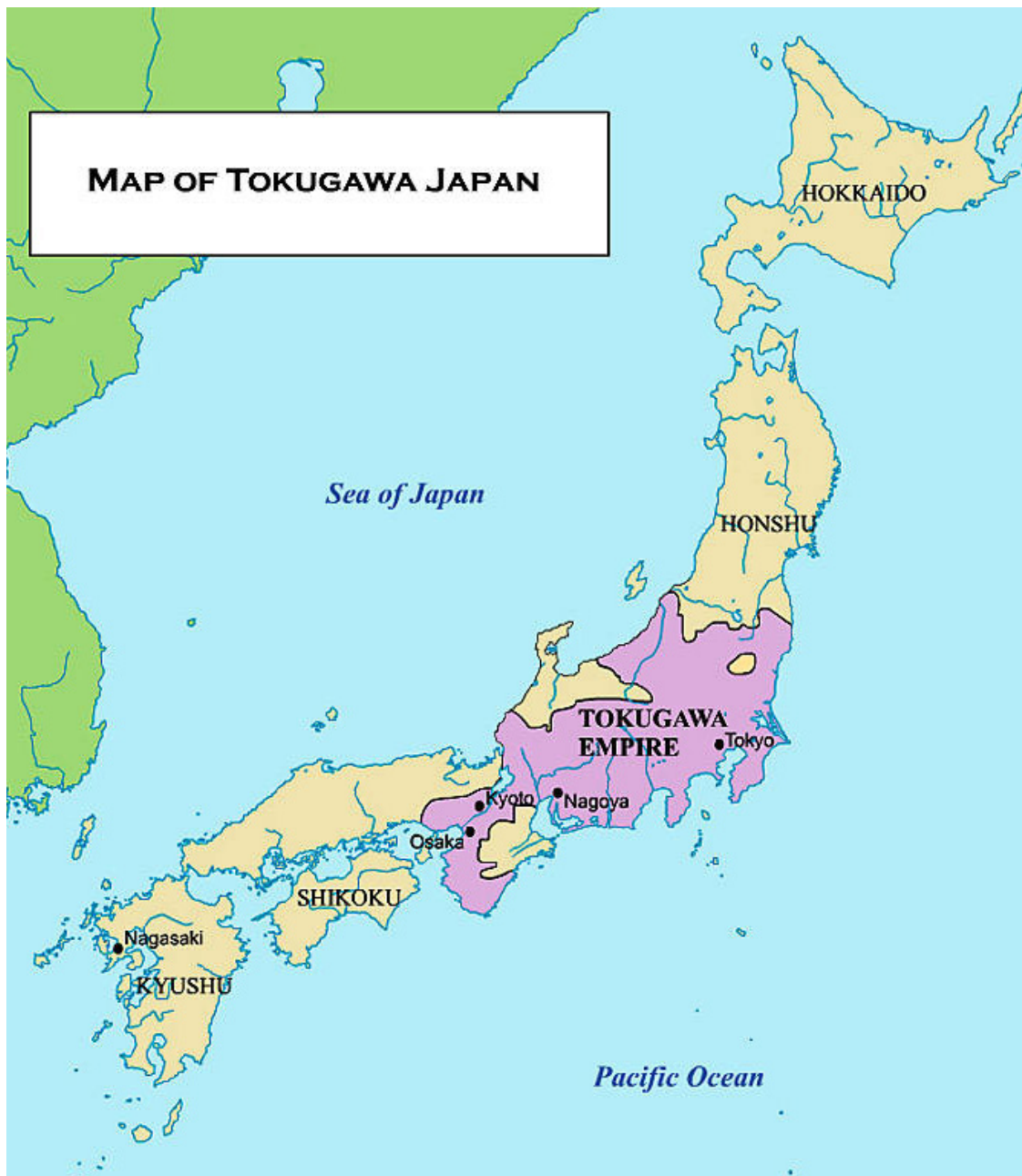
Artist: Maximilian Dörrbecker (User "Chumwa")
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JAPAN

Before the 15th century, Japan held links to Korea and China but remained primarily isolated from the rest of the world. The Japanese experienced early Chinese influence, reflected in paintings and architecture. Buddhism flourished in Japan to a greater extent than it ever did in China. In 1550, European seafarers and merchants brought along the first Jesuits and with them, Christianity. Converts to Christianity were persecuted and oppressed, culminating in a mass execution in 1622. Simultaneously, Japan exhibited extreme xenophobia that led to complete isolation. The self-imposed isolation and simultaneous inner peace allowed Japan to flourish

culturally and led to immense economic improvement. However, over time the military dictatorship turned into a stagnant bureaucracy. After 200 years, the opening of Japan was unpreventable. The opening occurred due to pressure from Western imperial powers in 1858.

One can think of Japan as torn between China's influences and later, the Western world. From the sixth to the 19th century, Japan was utterly under the influence of Chinese culture. The Japanese made many parts of Chinese culture, such as the script, administrative practices, architectural and art styles, and philosophical



Map showing
Tokugawa Japan,
1600 AD

Artist: Brigham Young
University
Source: Digital Collections
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and religious systems their own. There were many instances when Japan turned the historical course of things. For example, Hideyoshi's occupation of Korea at the end of the 16th century contributed to the weakening of the Ming dynasty in China as well as the later downfall of Korea. Japan dismantled ambitious plans of the Portuguese and Spanish in the region during the 17th century. Japan rose to a modern superpower after the restoration in 1868, which led to the stationing of troops in Manchuria and China. During World War II, Japan played a significant role as an adversary to the U.S. and became a very destructive power in China and Southeast Asia.

ENCOUNTER WITH EUROPEANS

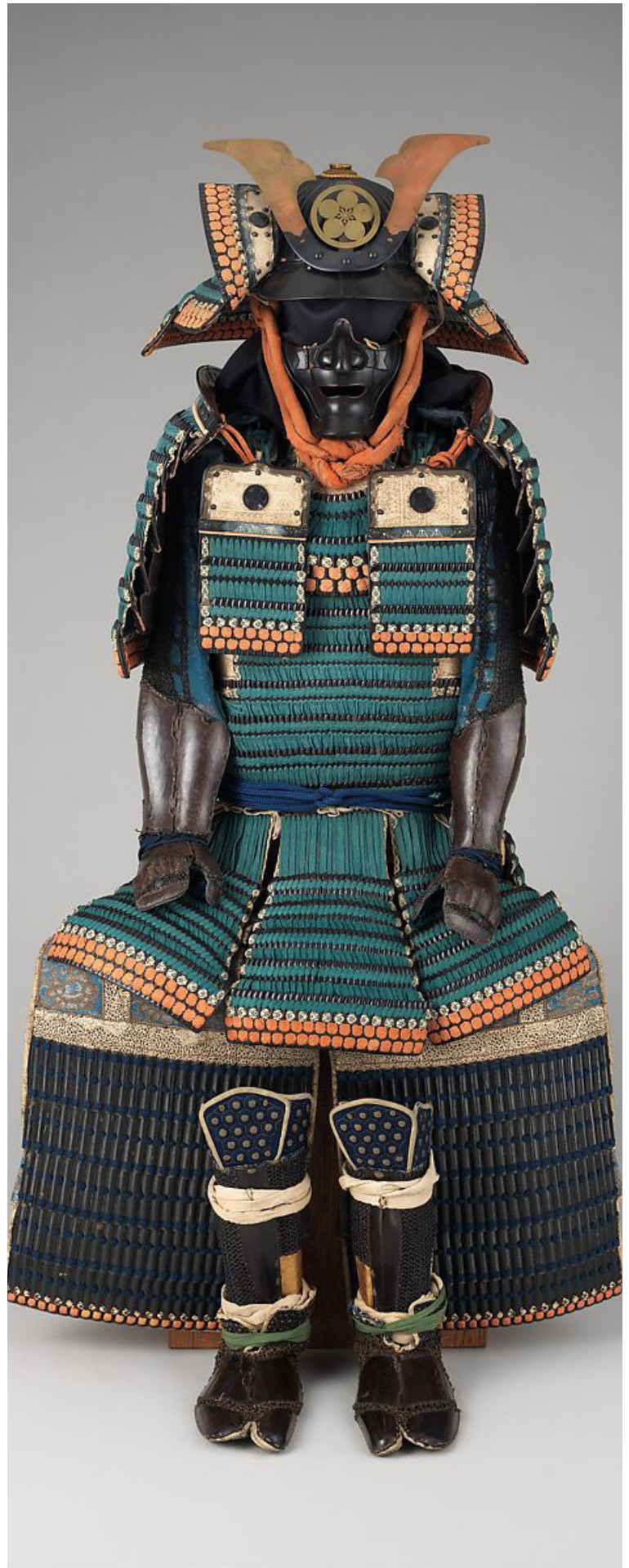
Initial contact with the Portuguese started in the 1500s. There was an initial interest in the firearms the Portuguese could provide. Still, there was also the fear of foreign influences brought about by such contacts, embodied mainly by Christianity. The Catholic missionaries, among them Franciscans, Dominicans and Jesuits were instrumental in spreading the Christian faith across the Japanese islands. From the 1500s-1700s, several thousand Japanese converted to Christianity. At the time Japanese practiced Shintoism or one of the varieties of Buddhism. The shogun eventually decided to expel all foreigners for fear that Christianity would undermine the legitimacy of the shogunate and lead to a rebellion among the commoners.

TOKUGAWA SHOGUNATE

The emperor's political power in Kyoto was relatively weak. He remained more of a figurehead throughout the modern period, with samurai controlling the provinces. During the Warring States or Sengoku period (1460-1570), warrior nobles known as daimyo led the provinces. Wars and shifting alliances during this time led to the establishment

Armor (Gusoku) of the Maeda Family 18th century

Artist: Unknown Japanese Artist
Source: Metropolitan Museum of Art
License: Public Domain



of a federal state known as the shogunate. In 1560, Japan underwent significant changes. During the next 40 years, military leaders Oda Nobunaga (1534-1582) and Toyotomi Hideyoshi (1536-1598) suppressed uprisings by the daimyo and united the country. Tokugawa Ieyasu (1549-1616) established and legitimized the shogunate government, which lasted 250 years until 1867.

The shogunate represented a period of stability and peace. All firearms were banned and collected. The idea was to reinvigorate the military control of the samurai who used bows and swords instead of firearms. All inhabitants were classified as belonging to one of the major classes: warriors, farmers, artisans, or merchants. Christianity was considered one of the biggest threats. Officials banned missionaries, closed churches and persecuted Christians mainly now practicing their faith underground. Any trade relations with the West ceased, and foreigners were expelled apart from a small group of Dutch traders who were constrained to Nagasaki harbor, far away from the seats of political powers at Edo and Kyoto. Trade with China and Korea continued but remained highly monitored. Japanese subjects were not allowed to travel abroad, and those that lived abroad were forbidden to return to Japan. This period of isolation is often referred to as sakoku.

Under the Tokugawa shogunate, the dual government continued with the shogunate residing in Edo (later renamed Tokyo) and the emperor living in Kyoto. The shogun wielded political and military power, while the emperor exercised ceremonial power. The daimyo formed a council and acted as agents of the shogun in the provinces. In time many became provincial overlords and a constant thorn in the side of the shogunate. The shogun had a sizeable personal domain near Edo. He would manipulate the daimyo by placing those who supported him closer to Kyoto and those who were not favorable to him further away. Wives and children of important daimyo families were required to reside in Edo and became hostages. Every daimyo also had to spend a certain amount of time at the shogun palace in Edo, a system known as sankin kotai.

During the Tokugawa shogunate, the Japanese domestic economy improved particularly in fine wares and ceramics. Even though situated at the bottom of the Confucian hierarchy of classes, merchants gained prestige and recognition, often lending money to impoverished samurai. Commercial networks started to gain importance. By experimenting with credit, a form of Japanese capitalism emerged which allowed Japanese merchants to compete in foreign markets. The life of peasants and artisans improved initially, but heavy taxes led to misery and peasant rebellions. The improved economy led to rapid urbanization and the rise of major metropolises such as Kyoto, Osaka and Edo. Most Japanese continued to live in rural areas and depended on local farming and fishing to survive.

Over time the samurai developed into a symbolic class. As open warfare declined, many samurai found ways to earn a living as administrators, teachers and doctors. Others fell through the cracks and fell into debt which caused much trouble for the shogunate.

This 250-year period of peace and stability had a tremendous effect on the arts and education. Buddhism, influenced by Confucianism, became the religion of the upper classes. At the same time, the commoners continued to practice Shintoism and less intellectual forms of Buddhism. Literacy rates continued to increase, and poetry and Kabuki theatre became quite popular. Performed only by men and initially more popular among the upper classes, dramas in the Kabuki theatre emphasized realism, humor and irony.



Itsukushima Gate

Artist: Jordy Meow
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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SHINTOISM

Shinto, the way of the gods, is considered the indigenous religion of Japan. It does not consist of a unified religious system but is more influenced by local culture and thus more connected to the territorial spirits of a specific region. The term Shinto emerged as a counter term to Butsuo, the way of the Buddha, after the introduction of Buddhism during the sixth century. Shinto entails various religious practices and functions, which are classified into four big groups:

1. The Shinto of the Emperor
2. Shinto of sects
3. Shrine Shinto
4. Shinto of the masses/people/commoners/popular Shinto

Shinto does not have a founder or holy scripts, a doctrine or a confession of faith. In the center of the religious practice lies kami-veneration. Kami refers to female and male deities, ancestors, territorial spirits (spirits of the house, forest or water, etc.),

nature powers (power of life, fertility) and exceptional nature representations (moon, sun, volcanoes, cave information, old trees). Central to Shintoism is the belief that nature has a soul (animism). Regional diverse customs, festivals and mythology are connected to the local Shinto practices. Shinto experienced some changes through cross-cultural encounters with mainland traditions (ancestor veneration, Chinese mythology, Taoism, Buddhism).

The deities of Shinto are connected to nature powers, the elements and plants. They emerged out of the core of the world and are understood as powers through which life is created and sustained. Their veneration is therefore often connected to fertility ceremonies. The Japanese kami exist and function in this world. Shintoists do not believe in an afterlife but are focused on the presence of the here and now. The roles of humans in the maintenance and progress of life correlate with the will of the deities/gods. The afterlife/hereafter is instead portrayed as a dark, grave-like sphere of dirt and decay. Central terms such as purity (sei) and fault (tsumi) should not be interpreted based on an ethical-moral background. Impurities emerge through contact with blood, death and decay, and can be removed through purification rituals (harai, misogi). Actions are not considered harmful or good, evil is not to be found in a human being but is caused by external causes. Purification rites can eliminate the evil.

Over time the Japanese started to build Shinto shrine houses. Building on the rituals performed in early agrarian societies, the sacred place contains the symbols of the shrine deity (shintai), a prayer hall, a place for sacrifices, a stage for the sacred dance (kagura), and an administrative building. In Shinto, there are no official weekly ceremonies. Practitioners decide the frequency and duration of their shrine visits, often made for specific requests. The religious practice in the community is characterized by the participation in the traditional annual customs, rites and festivals (matsuri) within a local shrine. The actual rituals are performed by the priesthood, which include the calling of the deities, the recitation of the prayers (nurito), offerings (such as rice, rice wine, dried seafood and sakaki branches), and the consumption of the offerings. There is a public part of it too. It includes a procession during which the kami will be taken out carrying shrines (mikoshi), traditional dress, and traditional dance and theatre performances.

A Young Women Visiting a Shinto Shrine 1814

Artist: Katsushika Hokusai
Source: Metropolitan Museum of Art
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SOUTHEAST ASIA



The maximum extent of Mataram Sultanate during the reign of Sultan Agung Anyokrokusumo (1613–1645)

Artist: Gunawan Kartapranata
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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In 1600, the Portuguese lost control of the spice islands in Southeast Asia. To maintain their influence in the spice trade, Dutch merchants and officials built relationships with the Muslim Sultanates of Java and Sumatra. The Dutch East India Company put their headquarters on the Island of Java, from which they oversaw the regional trade. The British East India Company left the region. The only country where Europeans wielded influence was the Spanish Philippines. Malacca became an important trading crossroads in the Indian

Ocean and Southeast Asia from which the Portuguese controlled the spice islands. The region was dominated by Hinduism and Islam, except for the Philippines, where Catholicism was practiced. In 1700, Thailand, Burma and Vietnam dominated parts of Southeast Asia. Theravada Buddhism ruled supreme in Thailand and Burma, while the Vietnamese practiced Mahayana Buddhism. Cambodia had been divided between Thailand and Vietnam.

SUMMARY

The period 1500-1700 witnessed a consolidation of power in Russia, China, Japan and parts of Southeast Asia. In each of these areas, local rulers effectively checked or at least reduced Western encroachment. The Russian Empire vastly expanded its borders, and this would bring it into conflict with other expanding powers including the Ottoman Empire. The Ming dynasty also centralized power and embarked on ambitious building projects, including the construction of a new imperial capital and an expansion of the Great Wall of China. The Qing dynasty, which overthrew the Mings in 1644, increasingly faced the challenges of Western encroachment. The establishment of the Tokugawa shogunate ushered in a period of relative stability in Japan. The shogunate introduced a policy of strict isolation as it banned Christianity and severely restricted trade and interaction with Western nations. This isolation would last until the 1850s. During this period, European influence in Southeast Asia remained relatively limited. The Spanish Philippines was the only real and significant area where Europeans wielded any meaningful authority. Over the next two centuries (18th and 19th), each of the powers/regions covered in this chapter would have to wrestle with Western ideas and the threat of foreign intrusion.

4

Islamic Empires: Mughals, Ottomans and Safavids 1500-1700



Ottoman Officials
Registering Christian Boys
for the Devshirme System

Artist: Ali Amir Beg
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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During the period 1500 to 1700, the (Islamic) Gunpowder Empires used their advanced technology, tactics and fearsome fighting skills to expand their borders. Many of these empires followed a similar trajectory. They often began with a strong and brave conquering ruler who united disparate people into a single unit. This leader created a new identity by melding

traditional ideas with ideas borrowed or adopted from those they conquered. These empires helped to spread Islam across many of the territories they conquered and the peoples they traded with. Both the Ottomans and Safavids relied upon slave soldiers to fill their armies. The sultan owned everything and there was not, like in many other places in the world, an aristocracy to check the sultan's power. Expansion, within all the empires, caused issues as the state infrastructure struggled to administer such vast territories. Since power was so highly concentrated in the leader, each of these states struggled when their leader lacked the ability to effectively rule. Each empire also experienced infighting and succession issues which weakened the state from within. Ultimately, each of these empires would crumble as the state machinery failed to address both internal issues and external threats.



Islamic Gunpowder Empires

Artist: User "Pinupbettu"
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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OTTOMAN EMPIRE



Selim I in Egypt

Artist: Gloya Borski
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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During its earliest years of development, the armies of the Ottoman Empire had been successful conquerors. Armed with a variety of weapons including firearms, the Ottomans and their army of Janissaries (slave soldiers) appeared unstoppable. Victories over Syria (1516), Palestine (1516) and Egypt (1517) gave the Ottomans control over vast territories. These victories and the prestige from controlling the holy cities of Islam (Mecca and Medina) prompted Ottoman rulers to adopt the title "Protector of the Sacred Places."

Janissaries were part of a complicated slave system within the Ottoman Empire called the devshirme system. This system required Christian communities, especially in the Balkans, to provide young boys to help staff the Ottoman state. Converted to Islam, the boys underwent a series of tests to determine their abilities. The brightest would be sent to the palace school, where they would be taught to read and write in various languages and instructed on how to be a successful government official. Others would be sent for religious instruction while those who displayed martial skills would become Janissaries. The



Agha of the
Janissaries and
a Bölük of the
Janissaries

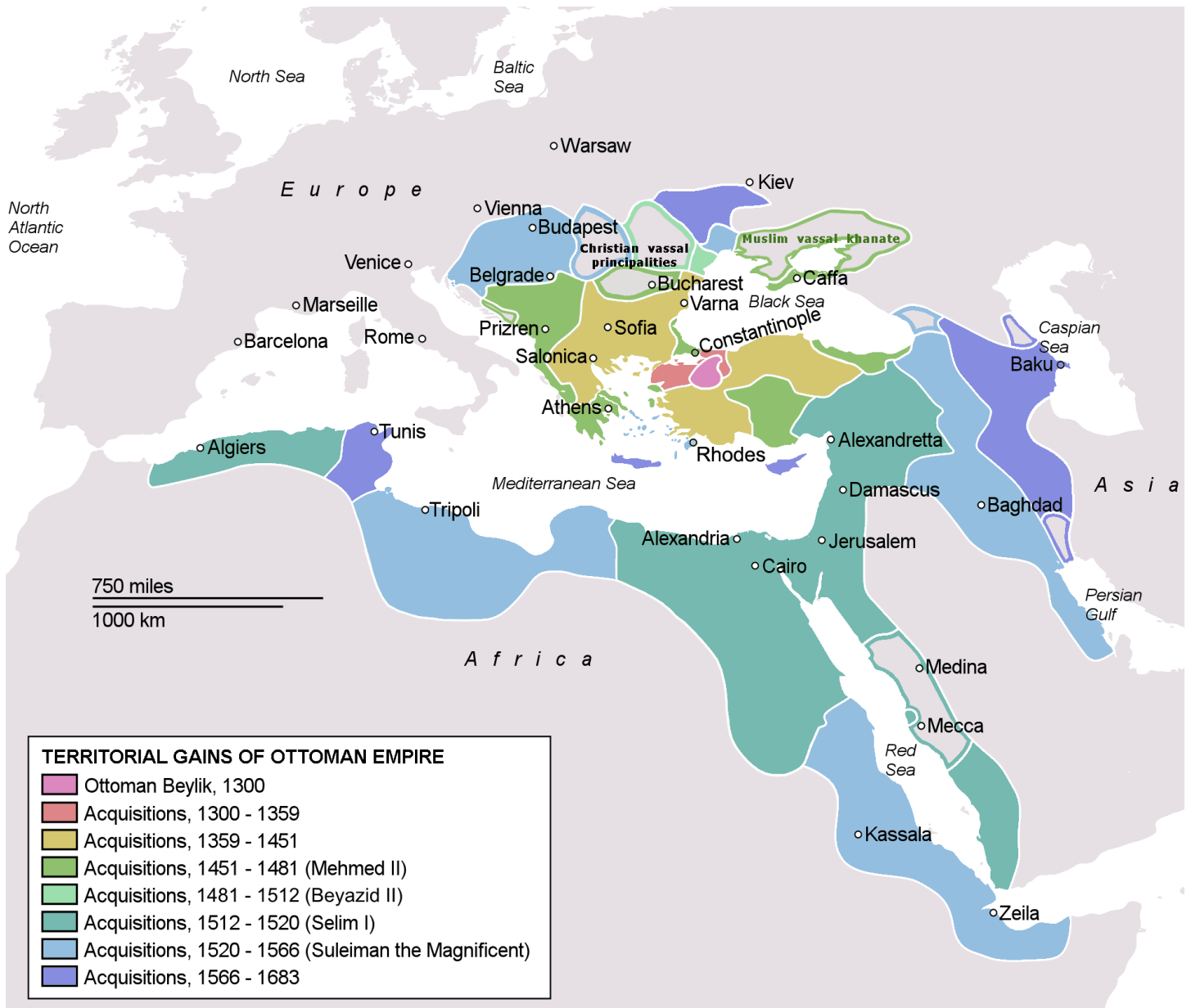
Artist: Lambert Wyts
Source: [Wikimedia Commons](#)
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Janissaries were under the direct command of the sultan and were taught to obey his every order. Once their training had been completed, these people could wield tremendous power, becoming generals, viziers (high-ranking officials), or provincial governors. Because of the chance of advancement, some families volunteered their sons for the devshirme system.

The Janissaries and the devshirme system helped centralize power in the hands of the sultan. Unlike

in Europe, the Ottomans did not have a hereditary landholding elite that could restrict the monarch's power. In the Ottoman Empire, the sultan owned all of the land, and on the death of an official, any land given to them reverted to the throne.

The vast lands conquered by the Ottomans, coupled with the devshirme system, ensured that the Ottoman Empire was a multi-ethnic empire with numerous peoples of various faiths living within its borders.



Map of Ottoman Expansion
c.1300-1700

Artist: John Wyatt Greenlee
Source: *World History Since 1500* (Rankin, Weise)
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The Ottomans tended to rule with a light hand allowing these groups much independence. Although not formalized until the 18th century, Ottoman rulers granted confessional communities much autonomy. These communities were responsible for governing their people, providing education, administering law, and helping the Ottoman state collect taxes. Many Christians found it much less restrictive to live under Ottoman rule than their former Christian ones. Beginning in the 15th century, Jews from throughout Europe, including those expelled from Spain in 1492, would settle in the Ottoman Empire because of its religious toleration.

The Ottoman court developed a highly regulated system of concubinage. Sultans were attached to slave concubines who, though understood to be a spouse, did not hold the rank of a wife. The son of a concubine would be raised in the harem (a place of separation for a man's wife, unmarried daughters, pre-pubescent sons and other unmarried female relatives) until about the age of 12 when they would be given a province or area to govern under the stewardship of their mother. Since any son of a sultan could inherit the throne, competition among children and concubines could be fierce. This competition could lead to exile, blinding

or even fratricide. This system of inheritance caused much infighting and instability.

The Ottoman Empire reached its peak under Suleiman I (r. 1520-1566). In 1526, the Ottomans defeated the Hungarians at Mohács, killing the king and thousands of his nobles. By 1529 the Ottomans had reached the gates of the Hapsburg capital of Vienna. Although unsuccessful in taking Vienna, the Ottomans became significant players in European politics and generally aligned themselves with the Hapsburg's European rival, the House of Bourbon, which held the French throne.

Called the lawgiver, Suleiman ordered that a new law code aimed at reforming the state be devised. Seeking to improve the economy, to root out government corruption, increase justice and to put an end to bribery of officials, Suleiman's reforms introduced the idea of balanced budgets, governmental responsibility, and ended imprisonment without trial. Ultimately, the reforms of Suleiman strengthened the state and introduced or buttressed existing freedoms while rationalizing the bureaucracy.



Suleiman the Magnificent

Artist: Unknown
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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OTTOMAN COFFEEHOUSE

Culture and art flourished during the period of Ottoman expansion. Likely an import from Yemen, coffee drinking gave rise to the Ottoman coffeehouse, a place to meet and drink with friends. People also went to play games, watch shows and discuss the most recent political developments. Coffeehouses catered to different audiences and people. For instance, one coffeehouse might be primarily patronized by military men while another by members of the civil service. Coffeehouses might be best known for different activities including their poetry, music, debates, or shows. The popularity of the Ottoman coffeehouse represents a growing urban and public culture within the expanding Ottoman Empire.

Meddah in Ottoman Coffeehouse

Artist: Unknown
Source: Wikimedia Commons
License: Public Domain



Selim II

Artist: Haydar Reis
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Suliman's son, Selim II (r. 1566-1574), shared few of his father's attributes or strengths. Without a strong sultan, the centralization that had occurred under his father started to unravel. The Ottomans were beset by dissatisfaction in the military, naval defeats, crop failure and inflation. Many of these issues continued to undermine the Ottoman Empire as successive sultans failed to deal with the growing issues within their vast borders.

Suliman's successors also struggled with the Janissaries, who, following the death of Suliman, increased in power and autonomy. The Janissaries went from having unquestioned obedience to the sultan to seeing the

corps as their primary loyalty. This shift encouraged the Janissaries to become involved in politics, Ottoman policy and even succession disputes.

The growth of the Janissaries put increased financial pressure on the Ottoman state. Desperate to find money to pay these men, the Ottomans began debasing their currency. Debasement led to inflation, making most goods in the empire cost more. The Ottoman state eventually handed tax collection to provincial notables, who collected taxes for the state. Increasingly the balance shifted, and by the 18th century, some of these notables were capable of dictating terms to the Ottoman state.

The once-conquering Ottoman Empire experienced a series of military setbacks during the 17th century. In 1604, the Ottomans lost territory in Mesopotamia and the Caucasus region to the Persian Safavid Empire. The Ottomans would also be pushed out of Hungary and Belgrade. As a geo-political and military power, the Ottomans were weaker in 1700 than they were in 1500. The following centuries would prove equally, if not more so, difficult for the Ottoman state.

SAFAVID EMPIRE

In 1501, Ismail I (1487-1524) conquered large swaths of Persia establishing the Safavid Empire. Previous to his gaining control of Persia, much of Iran had been in the hands of Arab leaders. After a series of military victories, the 14-year-old Ismail proclaimed himself the shah (king) of Iran.

Shah Ismail I

Artist: Cristofano dell'Altissimo
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Ismail declared that the empire would follow Shia Islam. To ensure that religion and religious teaching aligned with the interests of the state, Ismail recruited religious scholars from outside his borders who had no community ties and would be loyal to him and the state. Anxious to increase his army, Ismail actively recruited Qizilbash (nomadic Turkish Sufis) by granting them vast grazing lands in return for military support.

Considered the most successful Safavid ruler, Shah Abbas I's (r. 1588-1629) reforms helped to strengthen and solidify the empire. Worried about the growing power of the Qizilbash, Abbas created a new gunpowder army funded by the state. Similar to the devshirme system in the Ottoman Empire, enslaved people, largely drawn from the Caucasus region, were converted to Islam, selected to serve a particular branch of the state, and were expected to be loyal only to the shah. This

Shah Abbas

Artist: Unnamed Italian Painter
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Safavid Empire

Artist: User "Cattette"
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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not only strengthened the army, but allowed Abbas to centralize power in the throne, allowing him to carry out his reforms and to defend and expand the empire. Abbas drove the Ottomans out of Iraq and Azerbaijan and checked their power by making alliances with European powers.

Worried about conspiracy, Shah Abbas ordered the blinding, murder, or imprisonment of several family members, including his father, brothers and sons. In 1615, Shah Abbas ordered that his son and heir be executed after being told that his son had been part of a conspiracy that sought to remove him from the throne.

Two of his other sons would be blinded. Eventually, Shah Abbas selected his grandson Sam Mirza (from his eldest son) to succeed him, which he did (as Shah Safi) in 1629. The achievements of Shah Abbas in protecting the Safavids are marred by his disastrous family relations and the instability brought by constant intrigues and power struggles.

After Abbas, the Safavid Empire rapidly declined. Abbas' successors struggled against encroaching powers, especially the Ottomans and the Uzbeks (a Turkic people who had conquered much of Central Asia). Tensions between the Ottomans and Uzbeks had a religious

component, as both the Ottomans and Uzbeks followed Sunni Islam. Beset by bad governance, an unstable and struggling economy, and religious tensions, the Safavid Empire could no longer hold. In 1722, an Afghan leader sacked the Safavid capital Isfahan forcing the abdication of Husayn I (r. 1694-1722). A brief period of revival occurred under Nadir Shah (r. 1736-1747), who made the official religion Sunni Islam. Although Nadir Shah's impressive conquests, including parts of

India, temporarily saved the Safavids they ultimately drained the empire's finances. After the collapse of the Safavid Empire, the region would be plunged into years of instability.

MUGHAL EMPIRE

In 1504, Babur (1483-1530), a fearsome military leader, captured Kabul. Claiming descent from both Genghis

Mughal Empire Map

Artist: John Wyatt Greenlee
Source: World History Since 1500 (Rankin, Weise)
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Khan (r. 1206 -1227) and Timur (r. 1370-1405), Babur sought out distant lands to conquer. This sense of adventure and desire for wealth drew Babur to India. In 1526, at the battle of Panipat, Babur's forces defeated the Sultan of Delhi. This led to the establishment of the Mughal Empire (Persian for Mongol), an empire that, at its height, extended over one million square miles and ruled over 100 million people. A warrior poet, Babur composed an autobiography which recounts his conquests and tells us of his wide-ranging interests, including swimming, eating fruit, and the difficulties he had in giving up wine. Under his son, Humayun (r. 1530-1540 and 1555-1556), the Mughals

Akbar as Boy

Artist: Unknown
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Akbar with Lion and Calf

Artist: Govardhan
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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lost much of their territories in Afghanistan. Humayun's most significant impact may be his deep appreciation for Persian culture, a passion he passed on to his children. It fell to Humayun's son Akbar (r. 1556-1605) to restore glory to the Mughal Empire.

Although only thirteen when he ascended to the throne, Akbar was a shrewd and capable individual. He was a warrior king, and soon the independent kingdoms of Northern India fell under his grasp. To rule over these extensive regions, add stability and ensure loyalty, Akbar created a vast government structure. Showing no bias toward any ethnic group or faith, Akbar's government invited all those with talent to participate. Akbar understood that by dividing power among

multiple groups would ensure that no one in the empire could challenge him. Akbar married Hindu princesses, thus aligning himself and his government with key Hindu families. He also eliminated discriminatory taxes, including the *jizya*, a tax levied on non-Muslims. Religious toleration enabled Akbar to harness all his subjects' energies and abilities. Akbar enjoyed learning about different religions and often invited those of other faiths to discuss theology.

Akbar's son and successor, Jahangir (r. 1605-1628), expanded the Mughal Empire by consolidating Mughal rule in Bengal. War brought riches and prestige, but new territories often brought new sets of difficulties. Jahangir's son, Shah Jahan (r. 1628-1658), is best known for the construction of the Taj Mahal. Shah Jahan's son, Aurangzeb (r. 1658-1707), deposed his father, confining him to a small room. A devout Muslim, Aurangzeb expanded the empire, especially in the south. While Aurangzeb ruled over more territory than any of his predecessors, his reign marked the beginning of Mughal decline. He had over-extended the empire with his costly wars, and his decision to end the period of religious tolerance angered many of his subjects. The Mughals went from being an empire of toleration to one that tried to force religious laws onto its people.

Akbar in the Ibadat Khana

Artist: Nar Singh
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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THE TAJ MAHAL

Commissioned in 1632 by Shah Jahan (r. 1628-1658) as a tomb for his wife, Mumtaz Mahal (1593-1631), who died in labor while pregnant with their 14th child, the Taj Mahal is an example of the sophistication, scale and grandeur of Mughal architecture. Completed around 1653, the 42-acre complex contained intricate gardens, a mosque and an ornate guest house. The most famous

building, the ivory-white marble mausoleum, had been largely completed by 1643. Set in what is today Agra, Uttar Pradesh, India, it is believed that tens of thousands of laborers were needed to complete the project. After Shah Jahan's death in 1666, his body was interred next to Mumtaz Mahal in the Taj Mahal. The Taj Mahal remains one of the most recognizable buildings in the world and stands as a lasting reminder of Mughal wealth, grandeur and power.

SUMMARY

All three of these Muslim empires were more powerful and secure in the 16th century than at the beginning of the 18th. Each empire struggled to rule the vast lands and the people they had conquered. They had internal pressures, often from the groups that had helped expand their empire. Conquered groups also fought back, sapping the attention and resources of the centralized state. As administration size and costs ballooned, none of these empires had the revenues needed to meet these demands. External pressures came from other empires that had successfully modernized. By the beginning of the 18th century, all three Islamic empires faced the realities of decline as each one struggled to reconcile past successes with current realities.

5

Age of Reason: The Scientific Revolution, Enlightened Thought and its Impact



Galileo Demonstrates How to Use a Telescope to the Doge of Venice, 1596

Artist: Johannes Kepler
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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The Age of Enlightenment had its origins in the Renaissance and the Scientific Revolution. A social, political, intellectual and philosophical movement during the 17th and 18th centuries, the Enlightenment wrestled with the tensions inherent between a scientific-driven world and one that placed human endeavors at

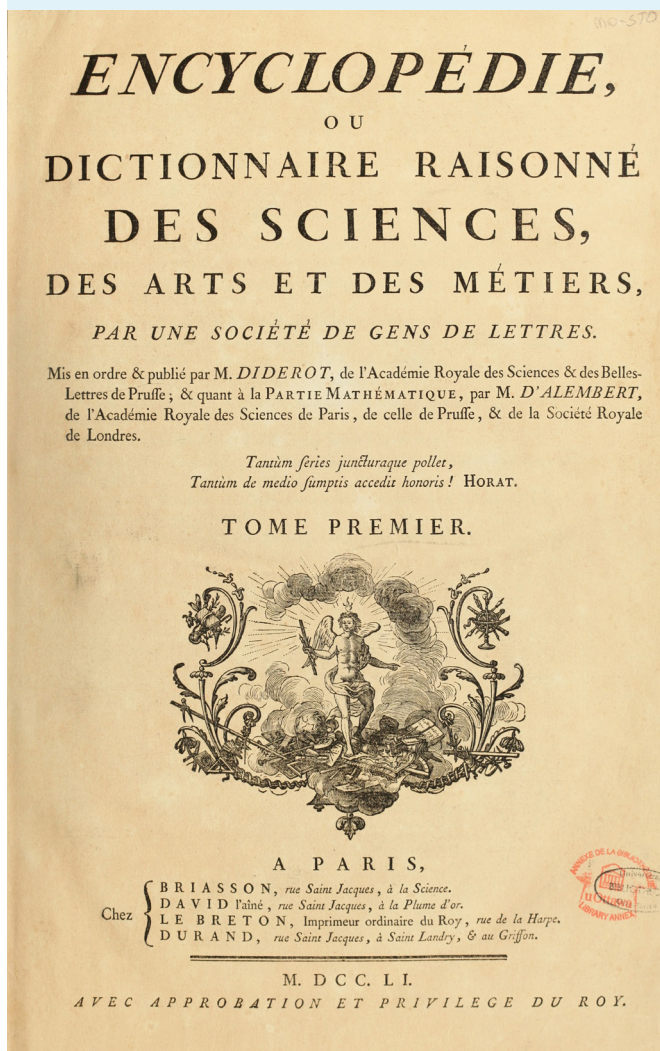
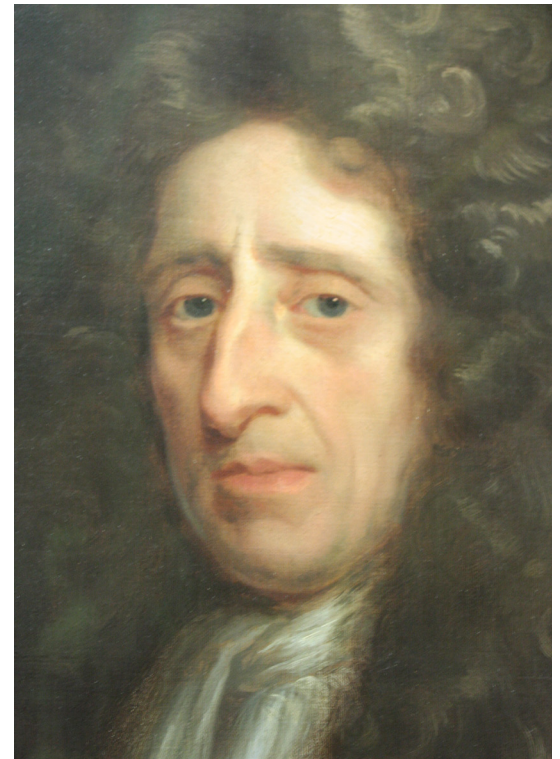
the center of all things. Whereas the Renaissance placed humanity more at the center of human thinking, the Scientific Revolution challenged many long-standing beliefs and led to the creation of modern evidence-based science. While Enlightenment thought varied in space and time, some central ideas emerged, including

the importance of human progress, individual liberty and the value of religious tolerance. The printed word was also significant as books, academic journals, pamphlets and the highly influential *Encyclopédie* began to be more widely distributed and discussed.

The Enlightenment undermined much older modes of thought and political organization. It challenged all absolutes, including the notion that monarchy was divinely ordained or the best form of governance. In response, monarchs, including Catherine the Great of Russia (r. 1762-1796), Frederick the Great of Prussia (r. 1740-1786), and Joseph II of Austria (Holy Roman Emperor from 1765-1790), promised enlightened reforms inspiring a variety of 19th-century political and intellectual movements.

John Locke's Kit-Cat Portrait

Artist: Godfrey Kneller
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ENCYCLOPÉDIE

Published between 1751 and 1772, the *Encyclopédie*, a 28-volume work in the Enlightenment tradition, showcased new approaches to knowledge, government and society. Edited by Denis Diderot and later co-edited with Jean le Rond d'Alembert, the *Encyclopédie* pushed for the secularization of knowledge and education, placed political power with the people, not traditional powerbrokers, and espoused the notions of natural, inalienable rights while advocating for less state intervention in the economy. The text gained attention for its vast knowledge and willingness to challenge traditional elites and orthodox thinking. Dedicated to disseminating new forms of knowledge, contributors spent considerable time sharing their knowledge and expertise. The largest contributor, Louis de Jaucourt (1704-1779), wrote more than 17,000 articles. While any text based on the work of numerous contributors and more than 70,000 articles will offer multiple perspectives, it is clear that many of the contributors to the *Encyclopédie* desired a new society based not on tradition but on the Enlightenment values of rational thought and fair and good government.

Cover of the 'Encyclopédie, ou Dictionnaire Raisonné des Sciences, des Arts et des Métiers'

Author: Various Contributors to the *Encyclopédie*
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Voltaire

Artist: Nicolas Largillière
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influenced and helped engender the French Revolution. As we shall see, the social and political ramifications of the Enlightenment helped direct the development of human history and still impacts much of our thinking about liberty, legal and universal rights and government.

SCIENTIFIC REVOLUTION

The Scientific Revolution represented one of the most significant movements in world history. Not merely an advancement in technological or industrial science, the Scientific Revolution represented nothing less than a transformation of how people perceived the

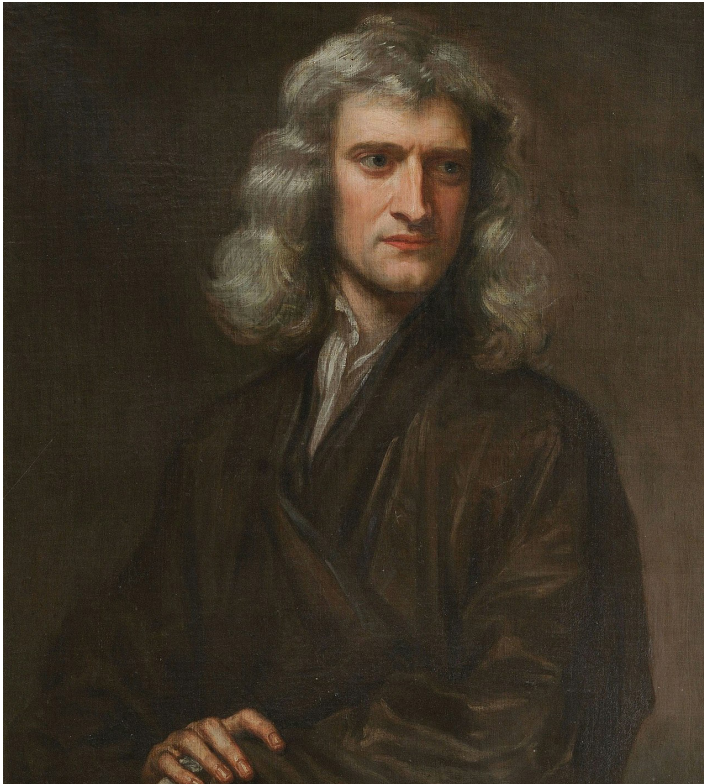
Much Enlightenment thought concerning religion was in response to the political and religious violence that occurred after the Protestant Reformation. Fought over religious differences and political control of Europe, The Thirty Years' War (1618-1648) killed between five to eight million soldiers and civilians. In the face of such devastation, Enlightenment thinkers advocated using reason to achieve religious, social and political peace. For some Enlightenment thinkers, such as the Englishman John Locke (1632-1704), this meant simplifying his faith into the single idea of Jesus as the redeemer and steadfastly avoiding further discussion or debate. Frenchman François-Marie Arouet (1694-1778), better known as Voltaire, argued that all people, not just fellow Christians, were children of God. Thus, religious conflict was both pointless and detrimental to human development. This encouraged Enlightenment thinkers to call for a reduction in the social and political power of organized religion and to support the notion of the separation of church and state.

Enlightenment thought has had a tremendous impact on theories of government. Many significant figures involved in the American Revolution were closely aligned and influenced by Enlightenment ideas. The Declaration of Independence, the Constitution and the Bill of Rights are all inspired by Enlightenment thoughts and aspirations. Enlightenment ideals also inspired,



Nicolaus Copernicus,
*woodcut attributed to Christoph Murer, from
Nicolas Reusner's Icones (1587)*

Artists: Christoph Murer, Tobias Stimmer
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Portrait of Sir Isaac Newton

Artist: Godfrey Kneller
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relationships with God, inspired ordinary Europeans to think more freely for themselves. Political leaders in England, Scotland, the Netherlands and France took steps to protect the rights of inventors and property holders, helping to create financial incentives for new scientific discoveries.

Most scholars cite Nicolaus Copernicus's (1473-1543) publication of his seminal *De Revolutionibus Orbium Coelestium* (*On the Revolutions of the Heavenly Spheres*) in 1543 as a critical moment in the onset of the Scientific Revolution. By proving that the Earth and the other planets revolved around the Sun, Copernicus upended traditional religious accounts, which saw the Earth in general and humanity in particular as the center of the universe. Seventy years later, German astronomer Johannes Kepler (1571-1630)

physical world and their place within it. Historians have spent centuries debating why the Scientific Revolution first occurred in Western Europe in the 1500s and 1600s. After all, ancient Egyptian advances in geometry, classical Greek contributions to physics and astronomy, Roman engineering, and Chinese developments in printing, shipbuilding and navigation reveal that humans had long been capable of scientific development. However, early modern European philosophers and scientists benefitted from the intersection of several historical trends that created favorable conditions for the development of scientific thought. The rediscovery of classical Greek and Roman knowledge and the importation of Arabic science during the Renaissance made scientific inquiry famous throughout European culture.

Furthermore, the loss of 30-60% of Europe's population during the Black Death promoted an interest in medical science and a desire to invest in labor-saving technology such as looms and water wheels. The abundance of natural resources like coal and navigable waterways made Western Europe well-suited for promoting science and industry. The discovery of the Americas provided infusions of new capital, crops and ideas, which stimulated scientific thought. The rise of the Protestant Reformation and Counter-Reformation, which challenged traditional religious dogmas and stressed the ability of individuals to create personal

Somer Francis Bacon

Artist: Paul van Somer I
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Portrait of René Descartes

Artist: Frans Hals
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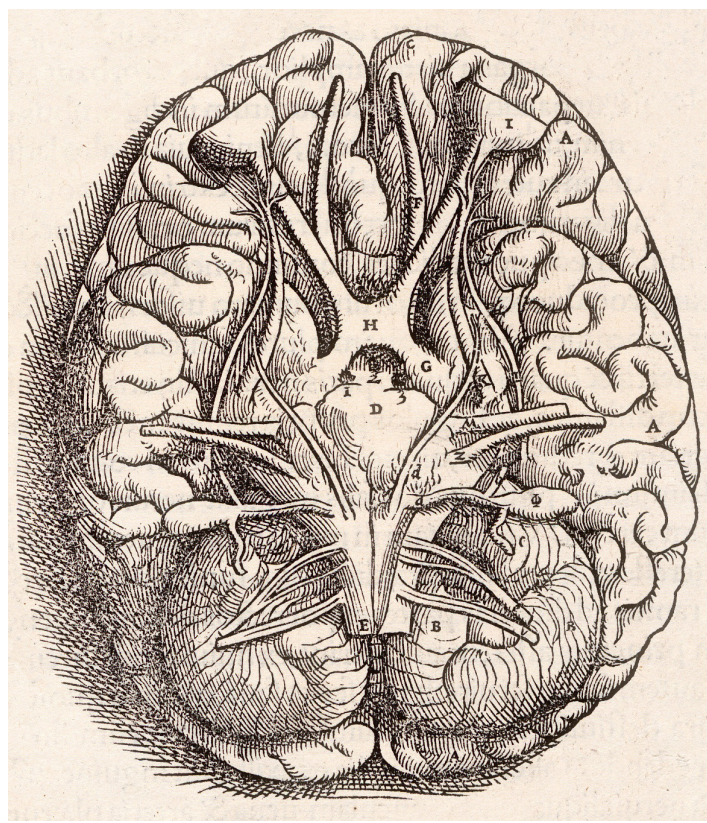
the human body's circulatory and lymphatic systems. Antonie van Leeuwenhoek (1632-1723) likewise experimented, with using microscopes to identify bacteria and viruses, helping to set the stage for the later development of anesthetics and vaccines.

The Scientific Revolution brought tremendous developments in diverse scientific fields, including astronomy, physics, mathematics and medical science. It also helped usher in a new sensibility in human philosophy. It promoted the view that the universe was a rational, orderly place. Once humans understood the underlying axioms that governed the natural world, they could apply such principles to improve the human condition.

mathematically predicted planets' actual routes around the sun. Galileo Galilei's (1564-1642) experiments with the telescope likewise identified Jupiter's moons, Venus's rate of rotation, and Saturn's rings. Isaac Newton's (1643-1727) 1687 *Philosophiæ Naturalis Principia Mathematica* (*Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy*) completed this process by postulating the law of universal attraction, which used mathematics to account for both gravity on Earth and the movements of the planets and stars on a cosmic scale.

These discoveries in mathematics and physics inspired scholars to analyze the world around them using increasingly precise criteria. In the 1620s, Francis Bacon (1561-1626) promoted the concept of empiricism or the "scientific method," using a rigorous examination of observable phenomena and inductive reasoning to draw generalizations about how the world operates. At roughly the same time, French scholar René Descartes (1596-1650) made a critical distinction between empirical knowledge based on experiences such as physics and the rational knowledge that rested upon logical inference, including mathematics.

The Scientific Revolution also changed how medical professionals, sculptors and artists perceived the human body. Bucking centuries of Church teachings, Italian doctor Andreas Vesalius (1514-1564) published *De Humani Corporis Fabrica* (1543), which depicted the human body as a mechanical construct that required proper maintenance. Nearly a century later, English physician William Harvey (1578-1567) would map



1543, Andreas Vesalius' *Fabrica*, Base Of The Brain

Artist: Andreas Vesalius
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONSEQUENCES OF THE ENLIGHTENMENT AND SCIENTIFIC REVOLUTION

The intellectual resources unleashed by the Scientific Revolution brought a similar transformation in social and political beliefs. For centuries, Western theologians and scholars had taught that human nature, mired in original sin, needed strong governments and laws to keep it in check. God ordained feudal hierarchies by determining what social classes humans were born into. Individuals should not seek to change the natural social order and instead concentrate on leading virtuous lives to gain salvation after death.

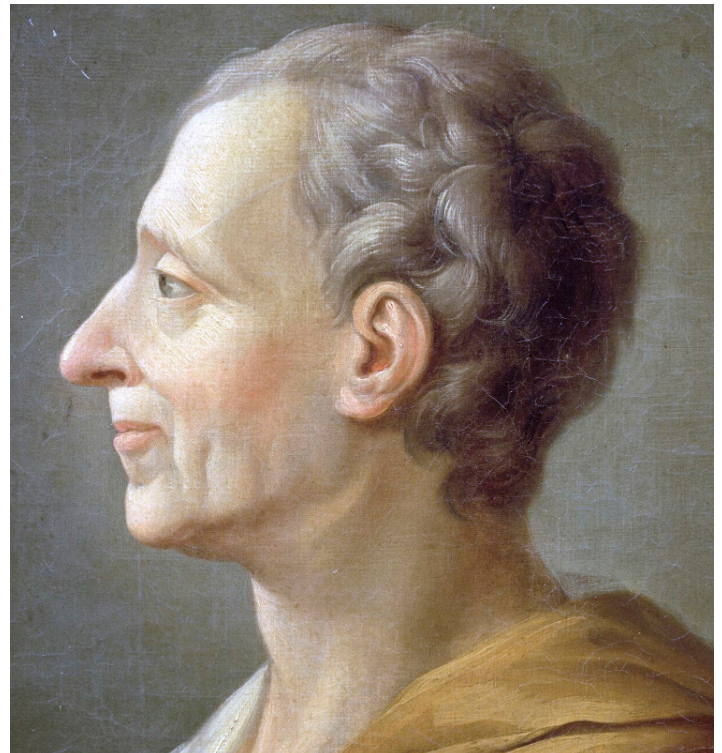
The Crusades, Renaissance, Columbian Exchange and Scientific Revolution challenged early modern beliefs. In the 1600s, Copernicus, Galileo and Kepler argued that the universe operated by specific, predictable laws. A century later, John Locke, Charles-Louis de Secondat, Baron de Montesquieu (1689-1755), François-Marie d'Arouet (Voltaire) and Jean Jacques Rousseau similarly insisted that human beings were created with an innate ability to reason and use education and science to improve society by overcoming the ignorance and superstition of past centuries. John Locke's arguments that humans possessed natural rights to life, liberty and property, and constructed governments to protect such rights, proved a tremendous inspiration to America's founding generation. Montesquieu's *Spirit of the Laws* (1750) postulated that mixed governments, which provided political representation to different social classes and divided power between different branches, represented more efficient regimes than traditional monarchies.

In contrast, the French philosopher Voltaire argued that although humans had natural rights and rationality, most were incapable of governing themselves. The best form of government was, therefore, one run by a benevolent despot. Perhaps the most expansive thinker of the Enlightenment, Rousseau argued that governments derived legitimacy not from divine right or tradition but the consent of the governed. When humans agreed to live together in organized communities, they created a social contract. Rulers whose dictates went against what the majority in a society wished could therefore

be overthrown and replaced by a government more responsive to the needs of the people.

Enlightenment ideas quickly spread throughout the salons, university classrooms, pulpits and town squares of Europe. The theories of Locke, Montesquieu and Rousseau helped inspire the generation of American revolutionaries such as Thomas Jefferson (1743-1826), who authored the Declaration of Independence, and James Madison (1751-1836) and Alexander Hamilton (1755 or 1757-1804), who contributed to the creation of the U.S. Constitution. Enlightenment ideas also played a role in the outbreak of the Haitian and French Revolutions. Ironically, although an absolute despot, Napoleon (1769-1821) helped to spread the Enlightenment-inspired ideals of fraternity, equality and liberty throughout his conquest of large swaths of western and eastern Europe.

Enlightenment ideals also helped to create more progressive, egalitarian societies throughout Europe and the Americas. Many Enlightenment thinkers like Thomas Paine (1737-1809) and Thomas Jefferson became deists. Although they believed that God had created the universe and the natural laws that governed



Charles-Louis de Secondat,
Baron de Montesquieu

Artist: Jacques-Antoine Dassier
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it, deists maintained that humans could use their reason to promote good in the world around them. Methodist theologians of the mid-1700s, like John Wesley (1703-1791) and George Whitefield (1714-1770), began to urge their congregations to cultivate personal relationships with God and pursue virtuous lives through their efforts. New denominations like Baptists promoted adult baptism and that all people, regardless of social class, were equals in God's eyes. The notions of natural rights inspired numerous movements including the right to vote, the rights of women, and groups opposed to slavery. In the 1780s, British abolitionists like William Wilberforce (1759-1833) invoked natural rights to argue against slavery within the British Empire and the international slave trade. Mary Wollstonecraft's (1759-1797) *A Vindication of the Rights of Women* (1792) asserted that women and men enjoyed natural rights. On a more general level, Enlightenment beliefs that humans could use rationality and education to improve society led to the growth of universities, lending libraries, affordable primary and secondary schools, museums, hospitals and asylums.

Painting Honoring Jean Jacques Rousseau's Intellectual Contributions to the French Revolution

Artist: Nicilas Henri Jeaurat de Berty
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Signing of the Declaration of Independence

Artist: John Trumbull
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Jean Jacques Rousseau, Jefferson argued that all people had natural rights, that the purpose of government was to protect these rights, and that governments that usurped the rights of their citizens could be legitimately overthrown. The document then went on to blame British King George III and his government for restricting trade stationing British troops in American cities, suspending elected colonial governments, declaring martial law, supporting the Atlantic slave trade, and setting Native Americans against colonial settlers. Adopted by delegates from all thirteen colonies, the Declaration of Independence was read aloud from pulpits and in town squares across the newly created United States.

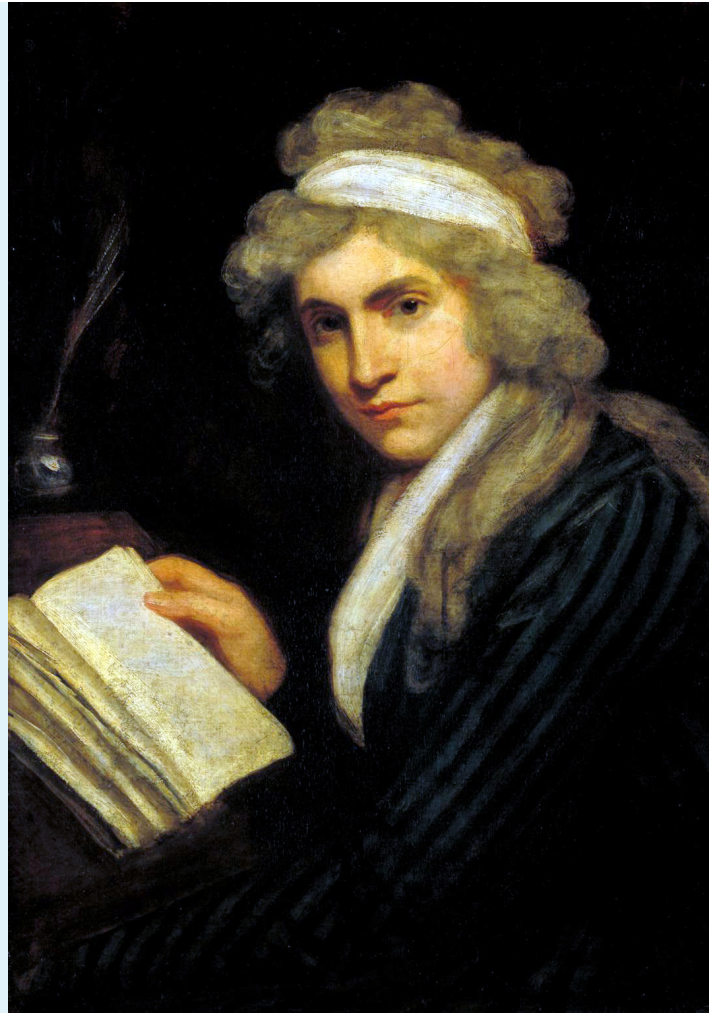
By the convening of the Second Continental Congress in May 1775, hostilities had already commenced between Patriot and British forces. On June 11, 1776, Congress created a committee of five including John Adams (1735-1826), Benjamin Franklin (1706-1790), Thomas Jefferson, Robert R. Livingston (1746-1813) and Roger Sherman (1721-1793) to draft a formal declaration of independence. As one of the younger and most erudite member of the committee, Jefferson authored the initial document. Drawing from the Enlightenment thought of John Locke, Baron de Montesquieu and

MARY WOLLSTONECRAFT

Born in 1759 to a wealthy farming family, Mary Wollstonecraft became a successful governess and social companion. Inspired by Enlightenment thought and frustrated by the lack of professional options for women in traditional British society, Wollstonecraft published her seminal work, *A Vindication of the Rights of Woman: with Stricture on Political and Moral Subjects*, in 1792. Throughout her work, Wollstonecraft argued that women played a vital role in the health of the nation and as the educators of young children, women should be allowed to pursue educations so as to be able to raise future generations of British subjects. Furthermore, wives should be treated as companions of husbands rather than merely spouses. Wollstonecraft's daughter Mary Shelley (1797-1851) would become famous in her own right as the author of the novel *Frankenstein*. Generations of women's rights advocates would cite *A Vindication of the Rights of Woman* as inspiration for their causes.

Portrait of Mary Wollstonecraft

Artist: John Opie
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SUMMARY

Although the Enlightenment enriched the minds and improved the lives of millions, it retained a dark underside. A faith in rationality and scientific progress allowed for the creation of ever more violent military weapons used in increasingly bloody wars. Although French Revolutionaries initially created a republic with a moderate constitution, they later embraced violence and executed people for challenging the government or having royalist ties. Although the Napoleonic Wars spread Enlightenment ideas throughout Europe, it did so at the cost of millions of casualties. Furthermore, as the American Revolution proved, creating a nation based on natural rights did not end the enslavement of millions of people of African descent or the dispossession of hundreds of Native American tribes.

6

Challenging the Old Order: The Age of Revolutions



Arrest of Louis XVI and his Family

Artist: Thomas Falcon Marshall
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The Renaissance, the Scientific Revolution and the Enlightenment vastly altered how some people understood themselves and the world around them. They encouraged new ways of thinking, which ultimately undermined traditional leadership and forms of government. Enlightenment ideas concerning freedom, consent to be ruled, and separation of church

and state put pressure on old regimes, many of which could not or would not respond to these challenges. These tensions gave birth to the Age of Revolutions, a momentous historical period where new governments and countries would be formed. This chapter will deal with three revolutions: The American Revolution, the French Revolution and the Haitian Revolution.

AMERICAN REVOLUTION

The origins of the American Revolution lie in Britain's mercantile and economic expansion in the 18th century and the intellectual developments that grew out of the Enlightenment. Under the leadership of Robert Walpole (PM 1721-1742) and then William Pitt (PM 1766-1768), British prosperity and the empire itself grew. After a

year of stunning victories known as the *Annus Mirabilis* in 1759, the British turned around and eventually won the Seven Years' War (1756-1763). Having defeated the French, the British now held extensive lands in Canada and east of the Mississippi.

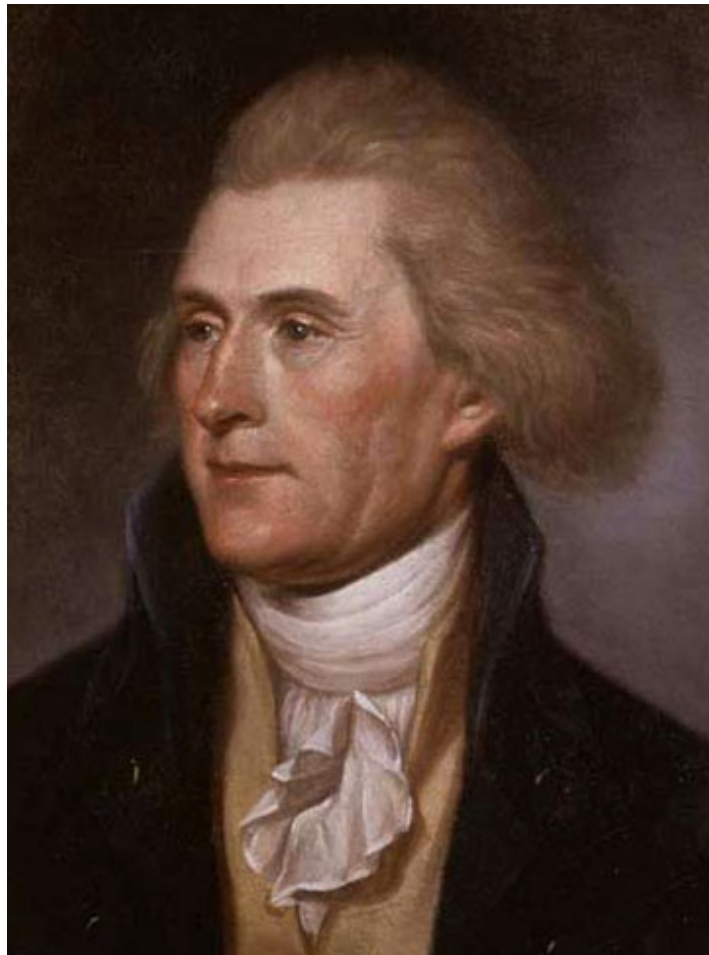


French and Indian War Map

Artist: User "Hoodinski"
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The question after the war became how to pay for and protect these newly acquired territories. The conflict revolved around a question of governance. While many at the time, and still do, blame the “tyrant” King George III, the origins of the Revolution lay in differing conceptions of parliamentary rule. Since the so-called glorious revolution of 1688, when James II (1633-1701) was deposed by the eventual co-monarchs his daughter Mary (Mary II r. 1689-1694) and her husband William of Orange (William III r. 1689-1702), the power of parliament had significantly increased. The British parliament began to see itself as the supreme governing body able to levy and pass laws for the whole of the empire. This, however, was contested in the Thirteen Colonies, which had their own assemblies. These assemblies insisted that they should control local affairs and that no law or tax was valid unless approved by an American assembly.

Instead of negotiation, the British parliament attempted to levy new taxes, including the Stamp Act of 1765. With

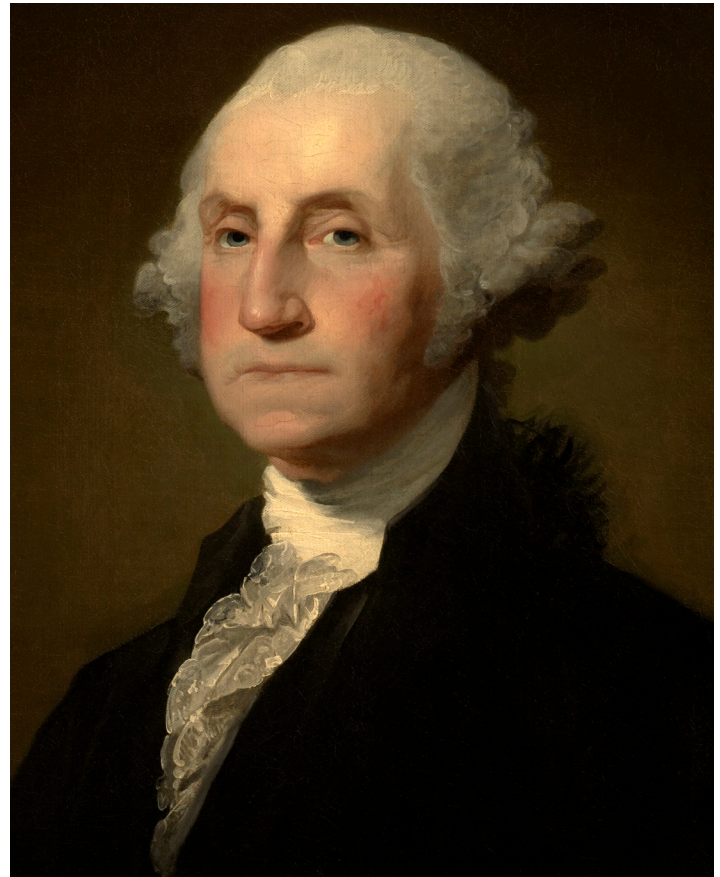


Portrait of Thomas Jefferson

Artist: Charles Wilson Peale
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George Washington

Artist: Gilbert Stuart
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neither side willing to alter their position, tensions rose, leading to the Second Continental Congress's fateful decision to approve, on July 4, 1776, a declaration of independence composed by Thomas Jefferson. The war for control over America had formally begun.

General George Washington (1732-1799) would lead the American Continental Army. Encouraged by early victories and eager to antagonize its rival, France with its large fighting force and navy, entered the war against Britain. Outmaneuvered, the British admitted defeat, surrendering to American troops in 1781 at Yorktown. Two years later, in 1783, the Treaty of Paris recognized American independence.

After winning the Revolution came the task of creating a structure for the new nation. Fearful of centralized power and influenced by the Enlightenment and its natural rights, Americans developed a new system of government. Inspired by the ideas of checks and balances, the government would be divided into three branches of government. The first would be the office of the President. An elected President would serve as chief

executive, having the power to execute and veto laws and to serve as head of the armed forces. The second branch of government would be the legislature, a bicameral body divided into a house of representatives and a senate. The number of seats in the house of representatives would be decided based on population, while each state would have two senators. The third branch, the judiciary, would be tasked with carrying out and defending the Constitution.

The promise that an additional bill of rights would be

devised and added to the Constitution was essential to forming the new government and its structure. Ten amendments, known as the Bill of Rights, were added to the Constitution in 1789. Influenced by the Enlightenment and natural rights, the Bill of Rights guaranteed freedom of religion, free speech and press, the right to assembly and petition, the right to bear arms, trial by jury, due process under the law, protection against unreasonable searches and arrest, and protected and expanded property rights. The new government did not end slavery, as many of these rights were restricted

FRENCH REVOLUTION

to men of European descent.

The causes of the French Revolution lie primarily in the structure of French society. Since the medieval period, France, which at the eve of the Revolution had a population numbering around 27 million, had been divided into three unequal estates or classes, each with its own responsibilities and, for the first two estates, special privileges.

The First Estate consisted of the clergy and numbered some 125,000 people. The Church controlled about one-tenth of the land in France. The clergy had special rights, exemptions, courts and status and were exempted from paying the main tax called the *taille*. The clergy were not a unified class, as those who tended to occupy the Church's highest offices were often from or related to the nobility. At the same time, the parish priests were almost uniformly poorer and lacked the political and financial power of those tied to the nobility.

The nobility formed the Second Estate. They comprised some 350,000 people who controlled about 30 percent of the land. Like the clergy, the aristocracy had certain rights, privileges and exemptions. They also held the highest positions within the state and military. They, too, were exempt from paying the *taille*.

The Third Estate was comprised of nearly everyone else. Although they constituted the bulk of the population, they only controlled about 40 percent of the land. Like the clergy, they too were divided as some of their members were wealthy and educated while most, upward of 80 percent, were poor peasants. Peasants also had certain obligations to the nobility and had to pay

for the rights to use certain infrastructure.

At the top of this pyramid were the king and his family. Louis XIV (r. 1643-1715) had centralized power at his palace in Versailles, and this meant that a strong and vibrant king was needed to keep the state functioning.



Portrait of Louis XIV

Artist: Hyacinthe Rigaud
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Not only charged with protecting the nation, the current King Louis XVI (r. 1774-1792) had to be sensitive to economic issues, including inflation, wage deflation, unemployment, and how to service the growing national debt. Bad harvests, slowing production and food shortages had exacerbated these problems.

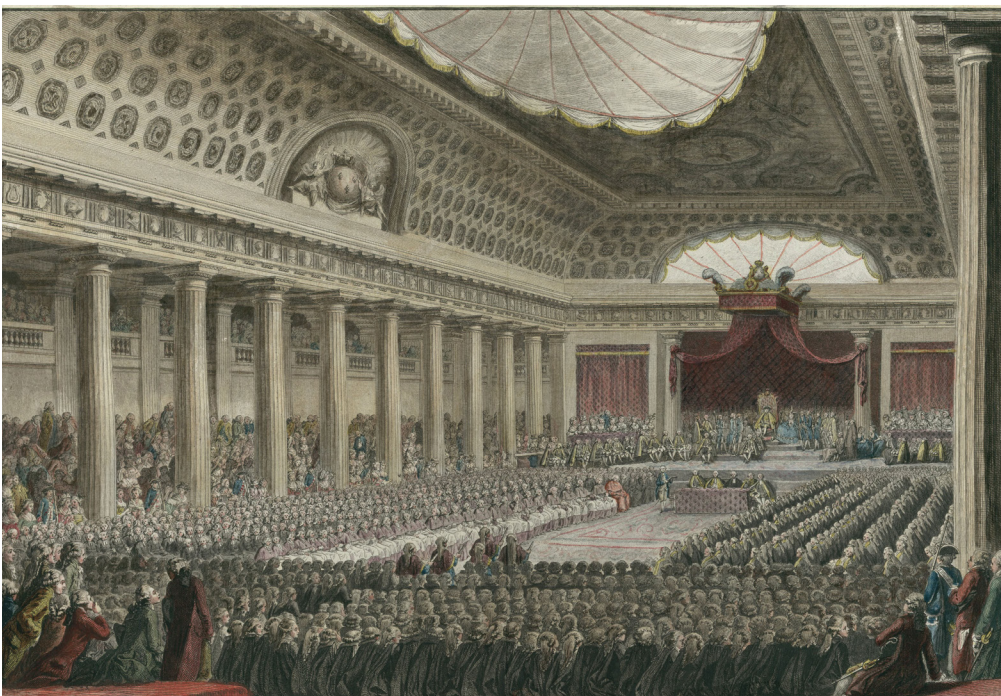
Unable to fix these problems, Louis XVI had no real choice but to call for a meeting of the Estates-General, a parliament that had not met since 1614. Each Estate elected 300 members. In an attempt to demonstrate flexibility and win popular support, the king ruled that since it made up a vast majority of the population, the Third Estate could elect and send 600 members to the parliament.

The Estates-General convened at the splendid palace of Versailles on May 5, 1789. Voting had traditionally occurred by estate. This meant that, effectively, the First and Second Estates could cancel out the vote of the Third Estate. Members of the Third Estate wondered why the King had allowed it to have double the number of members if the King did not expect voting by head. All knew that if voting proceeded by head, the agenda of the Third Estate would dominate as they could count on votes from sympathetic clergy members and nobles. When the First Estate refused to alter the voting by Estate, members of the Third Estate left the parliament, declared themselves the National Assembly, and began drafting their own constitution.



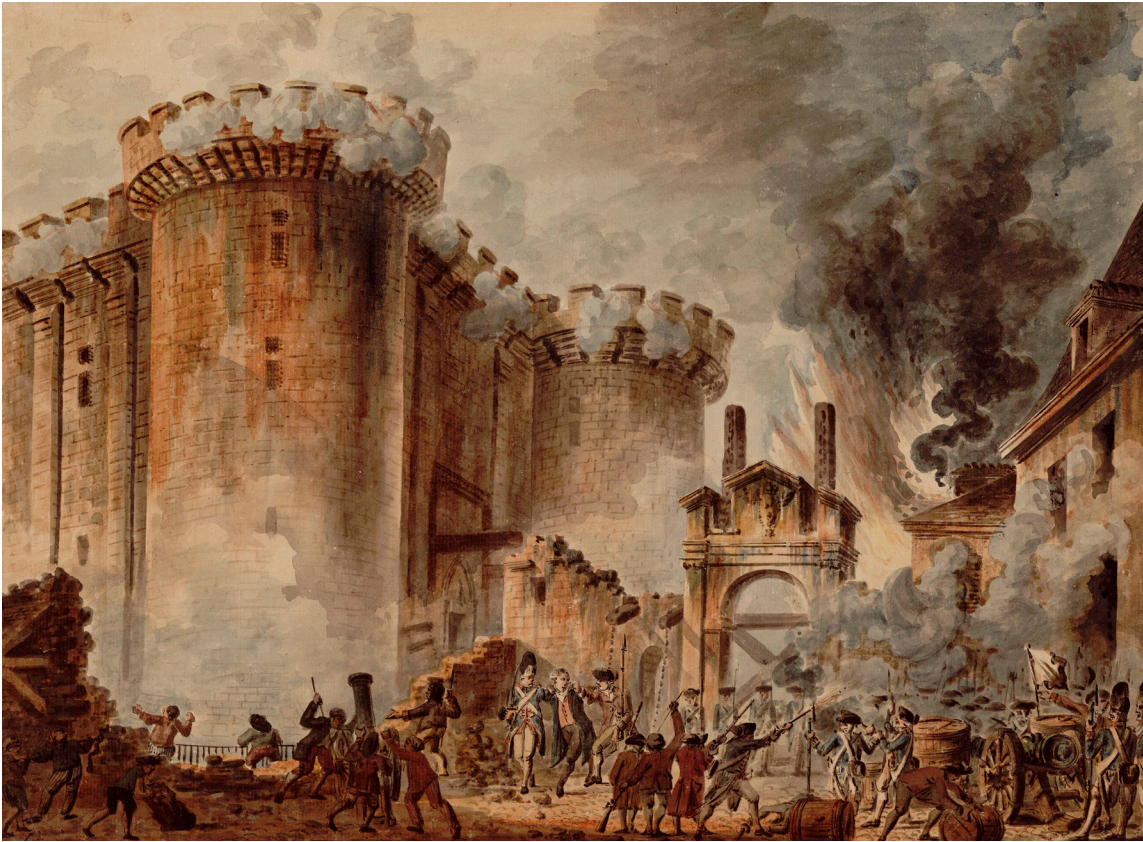
Louis XVI, King of France and Navarre,
Wearing His Grand Royal Costume in 1779

Artist: Antoine-François Callet
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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The Opening of the
Estates General May 5,
1789, in the Salle des
Menus Plaisirs in Versailles

Artist: Isidore-Stanislaus Helman and
Charles Monnet
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The Storming of the Bastille

Artist: Jean-Pierre Houël
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Threatened by a concentration of troops and frustrated that government members sympathetic to the Third Estate had been dismissed, Parisians stormed the Bastille, a royal armory and prison. Known today as Bastille Day, July 14 is France's national day of celebration. The storming of the Bastille signaled a change as members of the Third Estate rose up all over France to contest the government and the old regime. Soon much of France was in the hands of those who wanted change.

As the National Assembly took charge, they began to abolish the old order, including the rights of landlords and the exemptions and privileges held by the clergy and the nobility. The National Assembly would adopt the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen (1789), which granted all men equal rights under the law. It protected free speech and stated that all government officers would be employed based on talent, not birth.

Some wondered if the Declaration of Man and of the Citizen also applied to women. Olympe de Gouges (1748-1793) argued that all citizens should be equal under the law and was inspired to write her own *Declaration of the Rights of Woman and the Female Citizen* (1791). The National Assembly did not heed her demands, and in 1793 she was executed for her outspoken criticism of the revolutionary government.



Portrait of Olympe de Gouges

Artist: Alexander Kucharsky
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As the National Assembly began to reform France it had to deal with the size, power and popularity of the Church. The National Assembly decided to seize much of the Church's land and put into the service of the state. Adopted in 1790, the Civil Constitution of the Clergy made the Church a part of the state as clergy were now paid by the state and elected by the people. This put the National Assembly at odds with the Catholic Church, which still wielded tremendous influence in France.

As faith in the King diminished, France became a constitutional monarchy with all legislative power vested in the National Assembly. Captured while trying to flee France in June 1791, the attempted flight caused the king to lose further support. Eventually, the king would be stripped of all his power and imprisoned.

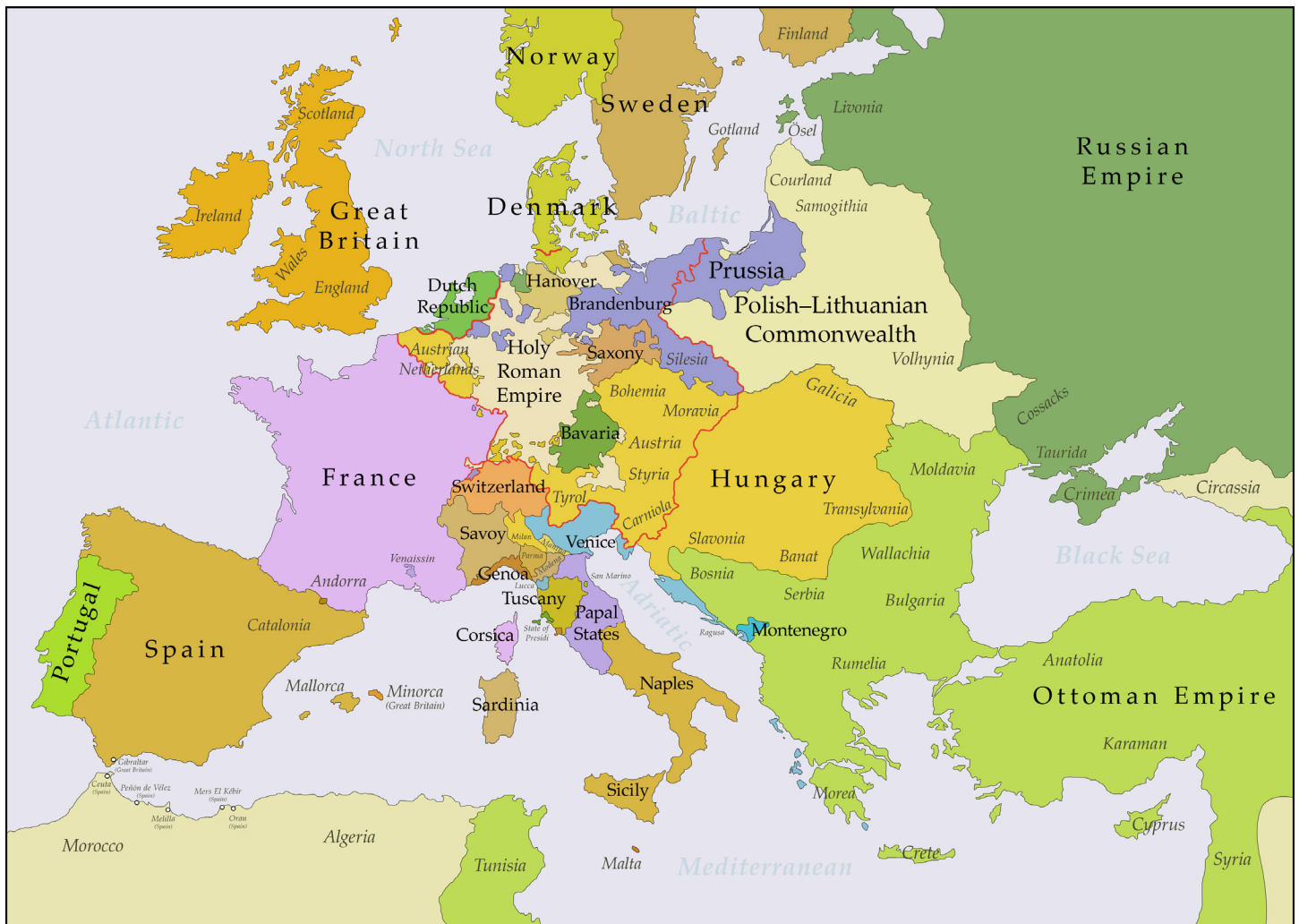
Angered at the treatment of Louis XVI, Austria and Prussia proclaimed their willingness to invade France to place Louis XVI back on the throne. This put pressure on the revolutionary government. In response to these threats, the National Assembly voted, in April 1792, to go to war.

The war further radicalized the public, and in September 1792, a new assembly, known as the National Convention, officially proclaimed France a republic. Under the sway of more radical elements, including Maximilien Robespierre (1758-1794) and Georges Jacques Danton (1759-1794), the Convention tried and convicted the king of treason. Louis was executed on January 21, 1793. Later that year, his wife, Marie Antoinette (1755-1793), would also be executed. Their son and heir, the Dauphine (1785-1795), would die in prison.



Portrait de Georges Danton,
(1759-1794) Orateur et
Homme Politique

Artist: Anonymous
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Map of Europe 1783 to 1792

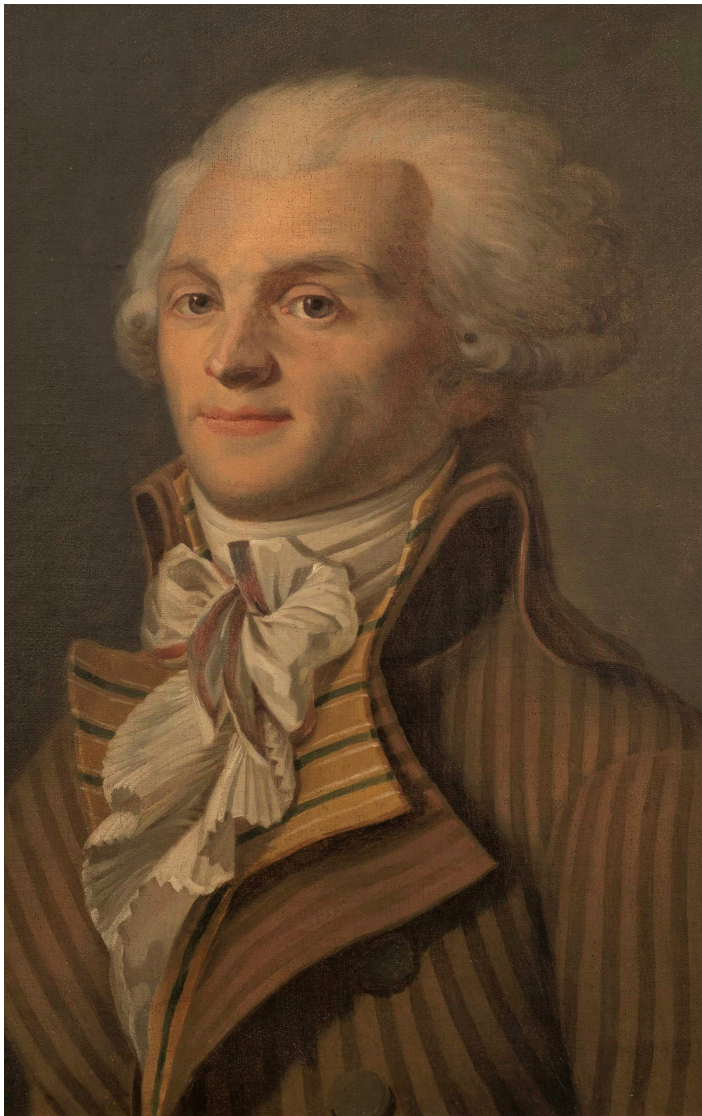
Artist: Bryan Rutherford
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In 1793, France declared war on Britain, Spain and the Dutch Republic. While trying to keep foreign powers at bay, the National Convention struggled to suppress opposition at home, including counterrevolutionaries who supported the old order. Internally the Convention was divided between more moderate and radical groups. Known as *sans-culotte* (meaning without breeches) for they wore trousers instead of the knee breeches associated with the wealthy, on June 2, 1793, Parisian workers joined with the most radical elements (known as the Mountain) to enter the Convention and arrest 29 moderates. The most radical elements of the revolution now controlled the state.

Faced by threats on all sides, Robespierre and his allies did all they could to gain control. Central to this was a new set of programs aimed at rooting out the old regime's remaining vestiges, symbols, and traditions. For

instance, the Convention banned female participation in politics, adopted the decimal system and created a calendar with a week lasting ten rather than seven days. To gain control over the economy, Robespierre and his allies initiated price controls and even told some citizens what to produce. Anxious to build up loyalty, the government-sponsored art and entertainment aimed at producing a sense of patriotism and a commitment to the republican government. They also initiated a program of de-Christianization, although this was dropped in 1794 because of resistance to it especially in the countryside.

Despite these reforms, Robespierre and his allies still worried about counter-revolution and that to many French citizens lacked a real commitment to the republican cause. This led to a Reign of Terror where many suspected traitors, individuals with royalist



Portrait of Maximilien Robespierre

Artist: Anonymous
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Known as the Thermidorian Reaction, the execution of Robespierre announced a new period of more moderate government. Fearing another Robespierre, eventually a five-person executive council known as the Directory would be formed. The Directory ruled until 1799 when a famous general Napoleon Bonaparte (1769-1821) ended the Directory, making himself the sole ruler of France.

Born Napoleone Buonaparte in Corsica in 1769, Napoleon was only a few months old when France formally annexed the island. Son of a minor Italian aristocrat, his father's connections allowed Bonaparte to enter a prestigious French military school. In 1785, he was commissioned as a second lieutenant in the artillery. With the outbreak of the French Revolution

connections or sympathies, and those who criticized the government were sent to the guillotine.

During the Reign of Terror even ardent revolutionaries, many of which had been part of the republican movement from its earliest days but, similar to Olympe de Gouges, had been critical of Robespierre and the current government were targeted. Worried that they too might be convicted of treason, a group of moderates supported by some radicals moved against Robespierre and his allies. Convicted of treason, Robespierre, on July 28 (or 10 Thermidor in the new calendar), was guillotined.

Napoléon Bonaparte en 1792

Artist: Henri Felix Emmanuel Philippoteaux
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Marie Antoinette's Execution in 1793 at the Place de la Révolution

Artist: Unknown
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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GUILLOTINE

Employed as a tool for execution using beheading, the guillotine is most readily associated with France, the French Revolution and the Reign of Terror. The guillotine derives its name from Joseph-Ignace Guillotine (1738-1814), a French physician who, although opposed to the death

penalty, suggested, in 1789, the use of the tall, bladed instrument to make executions less gruesome and more efficient. Originally called the *Louissette*, Tobias Schmidt (1755-1831) and Antoine Louis (1723-1792) had built the actual prototype. During the Reign of Terror, approximately 17,000 people were guillotined. Last used in France in the 1970s, the last public execution employing the guillotine occurred in 1939.

and the Revolutionary Wars, Napoleon found further opportunities for advancement. Although only 25 years old, by 1794, Napoleon had been made a brigadier general. Entrusted with leading the French armies in Italy and Egypt, Napoleon returned to France and staged the 1799 coup.

The coup established Napoleon as the consul of France. The consul had complete power over the executive branch of the government and, with the army's support, could also influence the legislature. Made Consul for Life in 1802, Napoleon crowned himself emperor in 1804.

Napoleon ensured that the revolution took a decidedly more conservative and pragmatic turn. Desiring peace with the Church, Napoleon agreed to a concordat with the Pope in 1801 that allowed Catholicism to be recognized as the majority religion of French people, while the Church agreed not to seek the return of lands seized during earlier phases of the Revolution. Making peace with the Church bought much goodwill with various interest groups in France.

Napoleon set about reforming the state. One of his most lasting achievements was the codification of a new Civil Code. The Civil Code sought to preserve the language



Bonaparte Before the Sphinx

Artist: Jean-Léon Gérôme
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of equality while creating a unified, centralized state rather than one governed by local laws and traditions. As Napoleon conquered new lands, this Civil Code would be exported, bringing a new uniformity to Europe. Meritocracy, republicanism and civil equality (largely restricted to men) would be promoted in these conquered territories, which would have a lasting impact on Europe and its development.

A talented general, Napoleon and his armies swept across Europe. To ensure loyalty and that his dictates would be followed without question or dissent, Napoleon placed his relatives in charge of conquered territories, including Spain, the Netherlands, the Kingdom of Italy, the Swiss Republic, the Confederation of the Rhine and the Duchy of Warsaw.



Coronation of Emperor Napoleon I and
Coronation of Empress Josephine in
Notre-Dame de Paris, December 2, 1804

Artist: Jacques-Louis David and Georges Rouget
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Europe in 1812

Artist: Alexander Altenhof
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One difficulty for Napoleon and his plans was the strength of the British navy. The British had previously defeated France and its allies, and its victory at Trafalgar in 1805 secured British dominance of the seas. Unable to attack England directly, Napoleon devised the Continental System. A form of economic warfare, the Continental System sought to prevent British goods from entering the continent. France's allies disliked it as it led to shortages and drove up the costs of goods.

Tired of the economic disruption, Russia stopped adhering to the Continental System. Napoleon either had to abandon the Continental System or invade Russia: He chose invasion. In June 1812, Napoleon led his large army of some 600,000 troops into Russia. Hoping for a quick victory that would force the Russians back into the

Continental System, Napoleon would be disappointed as, instead of engaging in a set battle, the Russians opted for a tactical retreat. They burned their crops and villages as they withdrew further and further into Russia, refusing to fight Napoleon. Napoleon pressed on under the assumption that the Russians would at least try and defend their capital Moscow: They did not. Moscow, too was set ablaze. Having "conquered" the capital in late October, Napoleon ordered a retreat. The lack of food, cold weather clothing, disease and an increasingly severe Russian winter took its toll. Only 40,000 of the 600,000 invading soldiers made it to Poland by January 1813. This cost Napoleon much of his fighting force and called into question his reputation as an invincible military commander.



The Fall of Nelson, Battle of Trafalgar, October 21, 1805

Artist: Denis Dighton
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In the wake of the Russian disaster, other European powers renewed their efforts against Napoleon. By March 1814, Paris was captured, and the defeated Napoleon was exiled to Elba, a tiny island off the coast of Italy. Louis XVIII, the brother of Louis XVI, was proclaimed King of France. Eventually, Napoleon successfully snuck off the island and returned to

France. Sent to arrest him, soldiers of the 5th Regiment disregarded the order cheering “Vive l’Empereur” while promising to help him regain his throne.

Returning to Paris in March 1815, Napoleon determined that his best strategy would be an offensive one and quickly got together an army and invaded Belgium.



Napoleon's Retreat from Moscow

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On 18 June 1815, Napoleon met a combined British, Prussian and Dutch army led by the Duke of Wellington (1769-1852). Wellington defeated Napoleon; this time, he was exiled to Saint Helena, an island in the South Atlantic. Napoleon would remain on the island until his death in 1821. Although Napoleon had died, the French state, the people and those he had conquered would have to wrestle with the legacy of Napoleon and the legal and political frameworks he constructed. At the Congress of Vienna (1814-1815), delegates redrew the map of Europe, creating what they hoped would be a balance of power that would prevent another nation from dominating Europe and European politics.



Portrait of Arthur Wellesley,
1st Duke of Wellington

Artist: Thomas Lawrence
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European Borders Following the Congress of Vienna

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HAITIAN REVOLUTION

The Haitian Revolution remains one of the most complicated and fascinating revolutions. Occurring in the French colony of Saint-Domingue, the Haitian Revolution is the only example in the Atlantic world where a slave rebellion successfully toppled the state leading to a new nation led by formerly enslaved people who, in turn, abolished slavery.

Considered the most profitable colony in the world, Saint-Domingue produced nearly half the world's sugar and coffee. The island's population comprised approximately 500,000 slaves, 60 percent of whom had been born in Africa; 40,000 whites and about 30,000

free people of color (which consisted of formerly enslaved blacks and people of mixed white and black ancestry). Society was highly stratified both between and within these groups. For instance, the 40,000 whites were divided into two overarching groups: the planters, lawyers and wealthy merchants, known as the *grand blancs*; and poor whites known as *petits blancs*.

As a colony of France, different groups in Saint-Domingue had to consider and confront what the French Revolution and its ideals meant for them. The conclusions reached by different groups in the colony exacerbated rather than remedied tensions. For



Map of Saint-Domingue and Caribbean c. 1790

Artist: John Wyatt Greenlee
Source: World History Since 1500 (Rankin, Weise)
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the *petits blancs*, the French Revolution meant equality with wealthy landowners, a greater political say and equal economic opportunity. The *grand blancs* did not interpret it this way. Instead, for them, the Revolution meant greater political and economic freedom from France. They believed that the Revolution's focus on meritocracy meant that they, as the educated class, would naturally be best placed to run the colony and could shape it to best suit their own interests. For free people of color the Revolution's focus on fraternity and citizenship meant that they should be given full equality under the law. The *petits and grand blancs* opposed such a development. For the slaves, the Revolution meant an end to slavery and the slave system.

Triggered partly by a rumor that the French king had already abolished slavery in 1791, slaves across the colony burned plantations and killed hundreds of

whites and mixed-race individuals. Many of the slaves had been born in Africa and had considerable military experience. Throughout the colony, factions of whites, free people of color and slaves all fought one another for control. The British and Spanish eventually entered the conflict, hoping to claim the colony for themselves.

Under the leadership of the former slave, Toussaint Louverture (1743-1803) slaves would acquire the upper hand. He and his successor Jean Jacques Dessalines (1758-1806) gained control of the colony. They fought off the Europeans, including an army under the direction of Napoleon's brother-in-law, creating, on January 1, 1804, a newly independent nation called Haiti. Only the second independent nation in the Americas, the fact that former slaves were now in charge inspired repressed people across the globe, including those still in bondage.

Jean Jacques Dessalines, President and Then Emperor of Haiti

Artist: Louis Rigaud
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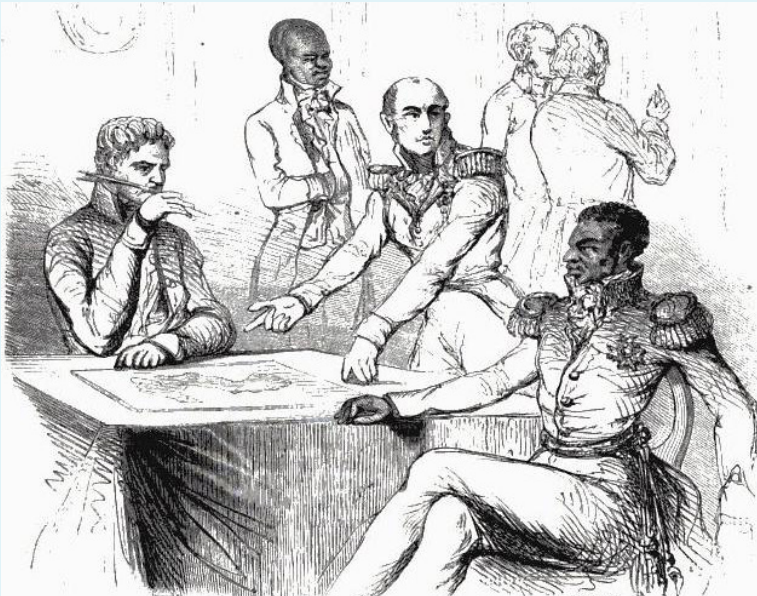


Toussaint Louverture Chef des Noirs Insurgés de Saint Domingue

Artist: Unknown
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HAITIAN INDEPENDENCE

One of the new nation's many challenges was getting the international community to recognize Haiti as an independent and equal nation. Most importantly, Haiti needed France to recognize its independence. Until it did, there was always the chance that France would try and reconquer its lost territory. France continued to ignore requests for recognition believing it was entitled to compensation for the financial costs of the Haitian Revolution. Ultimately, France demanded an indemnity payment of 150 million francs in return for France's recognition of Haitian independence. To strengthen these demands, in July 1825, French King Charles X (1757-1836) sent warships to Haiti as a show of force. Having little choice, Haitian President Jean-Pierre Boyer (1776-1850) agreed to the 150 million francs indemnity. This cost (reduced to 90 million francs in 1838) severely undermined the new nation, which had to take on a series of loans to try and meet the imposed repayments. The debt and the associated interest payments severely undermined Haitian independence and made economic development and investment nearly impossible, as a high percentage of Haitian GDP was spent on servicing the debt. This led to under-investment in infrastructure and the domestic economy and has contributed significantly to the political and economic instability that has impacted Haitians since independence.



Traité avec Haïti

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The devastation, the legacy of racism and the plantation system, coupled with an unstable government prone to authoritarianism, made it difficult for the new nation to prosper. Given these issues, Haiti became the poorest nation in the Western world. The formation of an independent Haiti contributed to the growth of slavery elsewhere. Cuba, for instance, significantly increased its production of sugar, whereas the Louisiana purchase, spurred in part by Napoleon's loss of Saint Domingue, gave rise to new areas in the United States that exploited slave labor.

REVOLUTION IN SOUTH AMERICA

The American, French and Haitian Revolutions bore tremendous influence for the outbreak of revolutions across Latin America from the 1810s through the end of the 19th century. Although inspired by similar Enlightenment trends, Latin American revolutionaries differed considerably from their Anglo-American counterparts. By the 1760s, the thirteen British North

American colonies featured a decentralized imperial government, considerable regional political autonomy, a sizeable middling sort of attorneys, printers and other professionals, a preoccupation with private property, written contracts and the exclusion of most Native Americans from colonial society. However, the colonies of Nueva España sported top-down imperial governance, a ruling gentry of landholders, soldiers and church officials, an emphasis on personal relationships and multicultural societies that included large numbers of Native Americans and African Americans.

The Mexican War for Independence began on September 16, 1810, when Father Miguel Hidalgo y Costilla (1753-1811) urged his parishioners in the province of Dolores, many of whom were Native Americans, to rebel against the Spanish Imperial government. Over 60,000 peasants heeded Hidalgo's "Grito de Dolores" ("Cry of Dolores") and marched upon Mexico City. Spanish officials responded by capturing and executing Hidalgo. However, his successor, Father José María Morelos (1765-1815), routed Spanish forces across the Mexican countryside. Augustin de Iturbide (1783-1824), a creole

military officer, seized control of the revolution by executing Morelos. By 1821, Iturbide had consolidated all of Mexico under his rule. The success of Mexican revolutionary armies also helped inspire independence movements in Central America. In 1823, the provinces of Guatemala, Honduras, El Salvador and Costa Rica reconstituted themselves as the Federal Republic of Central America, although by 1840, they had emerged as independent nations.

The outbreak of the Mexican War for Independence paralleled similar developments in South America. An

attempt by Napoleon Bonaparte to install his brother on the Spanish throne led to a power struggle. Unwilling to submit to a French ruler, Spanish officials in South America created several juntas to govern the colonies.

When Madrid attempted to reassume its control over its American colonies in 1808, several juntas declared their independence. In 1811, wealthy creole Simón Bolívar (1783-1830) launched a bloody eleven-year independence movement in Venezuela. To promote support for his revolutionary movement, Bolívar offered full political rights to poor Venezuelans and ended slavery. In 1819, he and a small army conducted a daring journey across the Andes Mountains, catching Spanish forces by surprise and capturing the capital of Bogotá.

Bolívar's war for independence inspired revolutionaries to the south. In 1816, Spanish military officer turned revolutionary José de San Martín (1778-1850) liberated Argentina. The following year he and his soldiers pushed Spanish forces out of Chile. In 1821, Bolívar and San Martín met in Guayaquil, Ecuador, where they planned a campaign against Spanish forces entrenched in the Peruvian Andes.



1824 Flag

Artist: Unknown
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In 1824, Mexican officials gathered together in Mexico City to create the nation's first written Constitution. Modeled on the U.S. Constitution and the French Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen, the Mexican Constitution called for a federal government with a separation of powers, a system of checks and balances, and provincial assemblies with considerable autonomy. However, the Mexican Constitution differed from its American counterpart in several ways. First, rather than providing a separation of church and state, the Mexican Constitution declared Roman Catholicism to be the official state religion of the country. Second, the Mexican Constitution abolished slavery and provided equal rights for all minorities. Texas revolutionaries cited the suspension of the Mexican Constitution in 1836 as a key reason for declaring their independence from Mexico.

Simón Bolívar

Artist: José Toro Moreno
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No one knows how the two men reached an agreement, but San Martín left his army for Bolívar to command. Soon after, San Martín sailed for Europe, dying almost forgotten on French soil in 1850. Bolívar followed the Spaniards into the heights of the Andes. His forces defeated the Spanish army at the Battle of Ayacucho in 1824, which was the war's last major battle for independence.

In Brazil, independence took a different turn. When Napoleon's armies entered Portugal in 1807, the royal family escaped to Brazil, its largest colony. For the next 14 years, it would be the center of the Portuguese empire. When Napoleon was defeated, the people of Brazil wanted their independence. In 1822, 8,000 creoles successfully petitioned the restored Portuguese government to become an independent nation with Crown Prince Pedro (1798-1834) as its head.



Bataille d'Ayacucho

Artist: Unknown
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BATTLE OF AYACUCHO

The Battle of Ayacucho, fought on December 9, 1824, represented the final major battle in the Spanish American War for Independence. In 1821, a revolutionary army led by Simón Bolívar invaded Spanish-occupied Peru. Three years later, a large Spanish army of 9,000 soldiers remained embedded in the Peruvian Andes. Leading an army of 6,000 soldiers representing provinces stretching from Columbia to Argentina, General Antonio José de Sucre (1795-1830) launched a devastating cavalry charge against extensive Spanish artillery. Capturing the Peruvian Viceroy and his officers, Sucre's victory represented the defeat of Spain's last large army in South America.

SUMMARY

The impact of the American, French and Haitian Revolutions and what they meant then and mean to us today are still widely debated. One aspect about these revolutions is certain: they still influence much of how humanity views and understands the world and continue to shape our conceptions of liberty, equality and freedom. The Haitian Revolution interfered with Napoleon's plan to establish a French Empire across the Atlantic world. The Louisiana Purchase extended slavery in the United States. It also blocked slave holding empires such as France and Britain from expansion, moving them closer to the abolition of the trans-Atlantic slave trade. The French abolished the slave trade in 1815, followed by the abolition of slavery in 1845. The British abolished the slave trade in 1807 and slavery in 1833. In Latin America, this period of revolutions was marked by violence and turmoil. Inspired by the America, French and Haitian Revolutions, rebellions against the Spanish and Portuguese led to the establishment of independent nations. Following these revolutions, each of the new countries would have to establish a new framework for governance as they attempted to create a new prosperous and independent nation.

7

Remaking the World: The Industrial Revolution, Workers and a New Economic Order



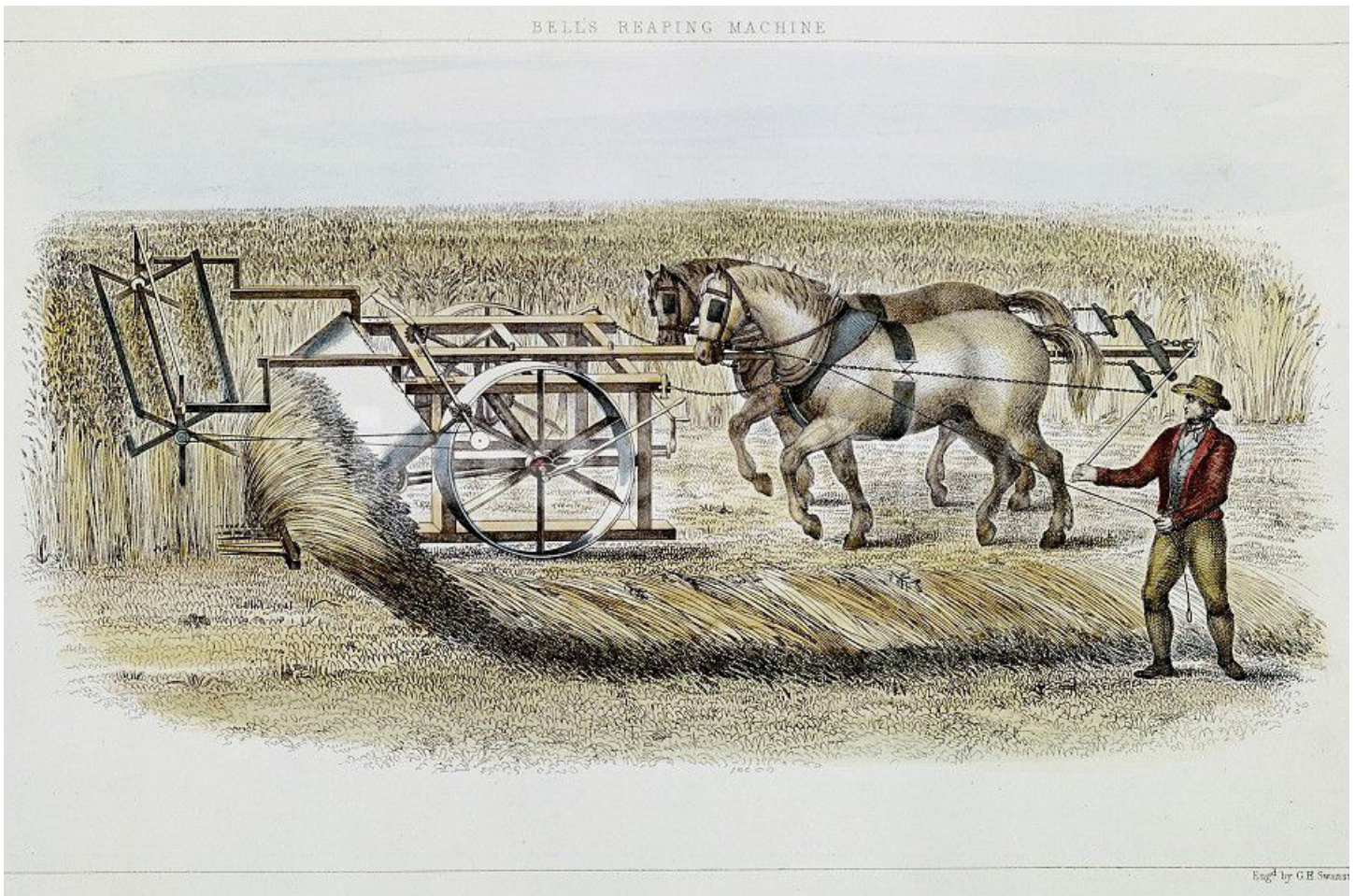
Berlin, Alte Nationalgalerie, Adolph von Menzel, the Iron-Rolling Mill

Artist: Adolph von Menzel
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The Industrial Revolution began in earnest during the latter half of the 19th century. It is one of the most defining features of world history as few developments so definitely separated Europe and eventually North America from the rest of the world. The productive capacities, technological innovations and the power that came from harnessing energy in new ways allowed Europeans to distance themselves from the rest of the world.

The origins of the Industrial Revolution began with the agricultural revolution of the 16th and 17th centuries. The agricultural revolution can be characterized as a series of efforts, reforms and experiments aimed at creating and eventually succeeding at producing a more stable and plentiful supply of food.

Investment in infrastructure and innovation drove the agricultural revolution forward. In the low countries,



Patrick Bell's Reaping Machine, 1851

Artist: George Harriet Swanston
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farmers, landlords and local governments invested in new dykes and devised more effective ways to drain the land, thereby increasing the amount of land that could be farmed. In other parts of Europe, the enclosure movement began when landlords started restricting access to their lands by walling off their properties. By having complete control over their crops, landlords could more effectively manage the harvest. No longer were the decisions made communally about what crops to plant, as the property owner now made the decision and kept the whole of the profits.

The Industrial Revolution began in Britain. Britain would be the leading industrial power until the late 19th century when other powers (notably Prussia and America) would equal and eventually surpass British industrial capacity. Britain had many advantages, which explains why the revolution began there. Britain had a stable government, substantial property rights, advanced banking laws, invested in infrastructure,

including waterways and its road system, had a surplus of coal and iron ore, and profited from the increased farm yield.

Textile production became the first industry to be truly revolutionized by the Industrial Revolution. In Britain, many families, especially in the winter, wove or spun thread to make ends meet. Known as the putting-out system, merchants would go to the houses of families who would then either spin fabrics into thread or take thread and weave it into a finished product. This was a time consuming, labor-intensive process. Although families that spun may have owned the machinery, it was increasingly common that both the fabrics and the machines used to create the product were owned by a merchant. This normalized much of the economies of factory work as in a factory, workers sold their labor but did not own the machines, raw materials, or the finished goods that they produced.

Although labor costs were cheap, once demand rose, there was no real way to increase production. While higher wages might encourage more families to spin, it could not really increase the production of those already producing for the system. As demand rapidly increased, new solutions were sought to solve the inability to meet domestic and international demand for British textiles.

By the mid-18th century, new innovations and inventions solved some of the production issues. The invention of the spinning jenny was important in increasing production, a machine that allowed for, at first, 16 spindles of thread to be spun at once. By the end of the century, over 100 spindles could be operated at once. This allowed those who spun thread to vastly increase their productive output and provided weavers with enough thread to start to meet the outsized demand for finished textiles.

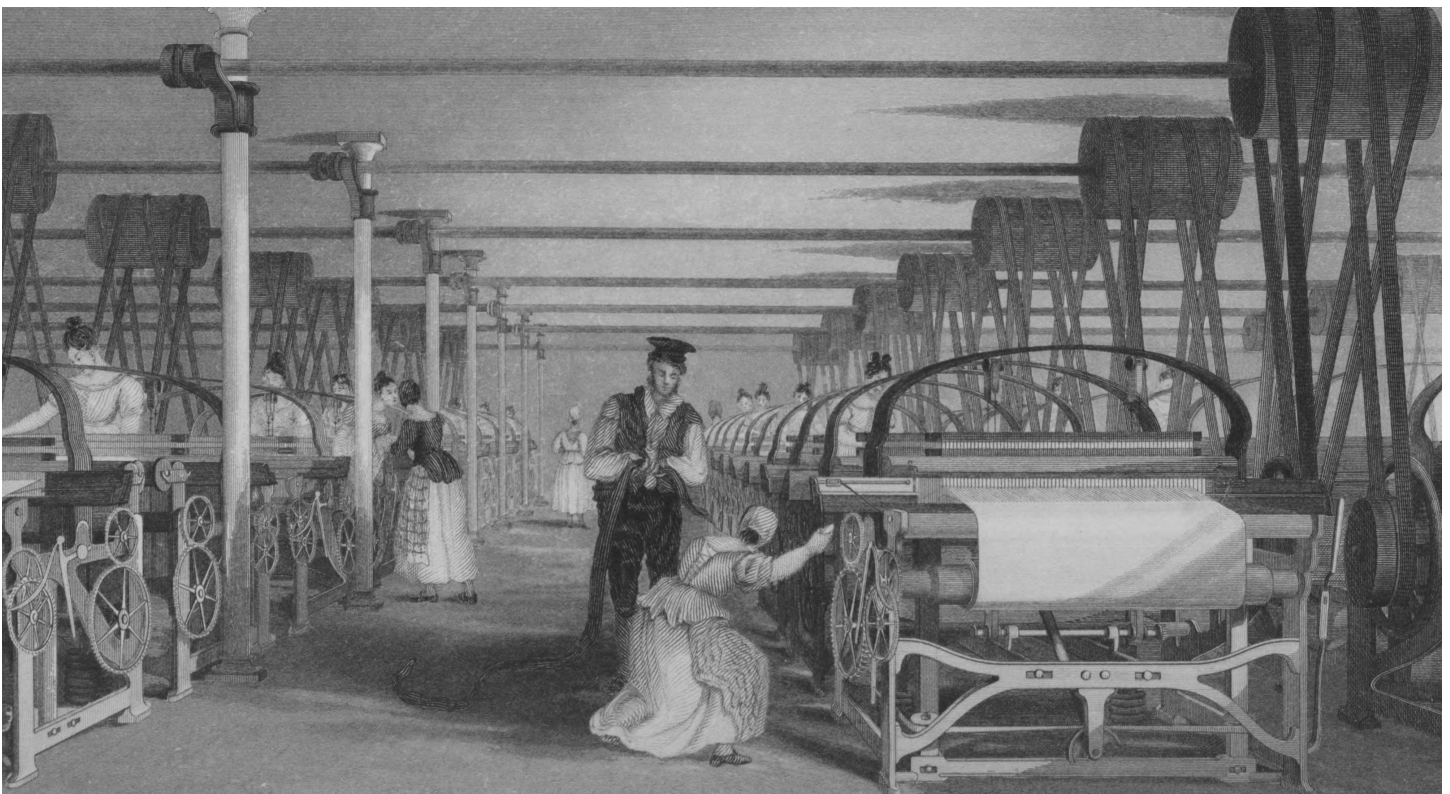
The Industrial Revolution was a period of incredible innovation as new inventions dramatically increased production. Inventions such as the water frame replaced the spinning jenny by offering a more consistent output and a better product. Horses had first powered the water frame, but falling water proved so much more reliable.

Although water was and remains a reliable and effective form of energy (for instance, hydroelectric plants), the innovation that really transformed England and directed the growth of the Industrial Revolution was the steam engine. Not reliant upon naturally produced energy like wind or water (what we today might call renewable energy), the burning of coal allowed for factories to be set up anywhere, which enabled industrial capacity to be placed closer to transport systems and the consumer.

By improving on a previous design, James Watt (1736-1819) created a steam engine that was much more productive and reliable. Having patented the steam engine in 1769, the engine's initial impact was rather muted. It was not until the 19th century, after the steam engine was modified to power cotton mills, that Watt's invention really began to change the world. Once it proved its industrial uses, the steam engine became the backbone of British industry. It also changed transportation as it would be applied to ships and eventually led to the development of steam-powered railways. The steam engine spurred other innovation, especially in the production of iron which allowed the British to produce a stronger, more malleable and affordable iron that could be deployed in the building of machines and rail lines.

Illustration of Power Loom Weaving

Artist: T. Allom (Illustrator) and J. Tingle (Engraver)
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Women Working in a Match Factory in London in 1871

Artist: The Graphic
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Great Britain, had a decidedly conservative turn, with those in power arguing that political change, or at least rapid political change, was dangerous and pointed to the French Revolution and the years of war as an example. For nearly 20 years, while the economy in Great Britain was rapidly developing, the political elite sought to keep the political situation from changing by limiting who could participate in national and local politics.

The middle class benefitted significantly from the Industrial Revolution and the subsequent urbanization of Europe. Their growing strength across the 18th and especially 19th century allowed them to push for reforms that ultimately would facilitate their inclusion in the political process in much of Europe. Some of them might be so successful that they joined the upper classes—those who often copied the aristocracy's pastimes, fashions and manners.

For unskilled labor in the cities, the Industrial Revolution offered little benefit. The pay was poor, and the long hours and accommodations were terrible. The factories of 19th century Europe were awful places where workers were treated poorly with little care for their health, happiness or safety. Workers worked long,

The middle class comprised merchants, managers and other professional people. These people made their living through capital and, as such, usually sought an ending of traditional privileges held by the aristocracy, desiring a society that would be governed by meritocracy. They also pushed for the right to vote so that they could better participate in local and national politics and have a larger say in decision-making.

The top of the social pyramid in most countries remained the traditional elite. This might include nobility, high-ranking church officials, wealthy merchants, industrialists and financiers. After the defeat of Napoleon, many places in Europe, including

Charles Tennant & Co's St. Rollox Chemical Works and Iron Foundry on the Day of the Opening of the Garnkirk & Glasgow Railway

Artist: David Octavius Hill
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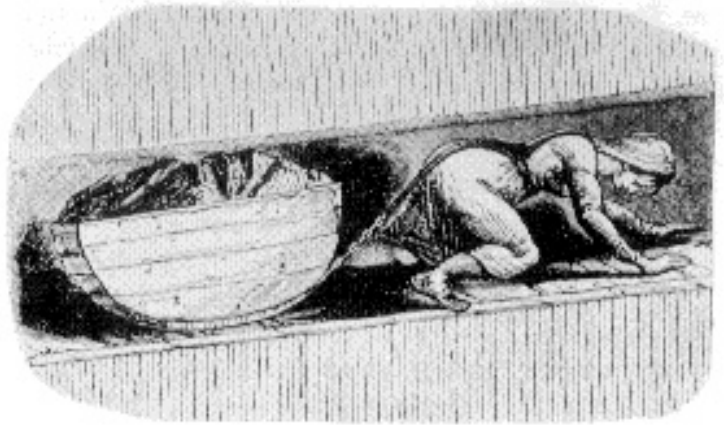


grueling shifts (sometimes upward of 18 hours a day), doing backbreaking tedious work such as shoveling coal, and would be paid very little for this labor. Workers had few rights, and there was no worker's compensation, pension plans or unions. An employee injured on the job that could no longer work was "let go" and forced out onto the street with no real prospects of finding any other employment. It was a cruel system that maximized the profits for the factory owner, who had absolute control over his workforce. Worked to the bone, having no fundamental skills or the chance to develop them, workers labored until they died. The deskilling and the complete control over their life meant that workers were an exploited class who primarily produced wealth for others. At the same time, their salaries were barely enough to survive on.

The Industrial Revolution not only changed society but heavily influenced approaches to production, work and capital. Such shifts engendered massive social changes as people increasingly viewed individuals as the central social unit rather than the community or even the family. Individualism, as some have called it, would, in the West, be synonymous with modernity.

CRITIQUES OF INDUSTRIALIZATION

Factory conditions were dangerous and unhealthy, and the poor pay meant that the whole family needed to work for wages. Children as young as seven or eight could be found next to their parents toiling for little pay. For these children, there was little escape, for they had little or no education, knew little of life outside the factory, and by the time they hit their 20s, many were completely worn out. Working 12 to 14 hours a day, usually six days a week, they lacked the energy and time to apply themselves to anything else, even if they wanted to. These workers toiled until they died or were discarded when they were no longer productive, scratching a living by begging or petty crime. The system saw and treated workers as disposable.



A Young Girl Pulling a Coal Tub in a Mine

Artist: Unknown
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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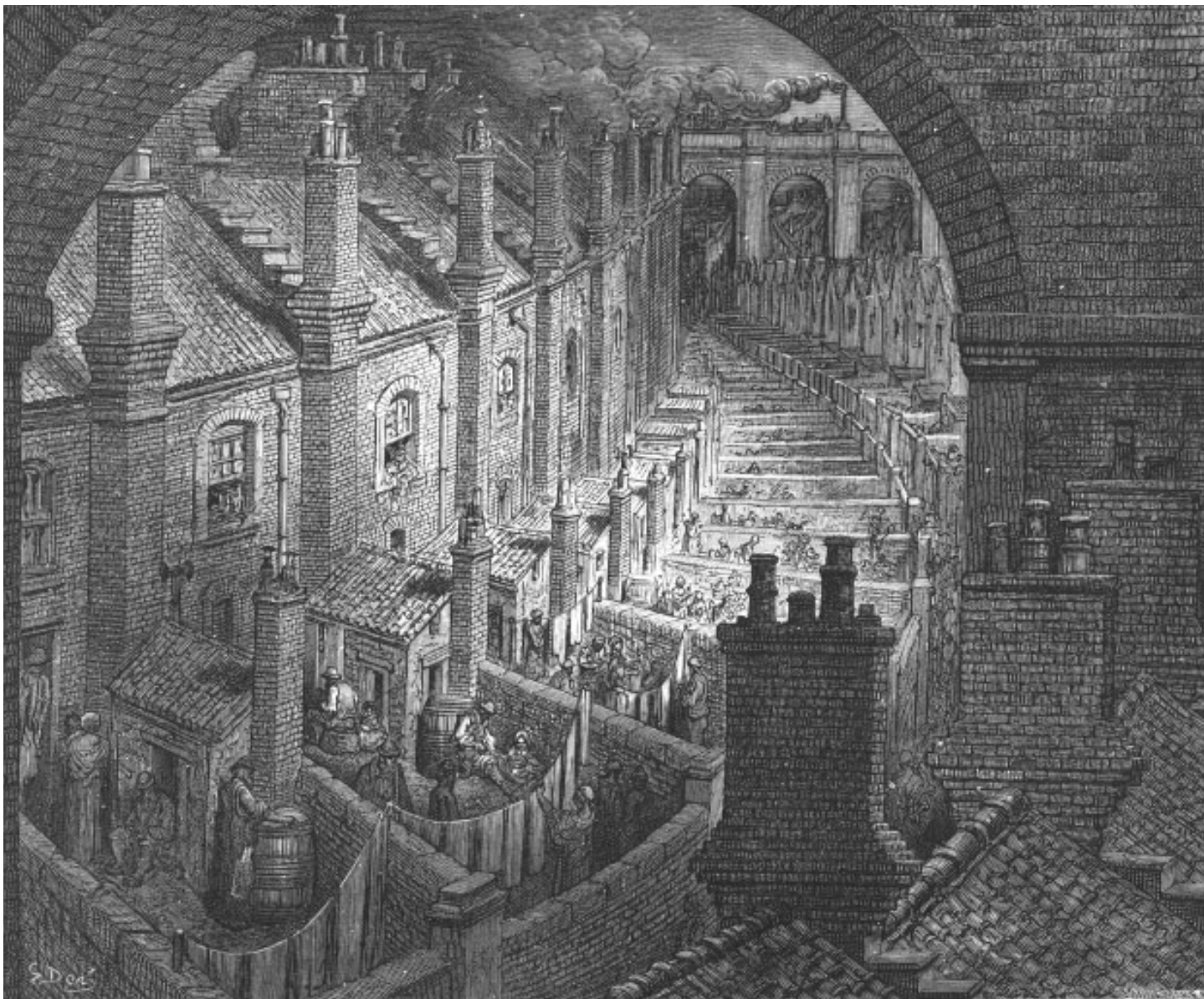


The Voice of Industry,
a Labor Newspaper
Published from 1845-
1848

Artist: Lowell Mill Girls
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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A worker-run newspaper published from 1845-1848, *The Voice of Industry* provides insights into the perspectives and opinions of actual workers during the height of the Industrial Revolution in America. Founded in Fitchburg, Massachusetts, the paper moved to Lowell, where it became associated with women workers, especially the Lowell Female Labor Reform Association, which many consider to be the first union for working women. The paper demonstrated the social and economic dislocation wrought by the factory system and how workers were now forced to sell their labor rather than,

like in the past, sell the actual fruits of their labor. This seemed, to them, to undermine the American spirit of freedom and independence. Contributors worried that profit was beginning to shape all relationships and came to dominate, direct and define American politics. Many contributors understood that the factory system would not end, and focused their energy and attention on improving workers' lives. To this end, *The Voice of Industry* supported numerous initiatives, including improving working conditions, better pay, and limiting the workday to 10 hours.



Over London-Artist: Rail from London: A Pilgrimage

Artist: Gustave Doré
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Industrial by-products, waste from the tanneries, sewage and horse manure all mixed to make the cities a pungent and unhealthy place. The increase in population only worsened the problems as industrial workers lived in poorly constructed rowhouses that left little room for natural light. Given the poor pay, most families could only afford to rent a single room in a crowded house. Life was hard and unhealthy, and for many, there appeared little chance to escape.

The terrible conditions inspired demands for reform. One group, the socialists, wanted to replace the capitalist system with what they believed would be a more equitable distribution of property and profits.

This, they argued, would lead to improvements in working conditions and pay. For instance, Frenchman Charles Fourier (1772-1837) called for the creation of self-sustaining industrial communities in which jobs were distributed based on temperament and ability. He believed the highest paid should be individuals who did dangerous or undesirable work. Robert Owen (1771-1858) created new industrial communities dedicated to improving working conditions at New Lanark, Scotland, and Indiana, U.S.A., where he established New Harmony. While the success of these operations continues to be debated, Owen demonstrated, at least in Scotland, that one could run a successful business while better treating, paying and educating workers.



The most famous social reformer is the German academic Karl Marx (1818-1883). Marx realized that a more equitable society could not be created as long as people subscribed to the notion of differentiated compensation. People who subscribe to this model are called capitalists and see money as the main reward for intelligence and hard work. Marx believed that genuine, long-lasting improvement could not be achieved until capitalism was destroyed.

Born in Germany in 1818 to a relatively prosperous family that held liberal and reformist views, Marx, in the 1840s, would meet his lifelong friend and supporter Friedrich Engels who had recently completed *The History of the English Working Classes*. Engels convinced Marx that the working class was the key to history. From this point forward, Marx dedicated his life to the working class and universal change.



The Village of New Lanark

Artist: User "mrpbps"
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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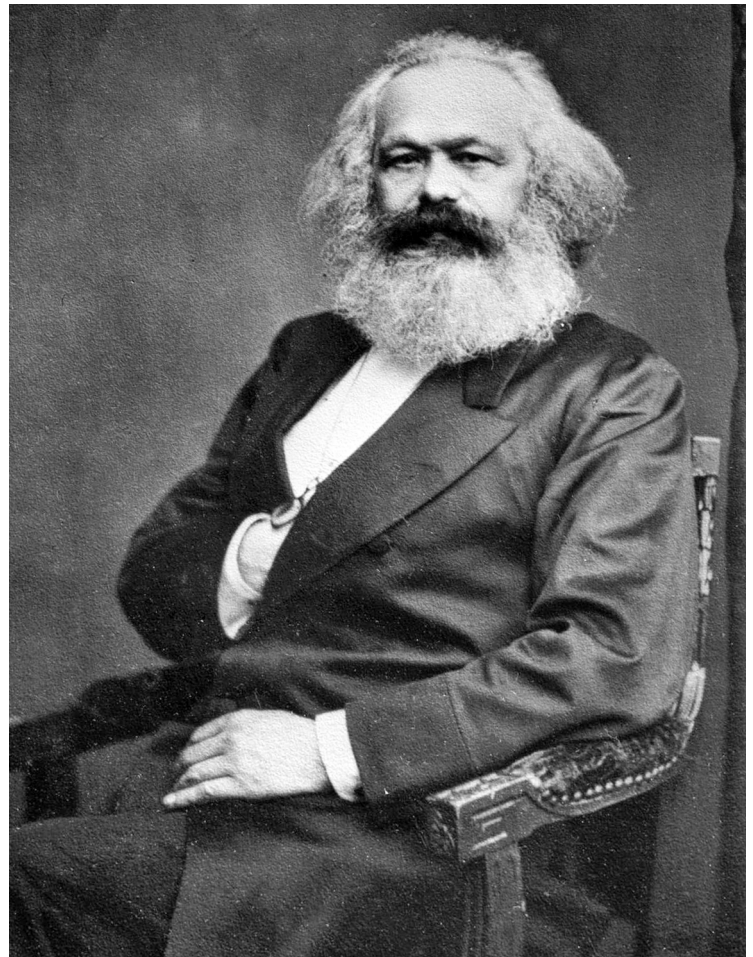
Portrait of Friedrich Engels

Artist: William Hall
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The factory system encouraged Marx to consider the relationship between workers and capital, leading him to conclude that one of the most defining factors in an individual's life is their relationship to the means of production. Marx determined that there were only two classes those who owned the means of production, which he called the bourgeoisie, and those who did not and sold their labor, known as the proletariat. For Marx, this meant that you are either someone who exploits others by profiting off their labor or you are exploited: There is no middle ground.

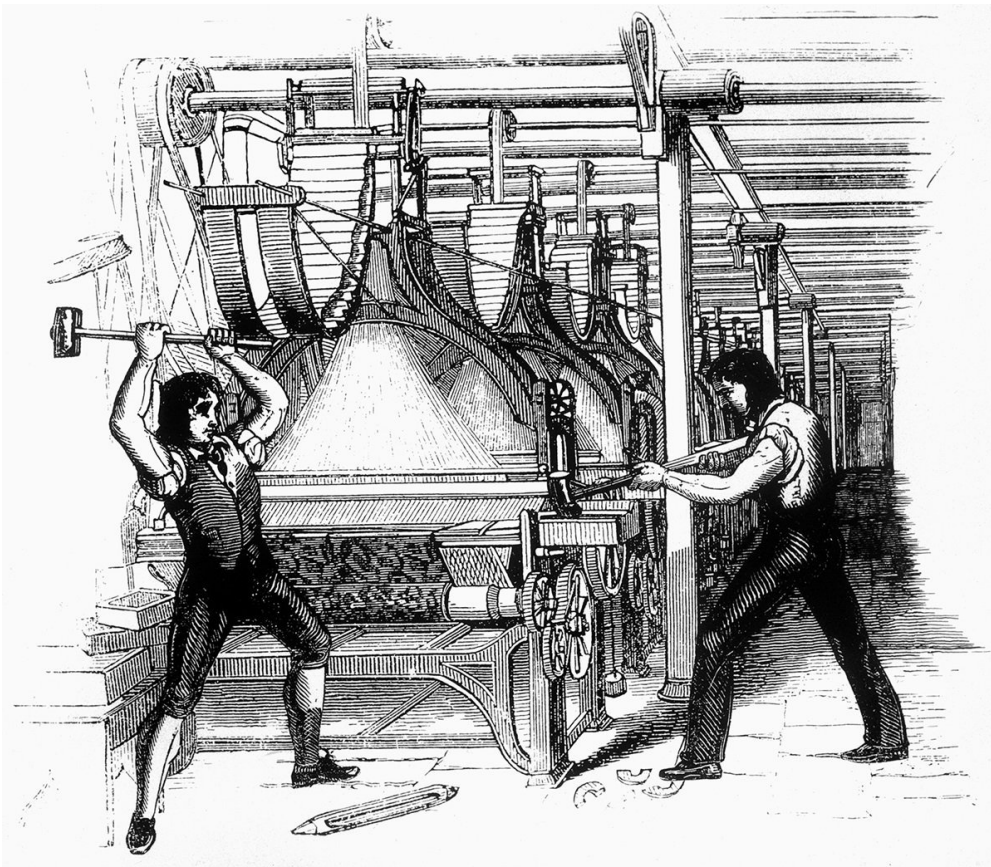
Marx believed that all institutions in a capitalist society –government, media, religion and education–served the capitalist class's interests. These institutions tried to keep the workers down and trick them into believing that their lives and labor were free when they were stripped of their individuality and ability to sell their labor freely.

Marx concluded that the history of the world had been largely shaped by two classes: those who own the means of production, and the workers. Marx argued that the movement of history from one historical era to another is based upon the conflict that occurs between these two groups. Marx believed that just as capitalism replaced feudalism, capitalism would be replaced by socialism. Eventually socialism would be replaced by a stateless,



Portrait of Karl Marx

Artist: John Jabez Edwin Mayall
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Frame-breakers, or
Luddites, Smashing a Loom

Artist: Unknown
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classless society known as communism. Communism would spread to every corner of the globe and would be the final step in human development. Marx stated that the end of capitalism would begin in the West as they had the most highly developed capitalist economies.

Marx believed that workers would eventually be pushed to a stage of near-total mechanization and automation, which would cause increasing dissatisfaction and help them realize that they are being manipulated in a rigged system. Developing what Marx called a class consciousness, the oppressed workers would “unite” to overthrow the bourgeoisie. This would be a violent process, as Marx believed that the capitalist class would not relinquish their privileged position without a fight.

Marx asserted that revolution was the only way to create a communist state. One could not elect a left-leaning or socialist government and expect to break the chains of capitalism. It did not matter whether you desired communism (Marx believed most workers would) or opposed it; the revolution was inevitable.

This violent revolution would give birth to socialism. In this new socialist state, ownership of the means of production would be collective. The fundamental goal of the state would not be to encourage personal profit but to improve the welfare of all workers who would share in society’s resources and wealth. But socialism, too, would give way. Eventually, socialism would be transformed into communism, an idealized state without the need for government, as all people would live in harmony. Since all members of society would relate to the means of production on equal footing, there would be no classes or division of labor as each person would contribute to the best of their abilities. There would be no specialization as specialization leads to the formation of hierarchy and class distinction. Communism would create an enduring classless society. There would be no more fundamental changes in the government for government itself would no longer be needed.

Marx and his ideas have had a tremendous impact on the world. Until the fall of the Soviet Union, over a third



Mule Spinning in Action

Artist: Baines
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of the world's population lived under a government that called itself Marxist. Although he would never have agreed with the strong state policies that have characterized communist governments, Marxism has had a tremendous impact on the world. Marx has given the world an ideology that (although yet to be applied in true Marxist fashion) is a powerful tool in fighting oppression by offering a way for the oppressed to voice their struggles and a method for organizing resistance.

Workers' calls for reform were eventually heard. Whether driven by humanitarian concerns, environmental considerations, or worries over national decline as men from the factory were judged too worn out to go to war, fear of a worker-led revolution or other factors; eventually, politicians voted for reform. In 1833, the English parliament passed the Factory Act, which made the minimum age for employment 9 years old and limited the working day for those children from 13 to 18 to 12-hour days. For children over nine but not yet 13, the workday was capped at eight hours. In the following decade, the work week for women and children would be limited to 58 hours.

The efforts of workers, reformers and politicians who wanted or accepted reform did pay dividends. Indeed, by the mid-19th century, standards of living were improving. Workers were healthier, ate better, and had better access to education and health care. Throughout Europe, cities began investing in clean drinking water, green spaces and parks, and underground sewage.

With less demanding hours and more free time, workers began to enjoy leisure time, which led to the explosion of sporting activities, a vast increase in sporting organizations, and the creation of professional sports teams and leagues. In England, The Football Association (1863) and The Rugby Football Union (1888) were both formed to manage the sports of football (soccer) and rugby. These organizations served as governing bodies, drafting rules and regulations for their particular sports. By the end of the century, the world would witness the rebirth of the Olympics, and in 1903, the first Tour de France would be ridden. In America, baseball grew in popularity as professional leagues were formed. By the 20th century, sports and sports culture had become big business and began shaping national pastimes and consciousness.

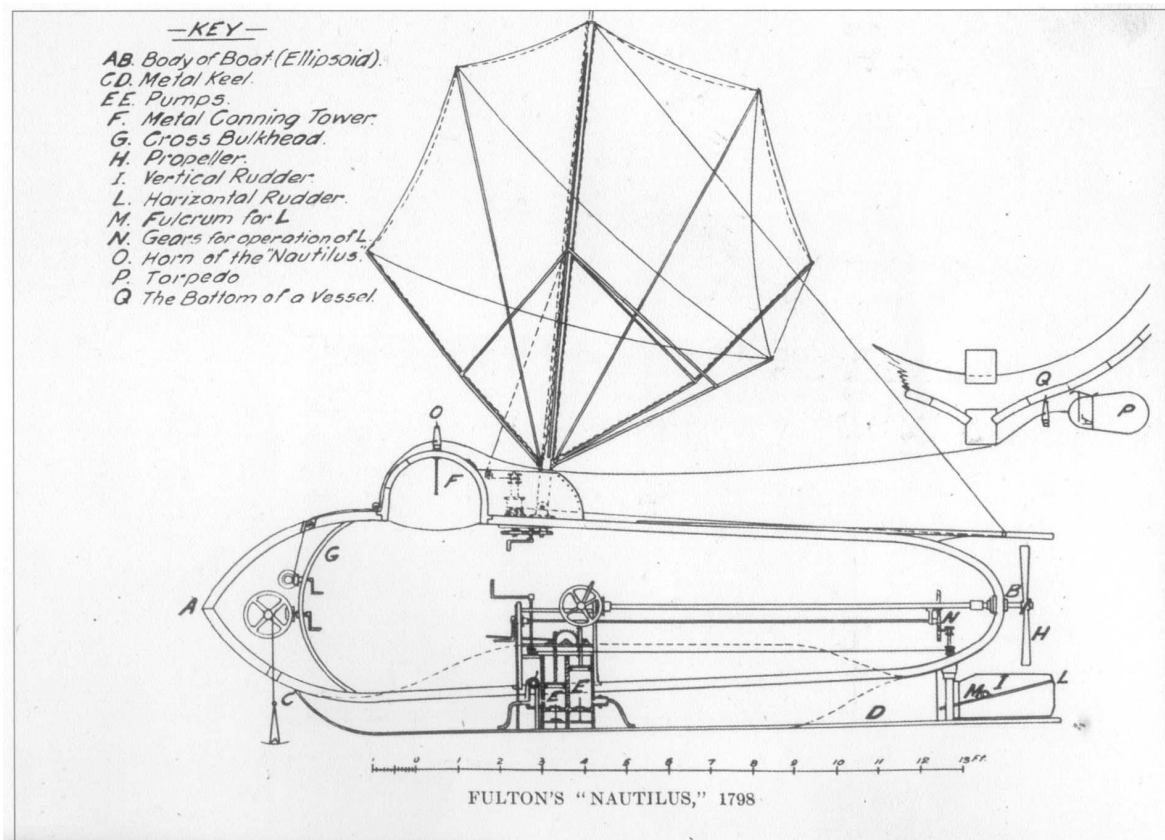
INDUSTRIALIZATION IN THE UNITED STATES

In 1783, the United States emerged from the American Revolution as an overwhelmingly rural nation. Yet in just a century, the nation would become one of the world's most advanced industrial nations. After World War II, the United States became the strongest and most productive in world history, a distinction it continues to hold.

British law prevented American subjects from creating their own factories during the colonial period. A few daring merchants experimented with "putting out" or "cottage industry" systems whereby they hired different groups of artisans to make machine parts (such as gun barrels, gun stocks, ramrods, bullets, shot and powder). Other craftsmen would then combine these parts into a final product.

American merchants and industrialists borrowed copiously from European precedents throughout the 19th century while making their own innovations. In the 1780s, New England mechanic and industrialist Samuel Slater (1768-1835) toured British cotton spinning factories, memorized their technological layout and management systems, and then used this knowledge to open his own water-powered spinning mills in Pawtucket, Rhode Island. In 1803, Slater created a firearms factory that used interchangeable parts to produce cheap, easily repairable muskets in significant quantities. The availability of abundant waterways, coal deposits, state governments willing to grant patents and charters of incorporation to aspiring inventors, and a well-educated labor force quickly allowed the American Northeast to emerge as the center for industrialization in the U.S.

The rise of ever-larger factories throughout New England, New York and New Jersey created a demand for cheaper and faster ways of bringing goods to market. In 1807, Robert Fulton (1765-1815) piloted his North River Steamboat, the first functional steamboat in America, on its maiden voyage from New York City to Albany. Although powered by a British Boulton and Watt steam engine, the North River Steamboat proved that two-way travel along America's coasts and rivers was now not merely possible but also cost-effective. Over the next 20 years, thousands of American steamboats would ply the



Fulton's Steamboat

Artist: Robert Fulton
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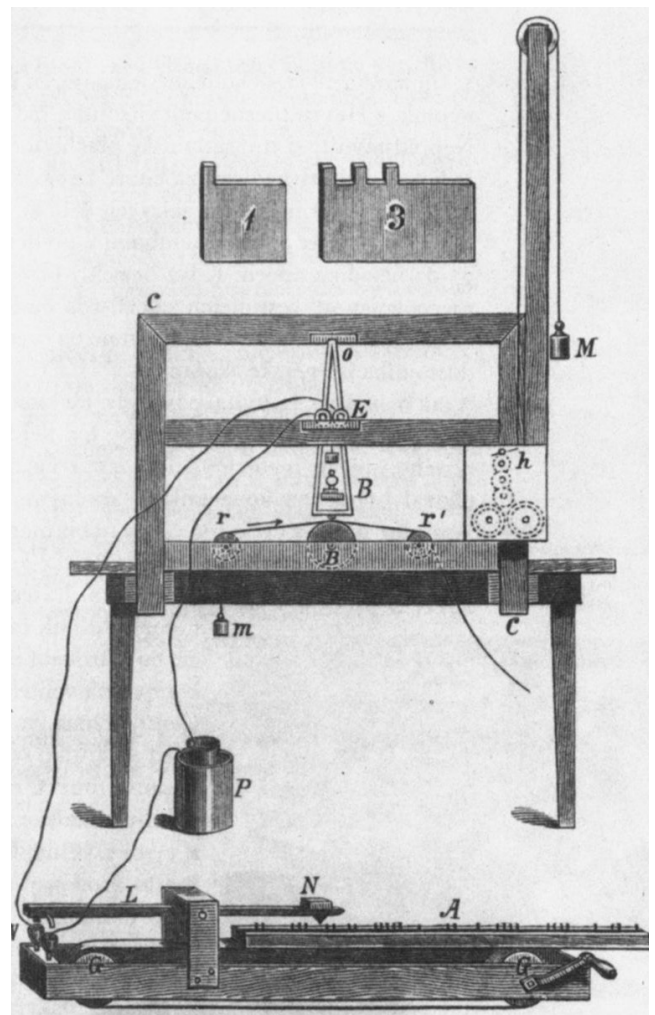
inland water of the United States, facilitating the settlement of the western frontier and America's commercial expansion worldwide.

In 1837, Yale-trained Massachusetts inventor and artist Samuel F. B. Morse (1791-1872) obtained a patent for his "American Recording Electro-Magnetic Telegraph." Morse's invention provided an inexpensive single-wire method of carrying electromagnetic current over extended distances. He also created an alphabet based on long and short telegraph signals. In time this "Morse Code" would become the international language of the telegraph, allowing for the reliable, instantaneous transmission of news and information across the nation.

Borrowing from British precedents, New England industrialist Francis Cabot Lowell (1775-1817) created the first textile mill in Waltham, Massachusetts, in 1814. To help sell the idea of industrialization to skeptical New England patriachs, Lowell suggested that young women between the ages of 15-35 staff his factories.

Morse Telegraph

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Francis Cabot Lowell's plan to use young women from New England farming families to staff his textile mills proved a bold experiment in the 1830s. Dominated by large, religiously conservative land-owning families, Massachusetts political leaders remained wary of industrialization. They acknowledged Britain's rapid industrial success but lamented the damage such success had wrought among Britain's poor working classes. However, Lowell argued that by hiring young women to work in his factories for a set number of years, he would provide his young charges with not just wages but job skills, work experience, educational opportunities, room and board, proper chaperoning and religious instruction. A portion of their salaries would be sent home, helping to sustain their family's farms. They would return home poised to become hard-working, sensible wives and mothers. In this regard, industrialization would support rather than endanger traditional New England family values. However, in reality, Lowell women worked long hours in dangerous conditions. To be specific, many did gain crucial workplace skills and a sense of working-class solidarity. For instance, Lowell women participated in one of the first labor strikes for higher wages. However, Lowell factory managers replaced them with poor Irish and German factory laborers. By training such immigrants to perform simple industrial tasks, factory owners could easily replace troublesome or rebellious workers. Furthermore, unlike the Lowell girl system, factory owners felt no compulsion to house, feed or educate their immigrant labor forces.

Lowell Offering

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One of Lowell's factory employees was a young inventor and mechanic named Elias Howe (1819-1867). Following the Panic of 1837 (a financial crisis that led to a depression), Howe began to experiment with creating a mechanical sewing machine. In 1846, he secured a patent for a lockstitch sewing machine that used a steam-powered shuttle to feed garments into an automatic needle and thread processor. Faced with competition from other industrialists like Isaac Singer (1811-1875), Howe defended his invention in court. By the American Civil War, the sewing machine had transformed the clothing industry across the United States, allowing for the creation of mass-produced, high-quality garments which allowed working class and middling-sort Americans to adopt the refined tastes of the nation's elites.

The U.S. Civil War represented a watershed moment in the history of American industrialization. By the 1860s, 90% of America's industrial and financial centers existed in the northern states. Thousands of new factories sprang up overnight to meet the federal government's incessant demand for weapons, uniforms, telegraphs and warships. The north's industrial output

played a crucial role in the eventual northern victory as Union forces outpaced the ability of the south to manufacture or import its wartime material. Following the outbreak of peace in 1865, many of these factories were recalibrated for civilian use.

In 1869, corporate leaders of the Central Pacific and Union Pacific Railroads and government officials gathered in Promontory Point, Utah, to drive a golden spike into a rail line. The act symbolized the uniting of the first transcontinental railroad, which allowed for the rapid settlement of the American west. By building railroad lines through tribal lands and shooting buffalo from railroad cars, Anglo-American settlers brought thousands of Native Americans to the edge of starvation. They accelerated the displacements of dozens of tribes onto reservation land.

Throughout the Gilded Age, a new class of American entrepreneurs emerged on the scene. In 1872, Scottish-born industrialist Andrew Carnegie (1835-1919) witnessed "Bessemer steal" production in England. Pioneered by British inventor Henry Bessemer (1813-1898), the "Bessemer process" called for the injection

of oxygen into molten metal to burn off impurities and thus create high-quality steel. In 1892, Carnegie started the U.S. Steel Company in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, and soon came to dominate the fledgling American steel industry. He pioneered vertical development, buying up mines for extracting ore, mills for processing it, and railroads to distribute final goods to markets. One of

America's first billionaires, Carnegie championed the cause of self-improvement. He funded the creation of lending libraries across the United States (many of which remain in operation today). He poured funds into institutions of higher learning, such as Carnegie-Mellon University.



The Cleburne Carnegie Library in
Cleburne, Texas

Artist: Larry D. Moore
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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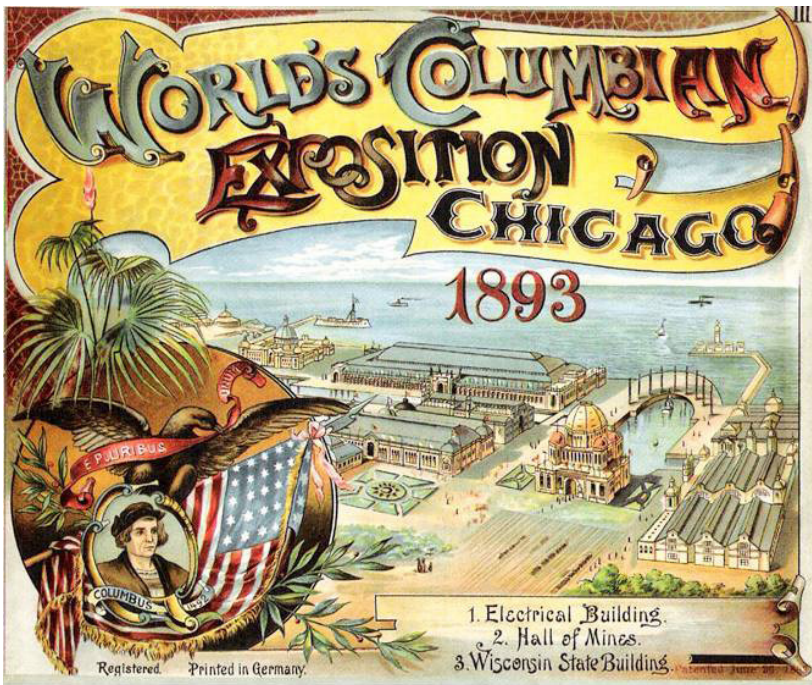
Born into a poor Scottish weaving family, Andrew Carnegie migrated with his family to Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania as a young boy in the 1840s. Using the newly emerging telegraph industry, Carnegie learned morse code and became a successful telegraph operator. Investing in railroad and bridge companies, he multiplied his fortune many times during the Civil War. A firm believer in self-cultivation, Carnegie gave generously to foundations, schools and churches. Most significantly, he funded a series of first-rate libraries in poor urban neighborhoods and small rural towns across the nation. Boasting an impressive array of not just technical or business manuals, these libraries also sported great works of literature and history. Carnegie and his supporters argued that the goal of these libraries was not just to allow men and women to prepare for professional careers but to make them refined citizens of a national culture that rewarded risk-taking and self-improvement.

Oil magnate John D. Rockefeller (1839-1937) proved an interesting contrast to Carnegie. Originally a commission merchant and salesman, Rockefeller created an oil refining business in the 1860s. Buying out several competitors, Rockefeller established the Standard Oil Company in 1870. By the 1890s, critics charged that Rockefeller and his lieutenants were engaging in horizontal expansion, strongarming smaller oil companies into selling out to U.S. Steel to cut down on competition and keep oil prices high. Rockefeller also successfully provided financial support to Congressmen who passed laws providing U.S. Steel with tax breaks, free land, and tariffs to discourage foreign competition. However, like Carnegie, Rockefeller became a leading philanthropist late in life.

Alexander Graham Bell (1847-1922) changed the world with his invention of the telephone. Bell initially sought to create a machine that would help his young wife, Mabel Hubbard, and other hearing-impaired Americans

distinguish between sounds. Quickly realizing his invention's commercial application, Graham obtained a patent for his "acoustic telegraph" in 1876. In time the telephone would revolutionize the transmission of knowledge across the world.

While Bell experimented with transmitting sound, his contemporary Thomas Alva Edison (1847-1931) poured his time and energy into illuminating the world. In 1880, he created the first practical, long-lasting electrical lightbulb at his Menlow Park laboratory in New Jersey. The lightbulb allowed for the nighttime illumination of large American cities, reducing the need for dangerous gaslight systems and allowing ordinary Americans to partake in nighttime jobs, shopping, education and recreation. Edison also helped establish the first motion picture industry, perfected early phonographs, and experimented with dynamos. The World's Columbian Exposition in Chicago in 1893 showcased American technological advancements in steel manufacturing,



Advertisement for the World's Columbian Exposition (also known as the Chicago World's Fair)

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oil production, steam power and electricity. More importantly, the Exposition signaled America's rise as one of the world's leading industrial powers.

The Industrial Revolution wrought tremendous changes for businesspeople, factory owners and the millions of blue-collar Americans working in the industrial sector. In some ways, ordinary Americans benefitted from high-paying jobs which allowed them to pursue professional educations, move up the corporate ladder, purchase homes in newly created suburbs, pursue refinement, send their children to good schools, and devote freshly acquired leisure time to following sports and going on vacations. However, industrialization also displaced traditional artisans, replacing them with low-skilled assembly line workers who could be hired and fired quickly. The repetition and sheer drudgery of factory work took their toll on workers' minds. Such factories often lacked proper safety features, making working

in them exceedingly dangerous. The use of child labor proved a brutal example of this trend. Furthermore, poor working-class families often crowded into poor neighborhoods that lacked proper sanitation and social services. Constantly in danger of losing their jobs, many poor factory workers succumbed to prostitution, crime, alcoholism, drug use and suicide.

Not surprisingly, the 1870s witnessed the first large-scale labor strikes in American history. Borrowing from European labor union techniques, American organizations such as the Knights of Labor, the American Federation of Labor, the Congress of Industrial Workers, and the National Grange led strikes for shorter hours, better wages and benefits. In the Great Railroad Strike of 1877, the Homestead Strike of 1892 and the Pullman Strike of 1894, state and federal officials intervened on the side of business owners to crush striking workers and restore industrial production.

SUMMARY

The Industrial Revolution radically altered society. It accelerated a host of processes and developments, including urbanization. It took advantage of new ways to harness energy and increased the productive abilities of humankind. The Industrial Revolution was not simply a physical revolution but a social and intellectual one. It has massively altered how we understand and approach work, capital and the individual. The Industrial Revolution provided the countries that best employed the new technological and productive capabilities a considerable advantage and buttressed attempts, especially by the West, to expand their global reach and control.

8

Nation Building and Reform 1700-1900



Barricade bei der Universität am
26ten Mai 1848 in Wien

Artist: Werner, F. (lithographer)
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The years 1700-1900 witnessed fundamental change throughout the world. Drawing from Enlightenment ideas such as rationalism, liberalism, written frameworks for government, separation of church and state, and romantic notions such as cultural nationalism, powerful nations such as Spain, Britain, France and the

Netherlands reformed their governments to emerge as modern nation-states. As the Enlightenment and Romanticism ideas made their way east and south, they inspired emerging nations such as Italy, Germany, Russia and Japan to develop their unique governments, art, literature and scientific discoveries. Many European

countries also swept across the globe, using breach-loading rifles, steamboats, railroads, telegraphs and even medical science to subjugate the native peoples of Africa, Asia and Oceania. However, to manage such large empires, colonial administrators relied upon large classes of indigenous intermediaries trained in Western reading, writing, accounting, engineering, military techniques and law. As such, native peoples learned to use European-inspired political ideas, such as modern nationalism, to create resistance movements. In time, new postcolonial nations such as the United States, Mexico and Brazil would develop their own unique political ideas and sense of cultural nationalism. This chapter examines how modern nations came into being, learned to express themselves, and dealt with the brutal legacies of imperialism and colonialism.

REVOLUTIONS OF 1848

The first half of the 19th century witnessed the rise of a series of revolutions across Europe. The spirit of “liberty, equality, fraternity” unleashed by the French Revolution and Napoleonic Wars continued to inspire working-class groups across the continent. The Romantic movement also introduced concepts such as cultural nationalism, which argued that people with shared institutions, languages, religions and cultures should live together in sovereign nations. Furthermore, industrialization continued to drive social change across Europe, empowering new classes of factory owners while marginalizing industrial workers, rural peasants and agrarian elites. Given these deep-seated forces at work, it was somewhat surprising that they only partially succeeded in sweeping away traditional European kingdoms and empires.

During the “February Revolution” French monarch King Louis-Phillipe (1773-1850) ordered French troops to use force against Parisian protesters demanding political and economic reforms. When soldiers massacred 50 demonstrators, crowds began building barricades throughout the streets of Paris. A coalition of social revolutionaries, attorneys and political leaders created a provisional government and declared France be a republic. Due to the recent invention of telegraph services, news of the February Revolution spread throughout Europe. In the Austrian Empire, rural peasants converged on Vienna to demand an end to feudalism and factory workers went on strike for

higher wages and safer working conditions. Czechs and Hungarians demanded their own independent states. In contrast, over 800 German delegates in Frankfurt gathered in defiance of traditional political elites to create a popularly elected national assembly as a preliminary step to creating a united Germany.

The inability of revolutionaries to work together or govern effectively quickly led to the defeat of their movements. For instance, an inability of political liberals and socialists to work together in France’s National Assembly led to a series of bloody worker uprisings in Paris called the “June Days.” The National Assembly hired French peasants from the countryside to crush the demonstrators. In the ensuing confusion, Louis Napoleon (1808-1873), the nephew of the former French Emperor, became President of the French Republic. In keeping with his family tradition, four years later, he bypassed the National Assembly and after a plebiscite, declared himself Napoleon III, Emperor of France. In Austria, protest from below encouraged the crown to consider reform. Meanwhile, in Germany, the Frankfurt Assembly offered the crown of a united Germany to King Wilhelm IV of Prussia (1795-1861), he refused what he called a “crown from the gutter,” and the movement for German unification fell apart.

Although the Revolutions of 1848 failed to redraw Europe’s political map, they produced some political, economic and social change. Although an emperor, Napoleon III lacked the absolute power his uncle had wielded. The dream of a single German nation remained alive in millions of German-speaking people’s minds and would continue to grow in strength over the next generation. Even the conservative Austrian government agreed to a new constitution that called for a Parliament and an end to feudalism. This was a first, but important step in checking the absolute power of monarchs and moving toward a more participatory form of government.

IMPERIALISM

Throughout this period, many Western nations pursued imperial and colonial ambitions. In the early modern period, European rulers were aware of imperialism. The concept went back to the Greek and Roman Empires and involved the military or diplomatic conquest of other regions and exploiting their natural resources. In

the late 1300s and 1400s, Portugal and Spain overthrew Moorish rule and emerged as modern empires. Armed with classical descriptions of India and China and Arabic inventions such as ribbed hulled ships and astrolabes, explorers such as Vasco De Gama and Christopher Columbus brought knowledge of Africa, India and the Americas back to their European sponsors. Due to a lack of royal funds, Portuguese and Spanish monarchs granted explorers and conquistadors in the 1500s royal charters to conquer certain regions in return for a share of the wealth extracted from such regions. In the 1600s, England and France followed suit, offering colonial charters to noblemen and joint-stock companies in return for a percentage of the wealth these groups generated off their overseas adventures.

COLONIALISM

European rulers viewed overseas colonies as more than just sources of wealth. Monarchs and their advisors also viewed such areas as sites where their own subjects could settle and create families and communities among themselves or through unions with indigenous people. Such colonists could then help procure raw resources, which would then be shipped back to the home country for processing into manufactured goods, which could either be sold abroad or back to the colonists at considerable markups. Royal officials likewise argued that colonies could serve as a dumping ground for unwanted groups of people back home, such as criminals, ethnic minorities, or simply debtors. Some nations, such as England, envisioned colonies expanding the borders of their empires, creating miniature versions of the home country around the world.

Although colonial powers had significant advantages over indigenous peoples and colonists, they were not all-powerful. Beginning in the late 1700s, areas such as the thirteen British North American colonies, Haiti, Mexico, Peru, Columbia and Rio De La Plata, began to declare themselves independent of the British and Spanish empires. By the mid-19th century, even post-colonial states like the United States were experimenting with becoming imperial and colonial powers. It would only be after the Second World War that de-colonization would emerge as a worldwide movement.



Richard Hakluyt

Author: Kenneth Shoesmith
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Born in Herefordshire, Richard Hakluyt (1553–1616) became an Anglican Priest and writer in his teens. A favorite at the court of Elizabeth I, Hakluyt published *Divers Voyages Touching the Discoverie of America* (1582) and *The Principal Navigations, Voyages, Traffiques and Discoveries of the English Nation* (1589–1600). These works became cornerstones in defining and promoting English colonialism. Hakluyt argued that Spanish colonies were based on force and exploitation. He suggested creating English colonies around the world. English settlers would treat indigenous peoples fairly, giving them the benefits of English science, culture and religion in return for labor and service. In time the two groups would intermarry and become one. England would thus create “mini-Englands” worldwide, spreading the English language, culture and religion far and wide. Hakluyt’s ideas would become a cornerstone in the creation of the British North American colonies and, later the United States.

ITALIAN UNIFICATION

Following the Napoleonic Wars, the delegates at the 1815 Congress of Vienna created a series of powerful alliances designed to maintain a balance of power by propping up traditional European empires. While such a system protected established nations it made it difficult for new ones to be formed. For instance, since the fall of the Roman Empire in the fifth century AD, the Italian peninsula had remained divided into a series of petty kingdoms, city-states and papal lands. Although constant conflict and trade between these small states provided the creative ferment that led to the rise of the Renaissance, it made any consensus for Italian nationalism hard to achieve.

The Italian Campaigns of the Napoleonic Wars destabilized the traditional Italian feudal order and introduced new ideas, such as nationalism. Attempts at Italian unity under the short-lived Cispadane Republic (1796-1797) were rolled back by Napoleon's defeat and the efforts of the Congress of Vienna. Throughout the 1810s and 1820s, a secret order known as the Carbonari spearheaded a movement for Italian unification. One such member, Giuseppe Mazzini (1805-1872), established a movement known as La Giovine Italia (Young Italy) that trained a generation of future revolutionary leaders. Another Carbonaro, Giuseppe Garibaldi (1807-1882), spent several years learning to function as a professional revolutionary by participating in armed struggles in Brazil and Uruguay.



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GIUSEPPE GARIBALDI

Born in 1808 in Nice, part of Napoleon's French Empire, Giuseppe Garibaldi trained as a young man to become a ship captain. Joining the Carbonari and Mazzini's Young Italy movement in 1833, Garibaldi participated in an unsuccessful uprising in Piedmont. Fleeing to the Americas, Garibaldi worked with revolutionaries seeking independence from Brazil. Marrying Brazilian revolutionary Ana Maria de Jesus Ribeiro (1821-1849), Garibaldi learned guerilla warfare techniques. During the Uruguayan Civil War, Garibaldi raised a legion of Italian expatriates known as the Redshirts because of their distinctive uniforms that featured red shirts, ponchos and sombreros. Returning to Italy in 1848, Garibaldi played an active role in the Italian Wars for Independence. A dedicated republican, he disliked dealing with aristocrats like Camillo Benso, Count Cavour (1810-1861) and Victor Emmanuel II (1820-1878), whom he felt moved slowly toward independence. When the American Civil War broke out in 1861, the Union government offered Garibaldi a commission as a major general. Although Garibaldi met with U.S. Minister Henry S. Sanford (1823-1891) in Brussels, he demanded that he be made commander-in-chief of all Union forces and wield power to abolish slavery in areas he liberated. The Lincoln administration did not agree with Garibaldi's demands.



Portrait of Anita Garibaldi

Artist: Gaetano Gallino
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alliance with French Emperor Louis Napoleon III to launch a resistance movement against Austrian forces in Milan and Venice. In June, Sardinian forces defeated Austrian troops at the battles of Magenta and Solferino. In the meantime, Garibaldi led an army of Italian volunteers to victory over the Austrians at the actions of Varese and Como. Behind the scenes, Sardinian, French and Austrian diplomats brokered a compromise whereby Sardinia would receive Lombardy, France gained Savoy and Nice, and Austria would maintain Venice.

The precarious peace created by the end of the conflict lasted less than a year. When peasants in Messina and Palermo began to revolt against the government of Francis II, King of the Two Sicilies (1836-1894), Garibaldi led an army of 1,000 volunteers from all over the Italian peninsula (I Mille) to liberate Sicily from Neapolitan rule. He then began an invasion of the Kingdom of Naples, defeating a papal army hastily thrown together by Pope Pius's followers. Victor Emmanuel II, King of Sardinia, arrived to take the head of Garibaldi's volunteer army. Francis II held out in the fortress of Gaeta for three months before finally surrendering. In February 1861, Victor Emmanuel II called for the creation of an Italian Parliament, which declared him King of Italy. Although Garibaldi attempted to raise an army to take Rome and create a republic, Victor Emmanuel II negotiated quietly behind the scenes for French and Austrian troops to leave the peninsula.

For nearly five years, the Kingdom of Italy continued to grow, wielding power throughout the peninsula except for Venice, which remained under Austrian control, and Rome, where the Papacy held sway. During the Austro-Prussian War (1866), Italy sided with France and Prussia against Austria. At war's end, Italy received Venice with French support in return for accepting French control over Nice and Savoy.

When the Franco-Prussian War (1870-1871) broke out in 1870, Napoleon III recalled all French troops from Rome. After a token resistance, Rome fell to Victor

In 1848, a series of liberal revolutions broke out across Europe. Popular uprisings quickly began in Sicily, Naples, Milan and Venice. Local nobles, including Pope Pius IX (1792-1878), promptly fled. Giuseppe Garibaldi led an army of peasants into Rome. In January 1849, revolutionaries held local elections of an assembly that declared the creation of the Italian Republic on February 9th. Two months later, Giuseppe Mazzini became Chief Minister of the new Italian government. He helped prepare a Constitution which guaranteed, among other things, freedom of religion and a right to free public education. However, the intervention of Austrian and French military forces led to a defeat of the republicans and a restoration of the Pope and nobles to power.

Throughout the 1850s, Camillo Benso, Count of Cavour and Sardinian Prime Minister, promoted Italian unification. He efficiently modernized Sardinia's government and military and began creating correspondence networks with patriots throughout the Italian peninsula. In 1859, Count Cavour signed a secret



Battle of Magenta, 1859

Author: Louis-Eugène Charpentier
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Emmanuel's army in October. The Kingdom of Italy annexed Rome, unifying the peninsula for the first time in over a millennium.

GERMAN UNIFICATION

In many ways, the process of German unification paralleled that of Italian unification. For centuries German-speaking people lived in a variety of separate kingdoms, duchies and empires. In 800, Emperor Charlemagne (747-814) unified them into a loose confederation known as the Holy Roman Empire. By the early 1800s, the Kingdom of Prussia had emerged as a powerful state in opposition to the Austrian Empire. Following the Napoleonic Wars, the different German states were combined into the German Confederation. During the revolutions of 1848, progressive German nationalists, intellectuals, intelligentsia and politicians elected a German National Assembly. However, this movement fell apart after only a few months in power. Many Germans remained divided over whether Germany should be unified with or without the Austrian Empire.

Throughout the 1850s and 1860s, Prussian Prime Minister Otto von Bismarck (1815-1898) led efforts to unify Germany from the top down. In 1862, he aligned with Austria to argue that the Danish government of King Christian IX (1818-1906) had no right to annex the provinces of Schleswig and Holstein directly into Denmark. After defeating the Danish armies, Prussia annexed the two territories. Bismarck then signed a mutual defense treaty with the newly formed Kingdom of Italy. When Italy went to war with Austria in 1866, Prussia defeated its rival and annexed several German states, including Hanover and Nassau.

In 1867, Bismarck created the North German Confederation, which unified many German states under Prussia's leadership. Worried about the growth of Prussia, Napoleon III demanded that Prussia return Luxembourg and parts of Saarland and Bavaria. Bismarck not only refused these demands but continued to block French ambitions. In response, France declared war on Germany. With virtually all German states except Austria supporting Prussia, German forces quickly defeated several French armies and occupied Paris. In January 1871, German officials and generals proclaimed Prussian King Wilhelm as Wilhelm I, Emperor of the German Empire (1797-1888).



Porträt Otto Eduard Leopold von Bismarck-Schönhausen

Author: Jacques Pilartz
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his travels, the Streltsy (riflemen) had rebelled. Once he returned, Peter crushed them and anyone who opposed his plans to reform Russia and Russian society. Peter increased his power by modernizing the army and staffing it through an aggressive conscription program. By the end of his reign, his army boasted nearly 300,000 soldiers.



Peter the Great

Artist: Jean-Marc Nattier
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RUSSIA

In 1682, Feodor III (r. 1676-1682), Czar of Russia, died without heirs. The next in line was his brother Ivan V (1666-1696), but since Ivan was sickly and considered mentally incapable, the Boyars (the old nobility) elected his 10-year-old half-brother Peter (1672-1725) instead. Eventually, it was agreed to name the half-brothers co-monarchs. Peter I (r. 1682-1725) outpaced his brother in energy and talent and, in a few years, began to dominate the court. In 1696, Ivan V died, which left Peter the sole ruler of Russia.

Fascinated by maritime trade and technology, in 1697, Peter I traveled to Western Europe in disguise as part of his “Grand Embassy.” This trip aimed to find allies against the Ottomans and learn more about the West. Though he failed to win much European support, he learned a lot about modern methods of shipbuilding and manufacturing.

His eighteen months abroad encouraged Peter I to initiate a period of reform. Before he returned from



Russian Streltsy

Artist: Anonymous
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successful as Russia would win the Great Northern War (1700-1721) against Sweden, which gave Russia control of Livonia, Estonia and parts of Sweden.

Believing that the old ways hindered Russian progress, Peter designed a new capital in western Russia on the Gulf of Finland. Called Saint Petersburg, this new capital signified the modern and Western inspired direction of his empire. To complete the project, upwards of 40,000 conscripted peasants were sent to Saint Petersburg to labor for free each year. Tens of thousands died during its construction. The impressive capital, with its wide straight boulevards, uniform buildings, imposing government buildings and large greenspace, looked modern but was built by unfree and unpaid labor.

To protect Russian interests, Peter began heavily investing in his navy. His primary focus was to increase Russian control of the Black Sea and protect Russian access and trade in the Baltic. These efforts proved

Peter wanted a nobility that served him and the state. To signify a more 'European' outlook, Peter ordered that the elite shave their beards and that they dress more like their European counterparts. He also commanded that

Peter the Great Meditating the Idea of Building St. Petersburg at the Shore of the Baltic Sea

Artist: Alexandre Benois
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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all nobles serve in either the army or the civil service. Peter successfully brought the nobility into line, further centralizing the power of the throne.

Peter ordered his followers to create new schools to teach mathematics, manufacturing, medicine, engineering and finance. He based these schools on Western traditions and hired English, French and German tutors to teach Russians technical and philosophical ideas. In many ways, Peter's reforms, his educational policies, and his general acceptance and promotion of European ideas not only changed Russia but opened it up to the ideas of the Enlightenment.

By the end of Peter's reign, he had achieved his goal of transforming Russia by orienting it toward the West.

His achievements granted him the title Peter the Great. He built a new capital, improved education and the economy, and ensured that the nobility served the state. The death of Peter in 1725, and the early death of his son and heir, led to a period of instability that threatened to undermine his reforms.

Despite the troubles of governance, subsequent rulers continued to expand the empire. Fatefully, Peter III (r. 1762) married a German princess named Catherine in 1745. Deposed and possibly murdered, Peter III was succeeded by his wife, now known as Empress Catherine II (r. 1762-1796). She would, in time, be known as Catherine the Great.



Map of Russian Expansion, 1533-1914

Artist: John Wyatt Greenlee
Source: *World History Since 1500* (Rankin, Weise)
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CATHERINE THE GREAT

One of the most discussed features of Catherine II's life is her relationships with men. Her husband, the future Peter III, gave her a position at court, but their marriage was not happy. During their marriage, she had at least three lovers, and we can't be certain that any of her children, including the future Czar Paul I (1754-1801), were legitimate. Her third child, a son, was almost certainly fathered by Grigory Orlov (1734-1783). The number of Catherine's lovers continues to be debated by historians, with many placing the number somewhere between 12 and 22. The actual number will likely never be known. Until her stroke and subsequent death at age 67, Catherine had surrounded herself with young men and participated in the courtly games of flirting and intrigue. It is unlikely that all of these relationships were physical. Whatever the case, Catherine kept a close eye on her court, ruled Russia with an iron fist, and let little stand in her way of getting what she wanted.

Portrait of Catherine II of Russia

Artist: Follower of Johann Baptist von Lampi, the Elder
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Catherine understood that Russia needed reform. Recognizing the power of Enlightenment ideals, Catherine wanted to harness the ideas and technology of the West without undermining Russian institutions and, of course, the power of the throne. To rule effectively, institute reforms and strengthen the state, Catherine needed the support of the nobility. In return for their loyalty, Catherine increased and protected the power of the elite.

Catherine expanded the state, creating a relatively stable Russian Empire. Evaluating Catherine is complex and often contentious. On the one hand, she promoted Enlightenment values and was enthusiastic about education. On the other hand, her support of the nobility and the 500,000 serfs she owned suggests that the Enlightenment values of equality and fairness were more philosophical than a practiced position. That she gave serfs away to important officials and court favorites demonstrates how little rights serfs had and that they were treated as a commodity to be traded and used for the benefit of the few. Although Catherine's reign was largely successful, she strengthened a top-down hierarchical system based primarily upon one's birth.

OTTOMANS

As many European Empires strengthened their economies, states and militaries, the Ottomans entered a period of decline. While the reign of Suleiman I (r. 1520-1566) may have marked the zenith of the Ottoman Empire, it remained viable and flourished until about the mid-18th century when it became increasingly evident that it no longer had the power and prestige it once held. As Ottoman power began to drain away, Ottoman nationalists began to debate what went wrong and, more importantly, how to fix the empire. Although numerous approaches and solutions were offered, two dominant camps emerged. One side argued that the problem was that the Ottomans had deviated from their historical trajectory and that the solution to its problems was to go back to the old and traditional ways, while others wanted to borrow state policies from its European neighbours. Caught between these two forces, the Ottoman Empire went back and forth between periods of reform and trying to implement policies based on the old ways. This caused a lot of disorder, blocked reform and made it difficult for any sultan

and the imperial bureaucracy to address the changing European landscape.

As the Ottoman Empire entered the 19th century, it fell increasingly behind and earned itself the nickname the “Sick Man of Europe.” After losing the Greek War of Independence (1821-1829), which saw the formation of an independent Greece, many within the empire clamored for reform. This led to the Tanzimat period (1839-1876), which tried to reorganize and modernize the Ottoman state while offering all subjects, regardless of faith, equality under the law. The Tanzimat reforms saw the same unequal application and resistance from traditional forces, which had stalled other efforts to reform the Ottoman state. Although limited, the Tanzimat reforms did inspire a new generation who adopted the ideas of republicanism and nationalism.

Advocates for reform would eventually gain the upper hand. Known as the Young Turks, the reformists forced the sultan to adopt and rule according to a constitution. Allied with Germany, the Ottomans entered World War I (1914-1918) on the side of the Central Powers. During the war, the Ottoman Empire committed genocide against Armenians, Assyrians and Greeks. Although the Ottoman state ended up on the losing side of World War I, it did survive the war, although the Arab Revolt ended Ottoman control over large swaths of the Middle East. This resulted in the redrawing of much of the Middle East, with the mandates for these countries placed in the hands of Britain and France. The mandates meant that Arab leaders would rule, but they were expected to take advice from either Britain or France (depending on who held the mandate) until it was determined that the new nation could stand on its own.



Map of Turkey

Artist: John Wyatt Greenlee
Source: *World History Since 1500* (Rankin, Weise)
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After the war, Mustafa Kemal, a respected Ottoman general, fought against the occupying Allied forces and, eventually, the Ottoman state. In 1920, a provisional government announced its desire and intention to replace the Ottoman Empire with a republic. On November 1, 1922, the Turkish Parliament officially announced the end of the Ottoman state. This ended more than 600 years of Ottoman rule.

Elected the first President of the new republic, Mustafa Kemal came to be known by the honorific Atatürk, which means Father Turk. Kemal launched a series of reforms aimed at modernizing the new nation of Turkey. These reforms included building a sense of nationalism, secularization and a strict separation of church and state. Kemal discouraged the wearing of Ottoman clothing, encouraging state employees and citizens to wear European-inspired dress and adopt European manners and pastimes. The new Turkey, so far as Kemal saw it, would be a radical departure from the past.

NATION BUILDING IN LATIN AMERICA 1500-1700

Nation-building in Latin America proved a radically different undertaking than similar efforts in Europe, Africa and North America. Before the arrival of Europeans, powerful Native American empires and city-states dominated large swathes of Central and South America. For instance, from the 1100s to the 1500s, the Mexica moved into the Central Valley of Mexico. Conquering Mayan and Toltec city-states, the Mexica's renamed themselves the Aztecs and created a powerful empire based on force. The Aztecs created vibrant commercial networks, intricate artwork and a complex religion that featured human sacrifice. The Incan Empire arose in Peru at roughly the same time, tying together large cities through an intricate system of roads that allowed for the rapid deployment of trade and armed forces. Yet for all of their strengths, the Aztecs and Incas fell quickly to Spanish conquistadors equipped with steel armor, lances and swords, firearms, horses and germs for which many Native Americans had no resistance.

Conquistadors such as Hernan Cortes (1485-1547) and Francisco Pizarro (1478-1541) were not social revolutionaries looking to create new societies in the



Tonatzin Churubusco

Artist: "Theimattador"

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Employing brutal methods against Native Americans, Spanish priests proved much more successful in gaining converts than Protestant ministers in the English North American colonies. Many Mayans and Incans accepted conversion because they felt baptism might protect them from the European-borne diseases ravaging their communities. Others saw the adoption of Spanish culture and transformation as stepping stones for entry into Spanish trading networks and colonial society. Many Native Americans empathized with the image of a savior figure whose suffering resembled their own. Many Native Americans selectively combine aspects of their Native American religions with Catholicism to create a hybrid faith. For instance, Aztecs combined traditions associated with the Corn Goddess Tonantzin with the cult of the Virgin Mary to create a blended religious figure.

Americas. They were mercenaries seeking “gold, glory and God.” In particular, they sought to extract wealth from their conquered subjects and return to Spain as rich men. It fell to subsequent generations of colonial administrators and priests to create a colonial social order on the ruins of the Aztec, Mayan and Incan states. They began by creating the *encomienda* system by which individual conquistadors received land grants buttressed by the unfree labor of Native Americans. Franciscan and Dominican Priests also operated missions throughout Nueva España designed to function as forts and imperial outposts and as community centers where Native Americans could receive conversion and training in industrial skills. In 1542, Dominican Priest and former conquistador Bartolome de las Casas (1484-1566) published *A Short Account of the Destruction of the Indies*, which condemned the harshness of the *encomienda* system.

Although some Catholic Priests became champions of Indian rights, many others viewed Native Americans as heathens who could only be saved through conversion to Spanish culture and Roman Catholicism. They began by destroying thousands of Native American codices, such as the Mayan Popul Vuh, which recorded the creation myth, deities and customs of K'iche Mayans. They

raised Native American temples and built Christian cathedrals on their ruins. Well-versed in the techniques used by the Spanish Inquisition, Catholic priests used physical torture and psychological intimidation to forcibly convert millions of Aztecs, Mayans and Incas to Christianity.

Within a generation of conquest, many conquistadors married into Native American families who had lost members due to disease and warfare. For example, Hernan Cortes and his native translator Malinche (c. 1500-c. 1529) gave birth to a son, Martín Cortés el Mestizo (1522-1595), who later became a Spanish nobleman. Latin American society thus developed *castas* (or caste system). *Peninsulares*, Spanish-born whites, represented the large landholders, government officials and church leaders. Beneath them were the *creoles*, white Spaniards born in the colonies. *Creoles* were usually small-time ranchers, low-level government functionaries and friars who worked with Native Americans. *Mestizos*, those of European and Native American descent, traditionally performed as craftsmen, merchants and intermediaries. Full-blooded Native Americans (*Indios*), African Americans (*Negros*), and their children (*Zambos*) served as itinerant laborers, peasants, miners and enslaved people.



Artist: Ignote
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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El héroe español Fray Bartolomé de las Casas. Controversia de Valladolid bestial de españoles a los indios

Born into a family of Spanish merchants in 1484, Bartolome de Las Casas became a secular priest in 1507. He participated in the Spanish conquest of Cuba but became horrified by the brutal ways in which Spaniards treated the conquered Taino Indians. Following the publication of his *A Short Account of the Destruction of the Indies* (1542), de Las Casas argued in Valladolid, Spain, from 1550-1551, that

Native Americans had souls capable of salvation and thus could not be treated as enslaved people. The Spanish government reformed the *encomienda* system and created the *Juzgado General de Indios* (General Indian Court) to protect Native Americans from the worst abuse of the colonial rule. Full-blooded Native Americans and African Americans remained at the margins of Spanish colonial society.

By the mid-1500s, the wealth of Central and South America had made Spain the wealthiest nation in Europe. Spanish officials generally taxed wealth imported to Spain at a rate of 20%, which became known as the Quintano Real (literally “the king’s fifth”). In addition to gold, silver and gems looted from Native American temples and palaces, the silver mines of San Luis Potosi in Bolivia provided a steady stream of precious metals to Madrid. However, the cost of such mineral wealth came at the expense of millions of lives of enslaved Native Americans and Africans who died in the brutal extraction process common in the Potosi mines. Sugar, coffee and tobacco plantations in the Caribbean likewise provided incredible profits for landholders and Spanish officials but did so at the cost of millions of Taino and West African lives.

Beginning in 1503, a governmental committee known as the Casa de Contratación (House of Trade) controlled Spanish migration to the Americas. The Spanish Crown appointed Captain-Generals to invade, hold and administer new provinces, which would then be added to the empire. Beginning in the 1520s, the newly created Council of the Indies began to regulate colonial trade with the mother country and define the legal role of other colonies within the empire.

As Spanish conquistadors expanded into new territories, the Spanish crown converted such land into provinces and dispatched governors to run each region. By the 1600s, the provinces of Viceroyalty of Peru and Río de la Plata and the governorates of Cuba, New Castile, New Toledo and New Andalusia had been created. Within these provinces, some leading Aztec and Incan families were granted the title and rights of nobles in return for their compliance with the colonial hierarchy. Viceroy and royally appointed governors strictly controlled provinces from the top down, limited only by Audencias, committees of leading colonists and imperial officials, who oversaw the administration of the colonial judicial systems. Viceroy, in turn, appointed corregidores to collect taxes and settle disputes at the local level. Corregidores often worked with local Alcaldias (mayors) and town councils (cabildos) to keep the peace on the provincial frontiers.

From the 1500s to the 1700s, Spanish colonial governments remained deeply conservative. Dominated by large landholders, merchants, royal bureaucrats and church officials, colonial leaders became accustomed to

a certain amount of autonomy within the empire. When Philip V (1683-1746) of the House of Bourbon became the Spanish King in 1700, he began to streamline colonial governments and centralize royal authority under his leadership. Latin American elites bitterly resented what they considered an attempt to reign in their autonomy. By the late 1700s, Spanish revolutionary leaders like Simon Bolívar and José de San Martín became inspired by the Enlightenment philosophy of John Locke, Baron de Montesquieu and Jean Jacques Rousseau. Encouraged by the success of the American, French and Haitian revolutions, Spanish colonial leaders formed junta-style governments that declared their independence from Spain in the 1810s and 1820s. However, while Bolívar and San Martín promised liberal reforms to attract peasants to their cause, many of the newly freed countries of Latin America, such as Mexico, Colombia, Venezuela, Argentina and Bolivia, retained traditional political and social orders. Among other things, this created a political environment in which civil wars and coups became commonplace.

NATION BUILDING AND REFORM IN AFRICA 1700-1900

As Europeans became more interested in Africa, knowledge about the African continent and its people slowly spread to other parts of the world. Africans initially had minimal contact with Europeans, primarily in coastal areas. However, by the 1700s the Atlantic slave trade offered a new economic outlet opened for those African rulers and merchants who participated in the sale of human beings. While the Atlantic trade had a significant economic and political impact on West and Central Africans, other historical developments on the African continent were equally important.

Initially peripheral actors on the African continent, Europeans spread the commercial revolution along the Eastern and Western sides of the African continent. In the centuries leading up to the Atlantic age, the ancient empires Ghana, Mali and Songhay dominated West African history. Before the opening of the Atlantic trade, most polities in West Africa were economically oriented toward the trans-Saharan trading networks with links to the Middle East. It was initially the imports of American tobacco, peanuts, corn, cassava and new kinds of beans that helped drag West Africa into the commercial activities of the Atlantic world.

Later, imports of firearms in exchange for enslaved people changed the political tapestry of West Africa and strengthened coastal regions. Initially, the Portuguese engaged in the slave trade, soon followed by other nations such as the Dutch, English, French and Danes. As sugar and tobacco plantations began to develop in the New World the demand for labor increased. Trading companies, such as the English Royal African Company (RAC), started to build their trading monopolies along the West African coast. Initially focused on the gold trade, the RAC would dominate the English slave trade until its abolishment in 1807.

In the western part of Africa, after the fall of the Songhay empire in 1492, small and medium size kingdoms arose in the regions south of the Niger Bend and upstream along the Niger River. One of these kingdoms, the Mandingo kingdom of Segu, developed in the heartlands of the former Mali Empire. Its power rested on an army of enslaved people. North of Segu, in the Sahel region, the Soninke kingdom of Jaara dominated the area. In this part of West Africa, a mix of class and caste institutions controlled access to political authority and economic activities. To the east of the Niger Bend and north of the rainforest, the Mossi kingdoms, whose rulers used cavalry-based armies, started to arise in the 16th and 17th centuries. Juula merchants traded in the Mossi capital towns and connected the Mossi regions to the trans-Saharan and West African commercial networks. Further west in the Senegambia

region, along the Gambia and Senegal Rivers, the Jolof state and the kingdom of Kaabu dominated the area politically and economically. Their leaders became increasingly involved with Portuguese and later Dutch and British merchants.

In the 16th century, three states gained importance due to their strong ties to the Atlantic slave trade: Oyo, Asante, and Dahomey. Another important state in this region, the kingdom of Benin located in present-day Nigeria, although it participated in the slave trade it primarily focused on other forms of trade. During the 15th and 16th century, Benin experienced its most significant expansion. Such growth happened in the 15th century under the warrior kings Ewuare (c. 1440) and Ozolua (c. 1481) and in the 16th century under Esigie (1504), Orhogbua (c. 1550) and Ehengbuda (c. 1578-1608). The first contact with the Portuguese occurred in 1485, when Portuguese traders brought a cargo of guns and coconuts to Benin. Soon after, trade relationships were established between the king of Portugal and the Benin rulers, and commodities were exchanged. Over the ensuing decades ivory, cloth, pepper and other goods were exported to Benin in exchange for damask, silk, manillas and cowries.

While encounters with Europeans influenced the external politics of the Benin kingdom, Benin kings primarily dealt with the Igala kingdom, located to the east of the Niger-Benue confluence in the interior,



**Wood headrest
ornamented with
horse heads**

Artist: Tellem Artist, Mali,
11-14th century
Source: National Museum
of African Art
License: Public Domain



Head of an Oba

Artist: Unknown artist at court of Benin
Source: Metropolitan Museum of Art
License: Public Domain

as an intermediary. Portuguese missionaries brought Christianity to the Benin kingdom, and Oba Esigie's oldest son and various chiefs converted to Catholicism. Strengthened by their victory over the Igala kingdom and the diplomatic exchanges with the Portuguese, Benin's imperialist leaders now directed their efforts toward the coast, spreading as far as Lagos and Badagry and waging war against villages and towns along the way.

The 16th and early 17th centuries saw a period of relative stability and peace in the region. But a civil war broke out in the late 17th century. Conflicts over succession devastated the kingdom. Concerned over the sincerity of adoption and spread of Christianity, Pope Innocent XII (1615-1700) sent a Catholic mission to Benin to keep its rulers focused on spreading the faith. The mission determined that earlier efforts at Christianization had failed to take root as the churches had been converted to shrines and priests had returned to practicing African traditional religions.

While the 18th century remained relatively uneventful, increasing European pressure during the 19th century eventually placed the Benin kingdom under British jurisdiction. In 1892, the British signed a treaty with the Oba of Benin that also allowed for the opening of the kingdom to British missionaries and merchants. The Oba ignored the treaty and continued as usual. Sent to Benin in 1897, acting General consul James R. Philipps (1863-1897) tried to persuade the ruler to obey the treaty. Believing that the British planned to invade them, Benin soldiers killed Philipps about 25 miles outside the capital.

Consequently, a British punitive naval expedition arrived to establish British control. British troops occupied Benin City and looted houses, sacred sites, ceremonial buildings and the palaces of high-ranked chiefs and the Oba itself. The Oba and his eight wives fled into exile to Calabar while British officials hanged six chiefs in the Benin City marketplace. The looted artwork, which included a thousand metal plaques and sculptures known as the "Benin Bronzes," was carried to Britain. This looting triggered one of the most significant controversies in modern time over stolen African art and its repatriation to Africa.



Looted objects from the Benin Punitive Raid, 1897

Artist: Unknown
Source: Wikimedia Commons
License: Public Domain



Yoruba Bracelet

Artist: Yoruba artist, Owo
Nigeria, 16-18th century
Source: National Museum
of African Art
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In the rainforest west of the Niger River, the Oyo Empire rose to power dominating many of the Yoruba city-states who had tributary relationships to Oyo. The key to Oyo strength lay in its reliance on a strong cavalry consisting of horses supplied by their northern neighbors. The Oyo conducted many wars against other Yoruba city-states to gain prisoners of war which could be sold to merchants involved in the Atlantic slave trade. As the demand for slaves increased, the Oyo developed into a major slave trading empire trading enslaved people.

Dahomey was another West African state heavily involved in the Atlantic trade. Founded around 1620, Dahomey was initially a small kingdom. By the 1700s, Dahomey exercised an increasing amount of control over the trade with Europeans while at the same time restricting their access to the interior. The Oyo attack of 1730 eventually made Dahomey a tributary to the Oyo Empire for about 80 years. While this changed regional power dynamics, the Kings of Dahomey continued to rule over smaller chiefdoms. In the Dahomey Army all female regiments, known as Amazons, fought alongside their male counterparts.

West of Dahomey lay the Akan kingdoms which emerged in the early 17th century. In the early 18th century, political power shifted to the rising Asante kingdom. A confederation of small inland kingdoms

governed from the capital city of Kumasi, Asante became an important commercial hub for West African trading networks. Under the stewardship of Osei Tutu (1680-1718) and his successor Opuko Ware (1718-1748) the Asante Confederation was transformed into a powerful empire. Starting with Osei Tutu, all Asante rulers took the title of Asantehene and received religious legitimacy through the Golden Stool which was provided by priests during coronation ceremonies.

The empire became known for producing gold and kola nuts, rivaling the cotton textile and indigo trade of the Hausa city-states northeast of Kumasi in the Sahel region of West Africa. The Ashanti kingdom became heavily involved in the Atlantic slave trade selling prisoners of war down to the coast. It controlled territories to the north, such as the tributary Dagomba kingdom, and smaller Akan-speaking kingdoms to the south. One of the important imports both Dahomey and Asante made were European firearms which they acquired in exchange for slaves. By the 18th century both kingdoms could call upon about 10,000 soldiers armed with muskets while fielding armies upwards of 80,000 strong.

In the Sahel regions around Lake Chad the powerful, centuries-old kingdom Sultanate of Kanem-Bornu gained increasing influence. This influence reached



Weight for Measuring Gold Dust

Artist: Akan artist
Source: National Museum of African Art
License: Public Domain

west to the Hausa kingdoms as well as south and north of Lake Chad. In the second half of the 16th century Mai Idris Aloma (1564–1596), started to import firearms from north Africa and established diplomatic contacts with the Ottoman Empire whose troops had penetrated the Kanem-Bornu empire. The Hausa states had profited from their vicinity to the trans-Saharan trade and the savanna trading networks. Hausa traders travelled as far south to the coasts as well to the Asante areas, trading slaves, kola nuts, gold and ivory. Bornu became a center of Islamic teaching from which Islam spread to the Hausa city states.

In the early 19th century, the same region was shaken by military uprisings and Islamic Revolutions with the goal of reforming existing states that were ruled by nominal Muslims and dual practitioners of traditional African religions and Islam. These revolts were as much about Islamization and the establishment of a strict interpretation of Islam as they were about the quest for political domination and economic control. Some of the major ethnic groups involved in these reform movements were the Fulbe, who were mainly pastoralists but who had a more sedentary and learned elite.

The best-known Islamic reform movements in West Africa were those in the 18th and early 19th century in the highlands of Futa Toro and Futa Jalon located in modern-day Guinea. In the regions of the Hausa states, holy wars in the name of Islam were performed under the leadership of Uthman dan Fodio (1754–

1817), his family and followers. Born into a scholarly family, Uthman dan Fodio had become a famous Islamic preacher and scholar who advocated for a purist practice of Islam. The jihad or holy war was directed against the Hausa kings who, despite being Muslims, continued to practice traditional African religions. The jihad resulted in the establishment of the Sokoto Caliphate in 1804. An Islamic State based on Sharia Law, the economy of the Sokoto Caliphate was based on agriculture and to a great extent on slave plantations. This made the Caliphate one of the biggest slave states of the time, boasting more slaves than even the United States. As the Islamic state expanded many of the Hausa kings were either killed or fled into exile. The Sokoto Caliphate lasted about one hundred years until its final defeat to European powers in 1903.

In 1807, the British Empire abolished its slave trade but not slavery itself. The British Navy's "Anti-Slavery Squadron" began to patrol the West African coast, capture ships with slaves on board, and resettle their human cargos in Sierra Leone. The United States also banned the import of slaves in 1808. The British used its military and economic might to encourage other European powers to sign anti-slave trade treaties. Afterwards, the slave trade rested primarily in the hands of illegal traders who developed tactics to smuggle slaves around British naval patrols. Domestic slavery was not abolished in Britain's overseas colonies until 1834, in French colonies until 1848, in the United States until 1865, Cuba in 1886, and Brazil until 1888. More than 1.3 million Africans were still transported across the Atlantic between 1807–1888. Intellectual movements including the Enlightenment, the American War of Independence and the French Revolution had an impact on abolitionist thinkers and intellectuals. On the other hand, the demand for slaves in the New World had also started to decline in some regions. Modern machinery and overproduction made the importation of slaves in some of the sugar producing regions less profitable. In addition, Africans and people of African descent often rebelled against their masters making slave-based plantations less profitable and less productive.



One stringed fiddle, Nyanyeru (riti),
Fulbe, Mali, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau or
the Senegambia

Artist: Unknown
Source: Metropolitan Museum of Art
License: Public Domain

As Europeans slowly outlawed the slave trade and slavery, they transitioned to what became known as “legitimate commerce” in African products like groundnuts or palm oil which replaced the trade in slaves, as the African continent also became a destination for the import of cheap products from Europe. As public interest in the interior of Africa heightened, more geographical and anthropological studies were performed by European explorers. In addition, European traders backed by their respective governments became interested in controlling the African continent and maximizing profits.

Similarly, to West Africa, the western equatorial rainforest and the savannas to the south in what is today modern-day Angola became involved in the slave trade. As early as the 1500s, the Portuguese had started to circumvent the Kongo Empire in gaining control of the slave trade and had established Luanda as a major port city to which slaves captured in the interior were transported and then shipped across the Atlantic. In the 1600s, the Portuguese also established the coastal town of Benguela from which they secured slaves from the highland territories of the Ovimbundu kingdoms. In the 18th century, the merchants of the Ovimbundu kingdoms traveled as far as the Lunda kingdom but also to the areas of the upper Zambezi River to acquire goods and slaves.

The early 19th century also saw turbulence in southern Africa. The Nguni of the southeast described these as mfecane, the “crashing,” and the Sotho-Tswana referred to them as difaqane, the “scattering.” The mfecane emerged as conflict erupted between the emerging northern Nguni kingdoms over access to natural resources. Famine caused by a draught that lasted from 1802 until 1804 and intensified warfare between 1816-1819 rattled the region. In 1819, a minor chief named Shaka (c.1787-1828) consolidated the various Zulu groups into a single kingdom. He then expanded his borders from Tugela and Pongola into the Drakensberg foothills and started to demand tribute payments from the people between the Tugela and Umzimkulu Rivers. By the mid-1820s, he controlled most of the area of modern day KwaZulu Natal in South Africa. Shaka developed a centralized government in which the king wielded absolute control. In the newly conquered regions, petty chiefs answered directly to Shaka. In 1828, Shaka was assassinated by his half-brother Dingane (c. 1795-1840) who made himself king. While it took Shaka ten years to establish the Zulu kingdom, his half-brother took less than a decade to lose it.



In 1795, the British government seized control of South Africa from the Dutch East India Company. One of the consequences of the establishment of British settlements in the region was the annexation of Natal. Thousands of Dutch settlers known as Boers fled Natal for the Zulu dominated lowveld. The Boers killed 3,000 Zulus in several pitched battles before settling south of Tugela, creating the short-lived Republic of Natalia (1839-1843). Tied up by a civil war in which Chief Mpande (1848-1872) usurped his brother Dingane, the Zulu remained too divided to deal with the Boers. In 1879, British military invaded the Zulu kingdom, beginning the Anglo-Zulu war that resulted in a defeat of the Zulu people and the absorption of their area into the Colony of Natal which later became part of the Union of South Africa.

Lidded Vessel, North Nguni People,
South Africa, 19th century

Artist: Unknown
Source: Metropolitan Museum of Art
License: Public Domain

SUMMARY

The period of 1700-1900, provided momentous change for the world. Ground zero for the Enlightenment, Romanticism and the Industrial Revolution, Europe witnessed a series of revolutions that challenged the old feudal social order. While Britain and France tried to liberalize their political systems, Germany, Italy and Russia struggled to modernize and unify. Across the Atlantic, Spain, France and Britain established massive empires in the Americas. However, as they struggled to exterminate or incorporate indigenous peoples into their empires, they had to deal with increasingly rebellious colonists. Beginning with the American Revolution in the late 1700s, one by one the provinces of English, French and Spanish America threw off their colonial chains. Meanwhile, on the African continent, Central African kingdoms declined as West Africa became embroiled in the Atlantic slave trade. By the late 1800s, a Scramble for Africa left almost the entire continent in the hands of European occupiers. As the world approached the twentieth century, the unresolved issues of colonialism, imperialism and nationalism would set the stages for the outbreak of world war in 1914.

9

Managing Modernity in Asia 1700-1900



European Port in China Around 1805

Artist: Unknown
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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During the period 1700-1900, Western influence in Asia markedly increased. Western countries used advanced technology to gain and grow footholds throughout Asia. Asian countries had to deal with Western encroachment which threatened their economy and sovereignty. At first, most Asian countries reacted by severely restricting the ability of Europeans to operate. While this may have worked at first, Westerners used their advanced economies,

technology and arms to force open markets and Asian territories. Asian countries adapted to these threats in different ways. Some countries attempted to adopt Western education and political structure while others clung (as long as they could) to traditional ways of operating. Western influence and the reaction to the growing power of Europe and America helped to remake Asia and reorient global politics, power and trade.



Commissioner Lin Zexu

Artist: Unknown
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Although illegal, initially Chinese authorities did little to stop the opium trade as the scale and impact of opium were not widely known. By the 1830s, there was a growing acceptance that the opium trade had negative social and economic impacts, and this encouraged the Chinese state to attempt to stem the flow of opium into China.

In 1839, Chinese authorities empowered the trustworthy and ever-efficient Lin Zexu (1785-1850) to employ strict measures to end the opium trade. After learning how the drug had been smuggled into China, Zexu went on the offensive. Refusing to look the other way or take a bribe, Zexu seized and destroyed some 20,000 chests of opium.

Having little respect for Chinese sovereignty and egged on by British commercial interests, Britain went to war with China. Known as the First Opium War (1839-1842), the war demonstrated the superiority of British forces. While some Chinese units had firearms, others went into battle with knives, spears and swords. Such troops were little match for the professionalism and firepower of the British army.

The decisive moment for the British came in May 1842 when the gunboat HMS *Nemesis* led a team of seventy ships up the Yangzi River. The ability to take naval power inland and upstream gave the British a new advantage and demonstrated, once again, how far China had fallen behind Europe. Unable to resist this intrusion, the Chinese were forced to sue for peace.

The war officially ended with the signing of the Treaty of Nanjing in 1842. Known as part of a series of unequal treaties, the Treaty of Nanjing forced China to surrender territory and sign away some of its sovereignty. The Chinese ceded Hong Kong to Britain, opened additional ports to trade, and

In the 18th century, the Qing dynasty continued to consolidate and expand its power. To contain growing European power and influence, European traders were increasingly restricted to the Guangzhou waterfront while only being allowed to trade with licensed Chinese traders. Since the Chinese had little need or interest in European goods, traders had to pay in silver bullion rather than trade goods to acquire Chinese items, including porcelain, silk and tea.

European traders and trading companies, especially the British East Indian Company, felt disadvantaged by these restrictions and did not like having to spend currency to acquire goods. Unable to provide a product that the Chinese wanted to purchase at scale, they turned to opium, an addictive drug grown in India, as a solution. Soon silver flowed in the opposite direction as Chinese merchants were willing to use bullion to acquire opium to sell to an increasingly addicted populace.



granted British traders extraterritoriality, which meant they were not subject to Chinese laws and were basically outside the control of Chinese authorities. Other powers, including a host of European nations, Japan and the United States, forced their own unequal treaties onto China.

The opium wars and subsequent unequal treaties came at a time of significant instability in China. During the 19th century, the Chinese population increased by some 50 percent to nearly 480 million people. Differences in wealth, the lack of available lands, widespread poverty, and growing drug addiction made much of the Chinese population unhappy. This erupted in a series of disturbances and rebellions, the most important of which was the Taiping rebellion (1850-1864).

The origins of the rebellion lie in many of the frustrations and difficulties that the Chinese people faced, coupled with dissatisfaction with the Manchu rulers, who continued to be viewed as unwanted foreigners. The spark, however, would be the rebellion's future leader Hong Xiuquan (1814-1864). An untraditional thinker, Xiuquan rejected Chinese socio-religious systems, creating his own form of Christianity, one in which he proclaimed himself to be the younger brother of Jesus.

Commissioner Lin and the Destruction of the Opium in 1839

Artist: Unknown
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Hong Xiuquan

Artist: Unknown
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Xiuquan's story begins with his difficulties with the civil services examinations. After failing the imperial exam for the third time, Xiuquan experienced a breakdown and was delirious for days. He had vivid dreams about a heavenly family and father. In these dreams, Xiuquan was commanded to alter his ways. After failing the imperial examinations for the fourth time (only a tiny minority passed), Xiuquan became interested in Christianity and came to interpret his early visions as being part of a Christian religious experience.

Xiuquan began to study and preach. He found followers in the disenfranchised Chinese peasantry who were drawn to his vision of a better future. Centered on Taiping, Xiuquan called for the end of private property, advocated the separation of the sexes into separate civil, military and social units, and forbade prostitution and drug use while imploring all loyal Chinese to join him in his quest to remake China.

After defeating a detachment of the Qing army in 1850, Xiuquan declared himself the Heavenly King of the Heavenly Kingdom of Peace. A series of military victories saw Xiuquan and his supporters gain control of Nanjing which in 1853 became the capital of the Taiping Kingdom.

More and more people joined the movement, and this increased the threat of Xiuquan to the Chinese state. In 1855, the Taipings almost took Beijing. With their backs to the wall, the Qings accepted a series of reforms, including allowing for the creation of regional armies free of Manchu control. This allowed for the mobilization of more troops. As the war turned against the Taiping, Xiuquan could not handle the pressure nor the reality of defeat and increasingly withdrew from society. In 1864, he died from illness, poison or suicide.

The Taiping rebellion was crushed. But its legacy is an important one. The lessons learned by the government were not that they needed to fix the problems



A Scene of the Taiping Rebellion

Artist: Wu Youru
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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plaguing the Chinese state, but that revolution and disorder came out of massive societal change. Many argued that it was better to stick to traditional ways and methods even if these seemed unlikely to solve the problems facing China internally and externally. Others argued for a more limited form of reform that might industrialize China without changing the underlying structure.

This approach to reform can best be seen in the self-strengthening movement (1860-1895). The self-strengthening movement sought to place Western industrial technology on top of a base of traditional Chinese society. Although the movement achieved some gains, it was limited by the lack of commitment to genuinely altering the Chinese state or its society. Industrialization brought tremendous change to Europe, and Chinese authorities feared that European technology would undermine Chinese values, traditions and their positions as well. This had a tremendous impact on China. By the late

19th century, China suffered further setbacks as foreign powers began to carve up its empire. China ceded Vietnam to France; Japan got Taiwan; China lost control of Burma and had to recognize the independence of Korea.

The disintegration of the Chinese state led to the outbreak of the Boxer Rebellion in 1899. To rid China of “foreign devils” and their dangerous ideas, the Boxers targeted foreigners, Chinese people suspected of being sympathetic to foreigners, and Chinese Christians. The Boxer Rebellion was crushed by a combined force of British, Russian, French, German, U.S. and Japanese forces. The Qing state limped on until 1912 when the last Qing emperor abdicated the throne. As China entered the 20th century, its relative power to Europe and its nearest rival, Japan, had dramatically diminished. As the new century dawned, Chinese leaders acknowledged that in order to catch up, they would have to accept meaningful social and political change.

JAPAN

Japan faced similar challenges as China. Until the mid-19th century, Japan was ruled by the Tokugawa Shogunate, a conservative ruling elite focused on maintaining power rather than improving the country. Fearful of outside influences, the government had largely excluded foreigners and foreign ideas. The result was that Japan under the Tokugawas had fallen behind.

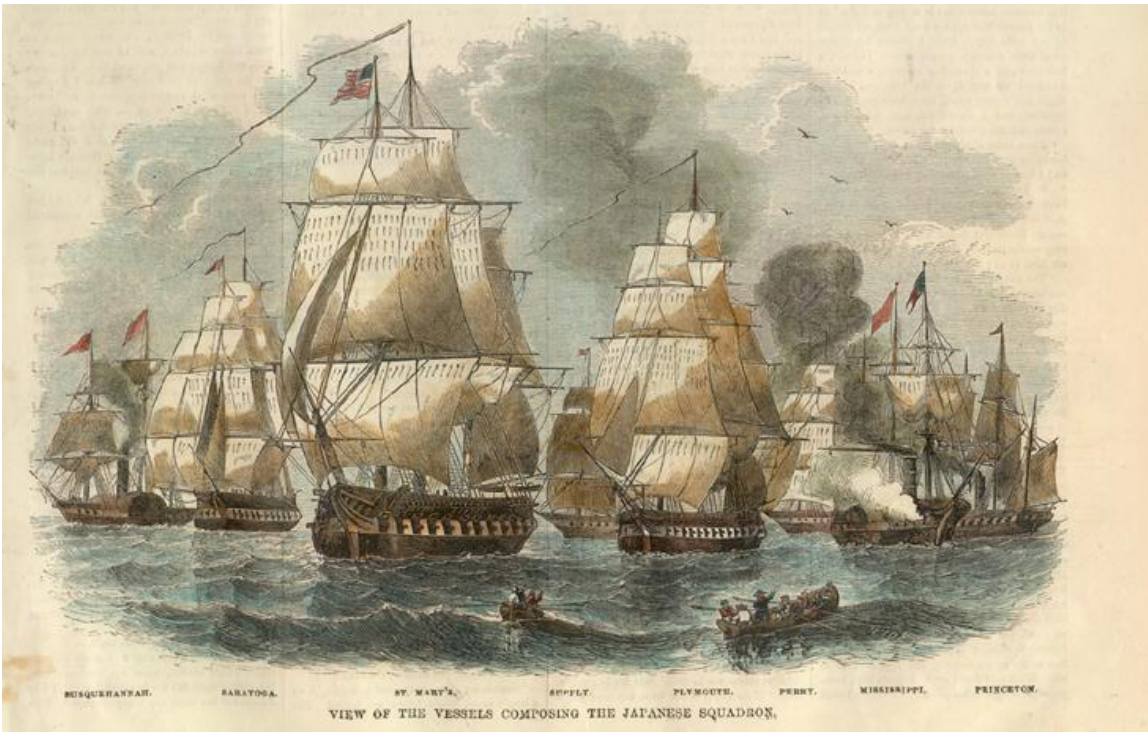
The Tokugawa Shogunate found itself increasingly under pressure during the 19th century. Declining crop yields, famines and even starvation created widespread dissatisfaction. Externally, foreign powers wanted access to Japan. Although the Tokugawas refused to open up Japan to foreign traders and ships (except for the Dutch, which had a small and highly regulated presence in Nagasaki), it was becoming clear that the Tokugawas lacked the military and naval power to resist such encroachment.

The turning point came in 1853 when a U.S. naval squadron led by Commodore Matthew Perry (1794-1858) entered Tokyo Bay. Perry turned his guns on the capital of Edo (now Tokyo) and demanded that the shogun open up Japan to American trade and diplomacy. Unable to find a solution to the naval

threat, the shogun eventually gave in when Perry returned the following year. European powers demanded and were granted similar trading and diplomatic privileges. Similar to China, Japan had been forced to sign unequal treaties which threatened Japan's independence and economy.

In response to these treaties, some groups began to advocate for a new government centered around the emperor. Although the imperial court in Kyoto had long been relegated to a ceremonial rather than administrative or executive role, its gardens, halls and buildings started to be filled with groups that hoped a new government led by the emperor might better deal with the foreign threat.

A civil war broke out between those loyal to the shogunate and those wishing to see the emperor restored. Eventually, the forces dedicated to restoring the emperor proved decisive. This ended more than 250 years of Tokugawa rule. Known by the regnal name Meiji (1852-1912), the new emperor came to the throne on January 3, 1868, signifying what would become a new era in Japanese history.



Commodore Perry's Second Fleet

Artist: Unknown
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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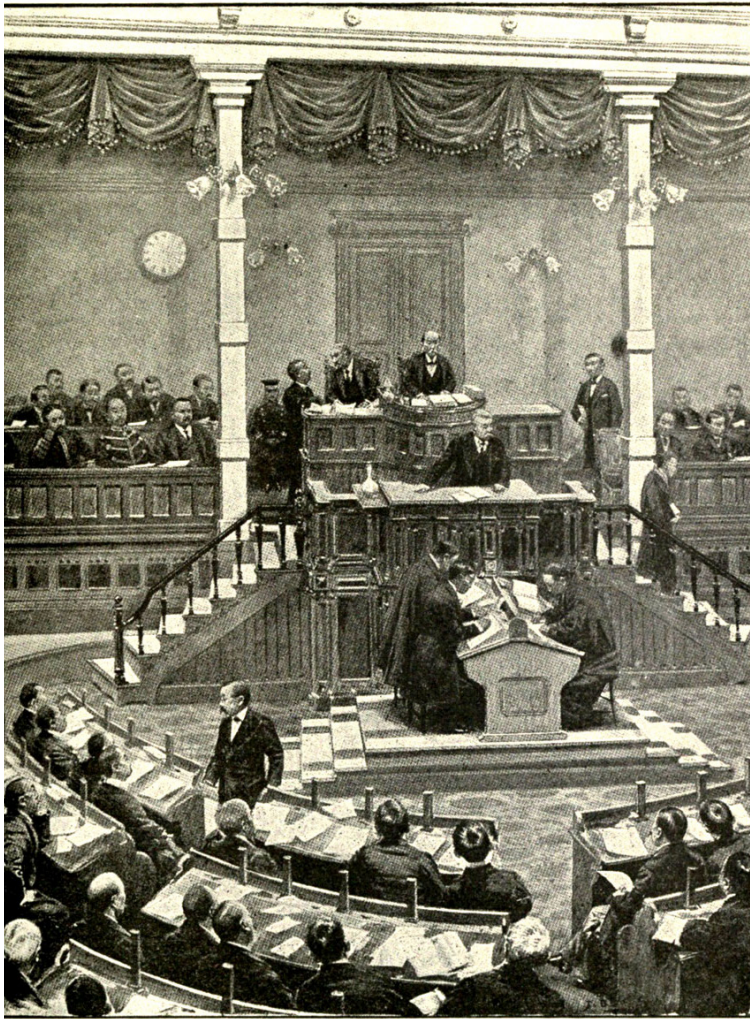
MEIJI RESTORATION

The Meiji Restoration (January 3, 1868) is named after Emperor Meiji, considered the 122nd Emperor of Japan. The Restoration and his reign led to rapid modernization, which swept away much of Japan's feudal and isolationist policies transforming the country into an industrialized power. Before the Restoration, the shoguns ruled, and it was in their interest to keep the emperor isolated in his palaces and ignorant of contemporary events. Emperors and their family rarely left their palaces and often died prematurely. All five of Emperor Meiji's siblings died as infants, and only five of his 15 children survived into adulthood. Having contracted smallpox, his own father died at 36. While the rapid modernization of Japan is indisputable, historians still debate the degree to which Emperor Meiji supported reform, with some claiming he had almost no role, with others painting him as an active participant in the process. Whatever the case, Emperor Meiji has been, and will likely continue to be, closely associated with the rapid modernization of Japan.



Mutsuhito the Meiji Emperor 1873

Artist: Uchida Kuichi
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Japanese Parliament in Session

Artist: Unknown
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was transferred away from the nobles and large landholders to those who tilled the soil. In return for private ownership of the land, farmers paid an annual tax on the value of their land. This created a reliable and stable tax base. This was not all positive, as those who could not meet the tax obligation were pushed off their land and forced to find employment in the city as part of the growing number of factory workers.

The Meiji government also pursued a policy of industrialization. Personal profit and the sanctity of capital were not the guiding principles but rather whether the industry served the state. With this perspective, the Meiji government might favor one company over another or force a weaker, less productive company to merge with a stronger, better organized one or even to shutter its doors. This approach worked, and at the dawn of the 20th century, Japan had a strong industrial economy.

Japan looked to the West for inspiration and technical and educational know-how. European officers, mainly from Germany, were employed to help Japan develop a modern army based on meritocracy and universal conscription. The Japanese armed forces were quickly modernized with the ultimate goal of being able to compete with European and American forces. Inspired by the American educational system, the Meiji government instituted universal education. With an emphasis on technical training, the Japanese government sponsored a series of programs encouraging bright students to study abroad while inviting leading European and American scholars to teach in Japan. These schools and opportunities were open to women as well. Emphasizing duty, service and loyalty as the ultimate virtues of education, the state downplayed the individualism which might be gleaned from an American education.

The Meiji Restoration gave birth to a period of reform. Realizing how far Japan had fallen behind, both progressive and conservative forces in Japan were more willing to learn and adopt ideas from Europe and America. The period of reform brought many changes, including the ending of many of the hereditary ranks, privileges and relationships that had defined feudal Japan.

The Meijis wanted their political system to emulate the West. A constitutional committee travelled to several Western countries to study European and American political systems. This created much debate over which version of Western democracy best suited Japan. The Meiji settled on the Bismarckian example, which, although it had a parliament, placed ultimate authority in the executive branch. The result was a system that, although it looked like and acted like a democracy, was in practice still highly authoritarian.

Reformers understood that success ultimately rested with reforming and modernizing the state and the economy. To stimulate production, land



Hoheikosho at
Koishikawa Arsenal,
circa 1920

Artist: Unknown
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The mingling of culture with the West allowed Western fashions, arts and preoccupations to become popular in Japan. American leisure activities, including ballroom dancing, music and American sports became increasingly popular, especially among Japanese youth. Today, we see the results of this development, including the popularity of baseball in Japan.

One of the repercussions of the Meiji Restoration was that Japan became more imperialistic in its outlook. In 1894, Japan and China went to war largely over Korea in what is known as the First Sino-Chinese

War (1894-1895). The war allowed both sides to test its modernizing efforts. The Japanese proved victorious and forced China to accept Korean independence and cede the Liaodong peninsula and Taiwan to Japan. China also had to open three ports to Japan and pay a large indemnity in silver. The First Sino-Chinese War proved that Japan's modernizing efforts had worked and suggested that the Chinese approach to modernization had failed. Although forced by Western powers to return the Liaodong peninsula shortly thereafter, the Japanese ended the 20th century much stronger than at the beginning of the 19th century.



Signing of the Treaty of Shimonoseki

Artist: Kubota Beisen
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KOREA

The period 1700-1900 was a time of tremendous change for Korea. Since the second century BCE, China militarily, economically and culturally dominated Korea, forcing Korean monarchs to pay tribute to Beijing. In 1392, Yi Seong-gye (1335-1408) overthrew the ruling Goryeo family to create the Joseon Dynasty. His descendant Sejong (the Great, 1397-1458) reformed the Korean government, civil service and legal system along Confucian lines. He also used Chinese characters to create the first written Korean alphabet, “hangul.”

Donghak Founder Choe Je-u

Artist: Unknown
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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King Taejo of Joseon

Artist: Kobayashi Kiyochika
Inoue Kichijirō
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Beset by both Japanese and Chinese invasions in the 1620s and 1630s, Koreans followed a policy of strict isolation, earning the nickname of the “Hermit Kingdom.” However, Korea continued to trade with China, importing not merely goods but also Buddhist, Confucian and Western texts on religion, science and history. Many of these works were Chinese translations of books introduced by Catholic Priest Matteo Ricci (1552-1610) into China in the mid-1500s. In the early 1700s, King Yeongjo (1694-1776) and his grandson, King Jeongjo (1752-1800), initiated a period of reform that streamlined the tax system, modernized the military and promoted the creation of schools, universities and a national library. The advent of movable type printing presses helped create a flourishing print culture in Korea. During this period, the leaders of the Silhak movement demanded that schools begin to teach Western science instead of Confucian classics. Influenced by Catholic missionaries, many Silhak leaders also became attracted to the egalitarian aspects of Christianity. Starting in 1784 diplomat, Yi Sung-hun (1756-1801) established a grassroots Catholic movement focused on conversion and especially baptism throughout Korea.



Battle of the Yellow Sea

Artist: Kobayashi Kiyochika Inoue Kichijirō
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EXTERNAL PRESSURES

From 1839-1842 China and Great Britain fought the First Opium War. Japanese and Korean leaders watched in horror as British forces defeated China's woefully antiquated military. Western diplomats then forced the Qing government to sign a series of unequal treaties which opened Chinese ports to Western trade. Worried by the growing popularity of Christianity among working-class Koreans and the Chinese defeats in the Second Opium War (1856-1860), aristocrat and scholar Choe Je-u (1824-1865) created a new religious belief system known as "Donghak" (or Eastern Learning) that drew from native Korean, Confucian, Buddhist and even Christian beliefs. Although Donghak proved very popular among the Korean masses, the royal government began to see it as a threat. In 1864, government officials executed Choe on charges of misleading the Korean people and promoting social chaos.

When Prince Gojong (1852-1919) became Korean Emperor at the age of 12 in 1864, his father, Heungseon

Daewongun (1820-1898) became acting regent. He strengthened the central government's power, implemented a series of merit-based civil servant exams and levied taxes against Confucian-run schools. During this time, Gojong's military forces beat back French (1866) and American (1871) expeditions that sought to open Korea by force. In 1873 Gojong's consort Queen Min (1851-1895) forced him into exile. Crowned Empress Myeongsong, Min continued to build up Korea's imperial government and military.

In 1882, Korea's government signed a treaty with the U.S. granting American merchants trading rights in Korea, granting American citizens in Korea the right of extraterritoriality, guaranteeing the rights of American missionaries to proselytize, and pledging mutual support for one another in the case of attack. American missionaries migrated to Korea in large numbers, founding schools and opposing traditional Korean practices such as polygamy and having concubines.



The Grand Mughal
of Delhi

Artist: Ágoston Schoefft
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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In 1894, Koreans who opposed the intrusion of Westerners into traditional Korean society launched the Donghak Rebellion (also called the Nongmin Jeonjaeng or Peasant War). Taking advantage of the confusion, Japan invaded Korea, causing China to intervene to defend its tributary state. The conflict resulted in a Japanese victory in what scholars later called the First Sino-Japanese War (1894-1895). The war, and subsequent peace treaty, resulted in Korea being opened up to Japanese trade and influence.

The Empress Myeongseong responded to growing Japanese influence by cultivating closer ties to Czarist Russia. The Japanese responded by attacking the royal palace and killing the empress in 1895. King Gojong fled to the protection of the Russian embassy in Seoul. In 1897 he proclaimed the creation of the Korean Empire with himself as emperor. Korea thus

began the period as a tributary state to China and ended it under the influence of Japan. In 1910, Japan officially annexed Korea.

MUGHALS

During the 18th and 19th centuries, the Mughal Empire confronted a series of challenges. The cost of ruling such a large empire had drained the treasury, and the Mughals no longer had the military power to defend all their territory. The rise of new groups, including the Sikhs, Rajput and the Maratha Confederacy, posed new challenges to the Mughal state. By mid-century, the Mughals had lost important territories to the three aforementioned groups, as well as suffering an invasion of Northern India led by Nadir Shah (Shah of Iran from 1736-1747) in

1739, the British victory in the Bengal at the Battle of Plassey (1757), and growing French encroachment in the Southeast.

After the Battle of Plassey, the British used their technological and military superiority to increase their presence in and control over India. The Mughals were a declining force and in 1857, had been defeated by the British. Bahadur Shah Zafar (r. 1837-1857) would be the last leader of the Mughal Empire, which had been established in 1526. The Government of India Act of 1858 transferred all East India Company land directly to the British Crown, establishing what is known as

the British Raj. In 1876, Queen Victoria (1819-1901) assumed the title as the Empress of India.

While the British attempted to reform India, average Indians, for the most part, gained little from British rule. British attempts at reform engendered oppressive taxes and under-investment. Colonialism and colonial rule sought to benefit the colonizer, and while colonial people could benefit, the aim was to strengthen the British Empire, most often to the detriment of colonized people. This inspired many Indians to join the movement for Indian independence, which developed in the late 19th century and gained increased momentum after the First World War.



Queen Victoria Wearing the Koh-i-Noor

Artist: Franz Xaver Winterhalter
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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KOH-I-NOOR DIAMOND

From the Persian meaning “Mountain of Light,” the Koh-I-Noor diamond is virtually unmatched in its beauty and size. A part of the British Crown Jewels, Queen Victoria acquired the diamond after the British conquered the Punjab during the Second Anglo-Sikh War (1848-1849). Displayed at the Great Exhibition, a massive international exhibition held in England in 1851, some felt that although the size of the diamond was undoubtedly impressive, its appearance, especially its shape was a disappointment. The following year, Prince Albert decided to have the diamond recut. The cutting took over a month, shaving some 80 carats off the diamond, reducing its size to 105.6 carats. After the upheaval and violence of 1857-1858, Queen Victoria (r. 1837-1901), became increasingly uncomfortable with Britain’s role in India and the diamond itself. Despite these concerns, Victoria continued to wear the diamond. In 1902, the diamond was added to the crown of Queen Consort Alexandra (1844-1925). The complicated chain of ownership, and how the British acquired it, means that many nations, including India, Pakistan, and Afghanistan, have claimed ownership over the diamond, and asked it be returned.

SUMMARY

This chapter has identified the challenges of creating an efficient and industrialized state. It demonstrated how various nations had to confront both external and internal challenges. While some nations responded to these threats and successfully modernized, others did not. Modernization along Western lines was a difficult and risky undertaking as it threatened to fundamentally alter a state, undermining both traditional social relations and the ruling elite.

10

The Second Wave of Imperialism 1700-1900



Victoria (today Limbé) Cameroon
German Colonial Presence in Camerron

Artist: Rudolf Hellgrewe (1860-1935)
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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During the 18th and early 19th centuries, European nations began a massive wave of expansion. Armed with modern technology such as muzzle and breach loading rifles, cannons and artillery, steamboats and railroads, and modern methods of bureaucracy and medical care, Britain, France, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands and Belgium began to acquire colonies in Africa, Asia and Oceania. Although primarily seeking raw resources and cheap labor to sustain their economies back home, European nations cloaked their greed with the rationale that they were

spreading the benefits of modernity to indigenous peoples around the world. Although colonialism did raise the standards of living for some conquered peoples who worked in the military or civil service of various colonial regimes, for most Africans and Asians colonialism offered little improvement and further separated them from the systems of power while denying them the ability to govern their lives as they so wished. This chapter examines the rise of imperialism throughout the world and the response of indigenous peoples to this challenge.

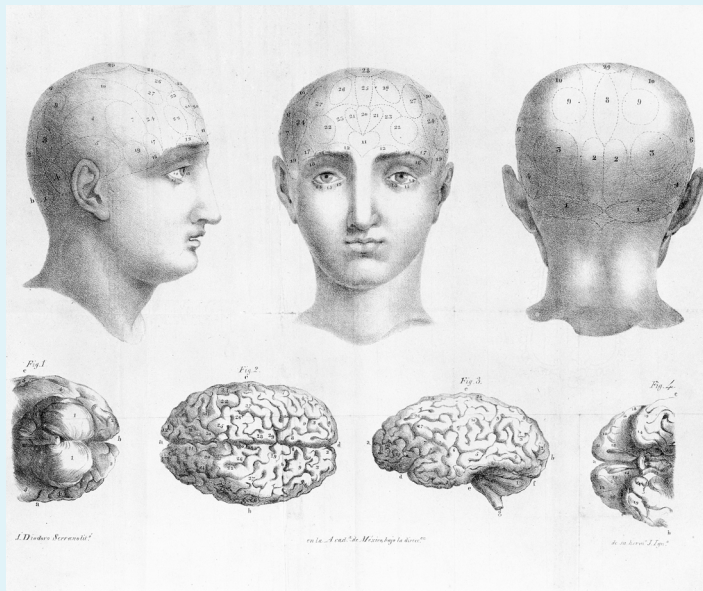
SCIENTIFIC RACISM

Popular from the late 18th through the early 20th centuries, scientific racism used pseudo-science to assert that certain groups or “races” of people were biologically and culturally superior to others. In the mid-1700s, Enlightenment thinkers argued that human beings were primarily rational and capable of using science and education to improve their lives and the well-being of their societies. This desire to “rationalize” the world was exported as European Empires covered the globe.

In 1735, Swedish botanist Carl Linnaeus (1707-1778) published his magnum opus *Systema Naturae*, which categorized by species over 10,000 plants and animals. Although describing humans as a species of primate originating in Africa, Linnaeus classified *homo sapiens* into four varieties—European, African, Asian and American Indian. He depicted white Europeans, such as himself, the most biologically and socially advanced group of humans. Although Linnaeus’s work influenced philosophers like Jean Jacques Rousseau, it also helped imperialists justify the exploitation of non-white peoples. Other intellectuals picked up on Linnaeus’s work with devastating results.

In the 1850s, Catholic Monk Gregor Johann Mendel (1822-1884) conducted experiments with peas at the monastery of St. Thomas in Moravia. Mendel selectively bred sure peas, noting that parents passed distinctive traits such as pod length, seed shape and flower color to their offspring. He accordingly calculated the laws of inheritance, including the concepts of dominant and recessive traits. His work paralleled that of British naturalist Charles Darwin (1809-1882) who, in his seminal work *On the Origin of Species* (1859), argued that through the process of “natural selection,” different species which compete with one another pass down to their descendants’ random mutations such as longer legs to run faster or camouflaged fur to hide better. In time, these individuals survived longer and had more children, creating entirely new species that would compete with the old species for resources. Thus, competition could lead to the extinction of the old species a process which Herbert Spencer (1820-1903) dubbed “survival of the fittest.”

In the 1880s, Spencer pioneered “Scientific Darwinism,” the belief that in the brutal world of international relations, some cultures, such as white European nations, were more adaptable and thus more deserving of survival than others. Spencer thus provided a pseudo-scientific veneer for not just imperialism and colonialism but also



Phrenology, 1835

Artist: José Ramón Pacheco
Source: Wellcome Collection
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In the early 1800s, German doctor Franz Joseph Gall developed the field of phrenology, the belief that the size and shape of the human cranium determined the mental capacity of different ethnicities. Throughout the 19th century, phrenologists like Charlotte Fowler Wells (1814-1901) with her husband, two brothers, and sister-in-law, toured the United States and Europe. Phrenologists were active in popular science texts and helped to create their own professional journals that popularized their “findings.” The “science” of phrenology and the journals that published their work attempted to provide justification for the enslavement of African Americans and the dispossession and control over Native Americans and their land based on the size and shape of human craniums. Phrenologists often intentionally selected the skulls of children or smaller-than-average individuals to artificially buttress their claims.

laissez-faire capitalism. He believed that the cutthroat business world of the late 1800s mirrored the natural world. Therefore, nations or empires that prospered at the expense of their weaker neighbors were merely following the “law of the jungle.” Scientific Darwinism influenced businesspeople like Andrew Carnegie (1835-1919), writers like Rudyard Kipling (1865-1936), and even politicians like Theodore Roosevelt (1858-1919).

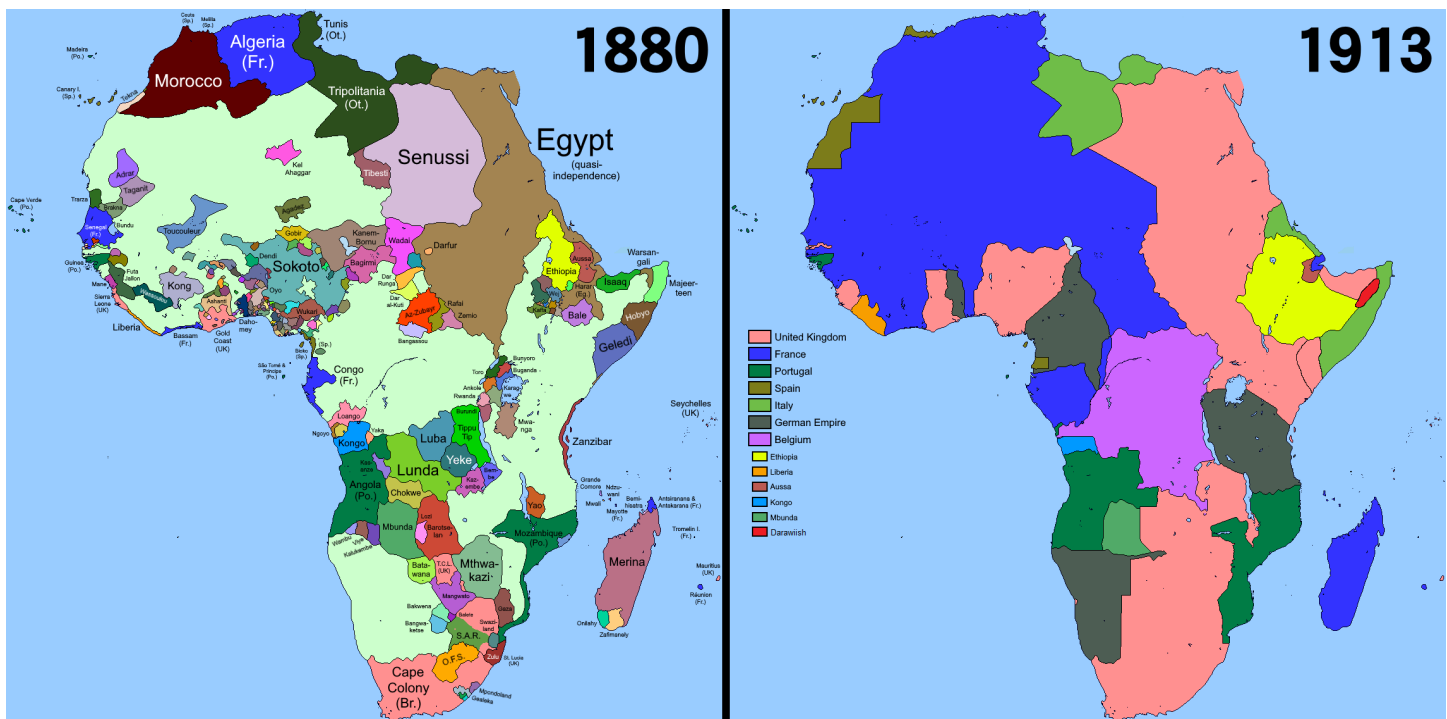
In 1883, Charles Darwin’s cousin Francis Galton (1822-1911) coined the term “eugenics.” This represented the belief that humanity could be improved through selective breeding. American zoologist Charles Davenport (1866-1944) founded the International Federation of Eugenics Organizations in 1925, which sought to maintain white racial purity by warning against “intermingling” with other non-white groups. Davenport helped influence the creation of strict immigration laws which favored white asylum seekers from European countries over individuals of African, Asian or Latin American descent. Even progressive social workers like Margaret Sanger (1879-1966) argued that those unable to afford children should use contraceptives or agree to sterilization so as not to create a drain on charitable and social services.

In the 1920s and 1930s, fascists like Adolph Hitler (1889-1945) and his followers used scientific racism

to justify his Lebensraum policy. In Nazi ideology, the biologically and culturally superior Aryan Germans had a natural right to dispossess and murder millions of Jews, Slavs and other “undesirables” to build a greater Germany across Europe. Although the uncovering of the Holocaust in the later stages of World War II discredited scientific racism throughout the world, the concept continued to exist in reduced forms down to the present.

SCRAMBLE FOR AFRICA

The “scramble for Africa” (1880-1914) demonstrates how imperialism came to define the relationship between Europeans and the rest of the world. As European nations industrialized, business and political leaders actively searched for raw materials and more markets in which to sell their nations’ manufactured goods. Increased competition and a desire to control and profit from territorial acquisition encouraged European powers to cast their eyes toward Africa. When the so-called “scramble for Africa” began in the 1880s, Europeans controlled about 20 percent of Africa. By 1914, they occupied nearly the whole of the African continent.



Map of Growing European Control over Africa 1880-1913 / Scramble for Africa

Artist: User “Somebody500”
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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The Rhodes Colossus:
Caricature of Cecil
John Rhodes

Artist: Edward Linley
Sambourne
Source: Wikimedia
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Illustrated by the English cartoonist Edward Linley Sambourne (1844-1910), “The Rhodes Colossus” represents European plans for Africa. A play on words, the image mimics the famous Colossus of Rhodes (one of the seven wonders of the ancient world) by depicting Cecil Rhodes (1853-1902) holding a telegraph line signifying his desire to have a rail and telegraph line from “Cape to Cairo” to better control and profit from the British presence in Africa. Here Cecil Rhodes is depicted as an almost unstoppable giant who looms over the whole continent. The image speaks to British power and the imperialists’ desire to rule and control Africa for their benefit. At the time of the publication, Cecil Rhodes served as prime minister of Cape Colony (part of what would later become South Africa) and had been a founding member of De Beers Consolidated Mines. This image became widely reprinted and is closely associated with the “scramble for Africa” and British imperialism.

To avoid direct conflict over Africa, European leaders agreed at the Berlin Conference (1884-1885) to develop a set of formal rules for controlling African territories. The conference established the concept of “effective occupation,” meaning that a European nation could only gain recognized colonial control over an African domain if it had established treaties with local leaders and begun developing it economically. European powers also had to promise to promote Christianity and commerce, bring European civilization to Africa and suppress the slave trade. While Europeans sat in Berlin discussing the fate of Africa, not a single African person was consulted or invited to the conference.

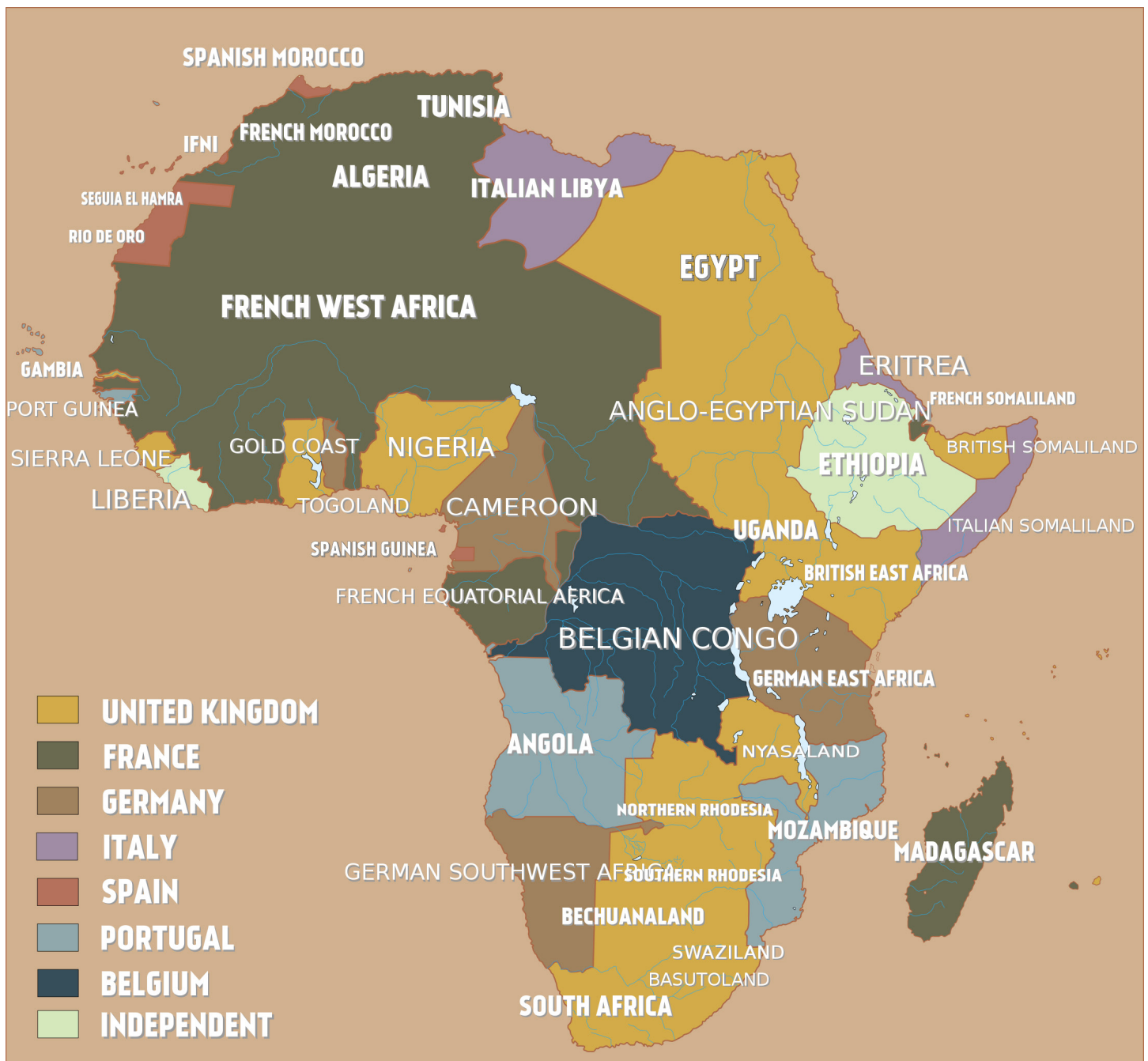
BELGIAN CONGO

Anticipating new rules about acquiring territory in Africa, King Leopold II of Belgium (1835-1909) employed a variety of methods to make it appear as if Belgium had long and substantial ties with Central Africa. His plans worked, for at the Berlin Conference, Leopold was recognized as the head of what would be referred to as the Congo Free State. Leopold had succeeded; he was no longer just a king but an emperor.



**King Leopold II of
Belgium as Garter
Knight**

Artist: Unknown
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Colonial Africa 1913, pre World War I

Artist: User "Whiplashoo21"
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Leopold II's Congo Free State was rife with violence. With the Congo Free State now in hand, Leopold and his agents were desperate to extract wealth. European companies were allowed nearly free reign and, to maximize profit, employed a host of oppressive and violent tactics to appropriate land and coerce labor.

Belgian efforts to extract profits from the Congo Free State initially centered around ivory elephant tusks. Demand for ivory was high and European companies, without any thought as to the lives of African elephants or the sustainability of the trade, harvested ivory

at an astounding rate. Due to their brutal and indiscriminate killing of elephants, European hunters and merchants had, by the mid-1890s, virtually wiped out their source of profits. Leopold had mismanaged his colony and exploited, mistreated and abused the indigenous Congolese.

However, Leopold would be granted a second chance to glean profits from his colony. Scottish-born John Boyd Dunlop's (1840-1921) development of the pneumatic tire led to an increased demand for rubber, which came from the sap of a tree that grew readily in the Congo.

Having learned nothing from his previous efforts, Leopold once again allowed European companies free reign to harvest rubber plants in the Congo. These companies gave little consideration to the people harvesting the crop. To increase profit and production, company officials and their security forces began cutting off the hands and feet of Africans to intimidate them into working faster. Journalist Edmund Morel (1873-1924) would learn and later expose the truth of what was happening in the colony. In response to international pressure, Leopold II handed over his private colony to the Belgian state in 1908.

Nonetheless, the damage had been done. Belgium reaped tremendous wealth while destroying much of the Congo's ecology and economy. This was a far cry from their stated mission of bringing Christianity and free commerce to Africa. Once again, European participation in Africa had caused tremendous harm to Africa and African people.

AFRICAN RESISTANCE TO EUROPEAN IMPERIALISM

In the late 1800s, many European nations rushed to take part in the “scramble for Africa.” Great Britain led the way, controlling Egypt, Sudan, Kenya and South Africa. France established French West Africa, which included Mauritania, Senegal, Mali, Ivory Coast, Dahomey and Nigeria, and French Equatorial Africa, which consisted of Chad, Gabon and parts of the Congo. Germany maintained colonies in Burundi, Tanzania and Rwanda. Even tiny Belgium's ruler King Leopold held a large part of the Congo river valley as his personal fiefdom. Although European powers brought technology and modernization to Africa, they did so with the intention of extracting wealth from the continent. Millions of Africans faced ritualized degradation and exploitation at the hands of Europeans. Over time, many Africans found a variety of ways to not only carry out meaningful lives under foreign rule but actively resist colonial powers.

The First Italo-Ethiopian War of 1895-1896 represented an important example of successful African resistance to European imperialism. Following the unification of Italy in 1871, Italian leaders sought to gain overseas colonies to provide raw resources for Italy's growing industrial sector, find new lands for poor Italians to settle, and gain the prestige that came from being a colonial power. In 1889, Italy and Ethiopia signed the Treaty of Wuchale by which the Ethiopian Emperor Menelik II (1844-1913) acceded to Italy's demands to occupy the province of Eritrea in return for Italian and British recognition of his regime. Deliberately writing different versions of the treaty in Italian and Amharic (one of the major languages of wider communication in Ethiopia), Italian diplomats claimed that Ethiopia had agreed to become an Italian protectorate. When Menelik II repudiated the treaty, Italian troops invaded in 1895. Aided by Empress Tatyu Betal (1851-1918), Menelik raised a 100,000-man army that included all the ethnic and religious minorities of Ethiopia. This powerful army won a significant victory over Italian forces at the Battle of Adwa in March 1896. In the Treaty of Addis Ababa (1896), Italy recognized Ethiopia's independence.



IN THE RUBBER COILS.

SCENE—The Congo “Free” State.

Congolese Worker Being Strangled By Rubber Coils

Artist: Edward Linley Sambourne

Source: Wikimedia Commons

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Menelik II Taitu Old

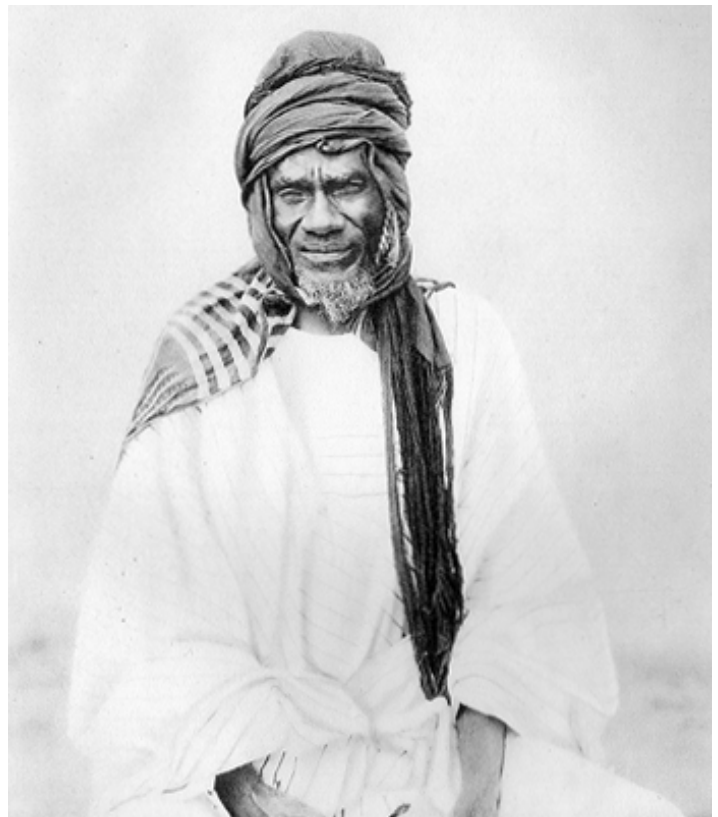
Artist: Unknown
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The son of the Negus (King) Haile Meleket (1824-1855) and a palace servant named Ejigayehu Lemma Adyamo, Menelik was captured by the Ethiopian Emperor Tewodros II (1818-1868) and married to his daughter Altash. Following Tewodros's suicide in 1868, Menelik slowly built up allies among Ethiopia's different ethnic groups and European powers such as the French and Italians. In 1883, he married his third wife, Taytu Betul. A member of the ruling family of Semien Province, Tatyu's dynastic marriage to Menelik helped him solidify his claim as Ethiopian emperor in 1889. Together they founded the capital of Addis Ababa (New Flower) on the site of her imperial home. During the First Italo-Ethiopian War, Menelik and Tatyu worked tirelessly to rally the people of Ethiopia to resist the invading Italian forces. Following the war, the imperial couple helped to introduce post offices, electricity, motor cars and railroads to Ethiopia. Menelik died in 1909, Tatyu passed away four years later.

In addition to Menelik and Tatyu, Samori Ture (1828-1900) led a spirited resistance to European imperialism in West Africa. Born into the Mandika of Guinea in the 1830s, Samori created a coalition of Muslim groups that conquered parts of Mali, Senegal and the Ivory Coast to create the Wassoulou Empire in the 1860s. Although a skilled warrior, Samori lacked modern European-style artillery. He accordingly signed a treaty with the French Empire, giving up some land in return for a non-aggression pact. However, constant violations of the treaty by French colonial forces led to the outbreak of war in 1892. Adopting a "scorched earth" policy, Samori fled eastwards with his entire population. Although captured by the French six years later, Samori still remains one of the most revered anti-imperialist leaders in African history.

Almamy Samory Touré

Artist: Unknown
Source: Wikimemias Commons
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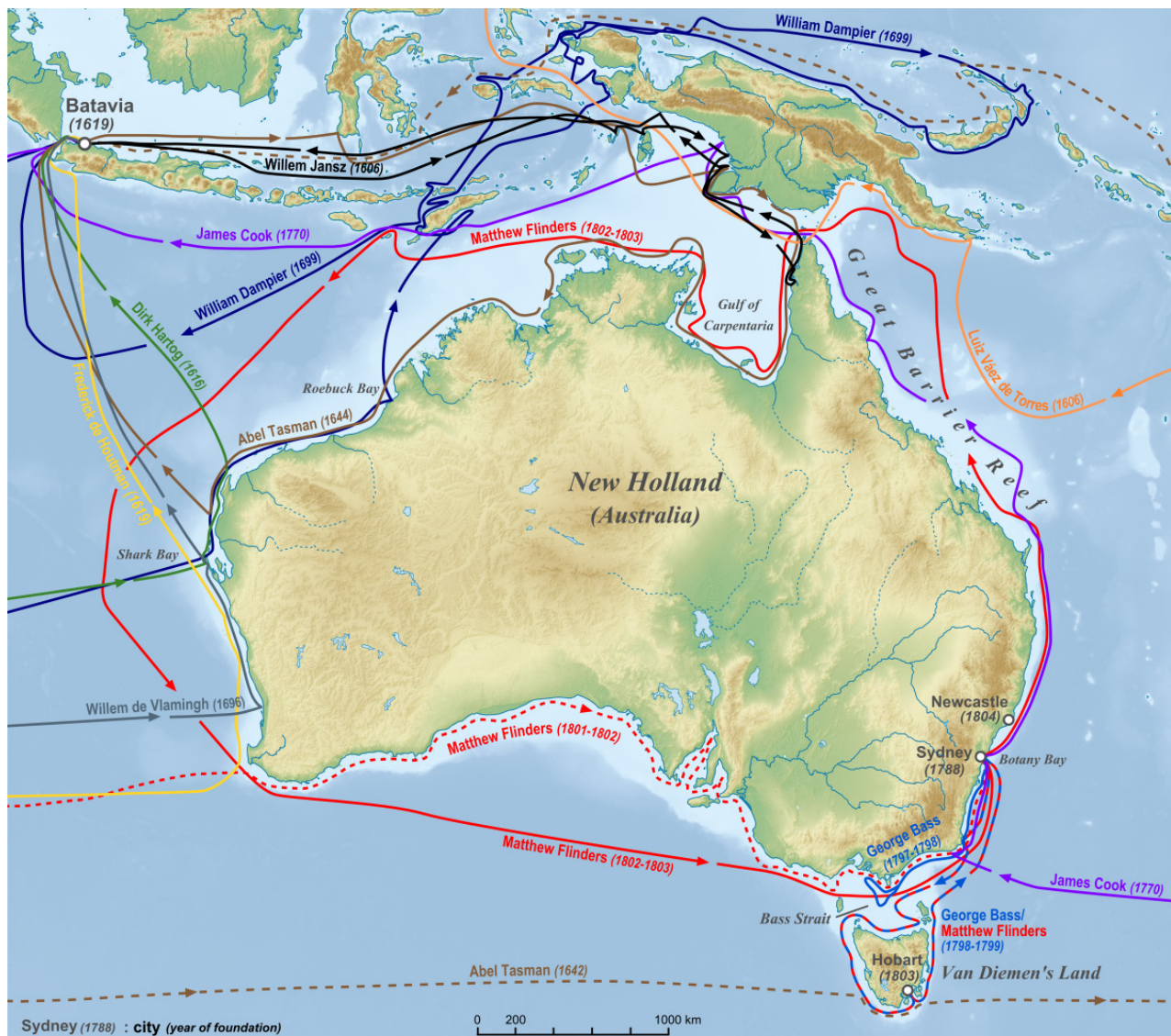


While Samori fought the French in Guinea, a Matumbi-born Muslim prophet named Kinjikitile “Bokero” Ngwale (d. 1905) led the Maji Maji Rebellion against the German colonial government of Tanganyika. Urging his followers to put aside their ethnic differences, Bokero insisted that the “holy water” or maji he gave them would stop German bullets. Although executed by German officials in 1905, his followers held out against German forces for another two years. Over 100,000 died in the uprising.

AUSTRALIA AND NEW ZEALAND

Europeans also expanded into Asia. Most British travellers who settled in the Pacific went to either Australia or New Zealand. First explored by Captain James Cook

(1728-1779) in the late 1760s and 1770s, Australia began as a penal colony in 1787. By the time the British government stopped shipping convicts to Australia in 1869, over 160,000 prisoners had been deported to the colony. By the late 1800s, Europeans began voluntarily migrating to Australia in larger numbers. They came mostly to farm or herd sheep. Boasting an impressive export economy, Australia attracted foreign investors and their capital. To encourage migration and the growth of trade, immigrants were offered free passage and free land. The discovery of gold in Victoria in 1851 also accelerated migration. When Cook first came to Australia, he encountered indigenous people who lived by hunting and gathering. As sheep farmers began to settle the outback, they pushed aborigines out of their traditional hunting grounds. Violence and disease would act in tandem to reduce the Aboriginal population and dispossess them of their land.



Map of European Exploration of Australia Before 1813

Artist: User “Lencer”
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New Zealand developed along a different path. Resistance from the Māori people made settlement more difficult for Europeans, many of whom chose to relocate to Australia. Australia and New Zealand gained responsible government over the 19th century as the British parliament allowed the larger European-dominated colonies within its empire more control over local affairs. The politics of these places, then and now, were heavily influenced by British traditions. Even today, Australia and New Zealand are a part of the British Commonwealth and remain constitutional monarchies.

MIDDLE EAST

In the Islamic regions of the Middle East, the 17th and 18th centuries constituted periods of reform and change as well as losses of influence and power. The quest to control the Mediterranean was aided by a European victory at the battle of Lepanto in 1571. Despite its defeat, the Ottoman Empire remained a potent force in the Middle East, North Africa and the Balkans. Subsequently, the Ottomans took over Tunis from the Spanish Habsburg Empire in 1574, Fez from the Portuguese in 1578 and Crete and Venice in 1669. Murad III (1574-1595) also conquered parts of the Caucasus and Azerbaijan in 1576. Wars in the 17th century with European powers led to the loss of Hungary, the Banat of Temesvár, Transylvania and Bukovina. In

1812, the Ottomans also lost parts of their holdings along the Black Sea. In Anatolia and the Balkans, local ruling elites increasingly took control using nationalist uprisings, particularly among groups of Christians, to their advantage.

Many usurped the Ottoman tax system by sending only small amounts to the Ottoman government. The Ottoman rulers of Istanbul seemed oblivious to the resistance going on in the provinces. In the early 18th century, during the Tulip period (1717-1730), some Ottoman elites began to imitate European lifestyles and dress. Sultan Ahmad III (1703-1730) established his summer residences along the Bosphorus River and the Golden Horn, containing gardens inspired by those of the French royal family at Versailles. Tulips, originally wildflowers from central Asia, became not only popular throughout the Ottoman Empire but were also imported to Holland by Oghier Ghislain de Busbecq (1522-1592), an ambassador of Emperor Ferdinand I (1503-1564) to the Ottoman court. This led to the spread of tulips across Europe. The printing press also found its way into the Ottoman empire, helping to disseminate history, geography and literature books written in Turkish. The responses toward Western imperialism and advances were initially filtered into state-directed reforms that tried to stop Western influences, in particular those regarding religion and culture.



**Sultan Ahmet III
Fountain**

Artist: Julien Maury
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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In the 19th century, the three Muslim empires that had once dominated the Middle East and Asia were either overthrown or significantly weakened. The Mughals in India, the Safavids in Persia and the Ottoman Empire had been reduced by attacks from with Western forces with more advanced military and financial resources. As we learn in other chapters, Britain turned India into a crown colony. Persia was sandwiched between the Russian and British spheres of influence and power. After 1830, the Ottomans experienced a continuous loss of territory, especially in North Africa.

In 1798, Napoleon invaded Egypt, but he and his army were eventually expelled in 1804 by an Anglo-Ottoman alliance. Egypt became independent under the military governor Muhammad Ali Pasha (1769-1849). The long reign of the Albanian Ali Pasha allowed him to establish some reforms. He had served in the Ottoman army against the French, which made him aware of European military superiority and that it only was possible to defeat European powers if military reforms were initiated. He scouted out information from France, established munition industries and modernized the educational and public health system. He supported private landownership and focused on cash crop production of sugar and cotton. He also invaded other areas to expand his territory and influence. Ali

occupied Sudan and founded Khartoum. He fought the Ottomans in Syria but lost his navy to a combined Anglo-French fleet. Foreign powers – primarily French and British – increasingly invested in Egypt by building the Suez Canal and constructing railroads. Lavish spending by him and his sons bankrupted the country, forcing the rulers of Egypt to sell their shares in the Suez Canal Company to Britain. Eventually, Britain installed Muhammad Pasha's grandson as the new viceroy, or khedive, in charge of Egypt, a position he held until 1922.

During the late 19th century, a complicated situation arose in Sudan. Muhammad Ahmad (1844-1885), also called the Mahdi, led a successful uprising against the Egyptian and British presence between 1881-1885. The Mahdiyya or Mahdist rebellion was a complex blend of traditional African religions, fundamentalist Islam and nationalism. When Muhammad Ahmad came out of the struggle victorious, he soon established traditional Sharia courts in Sudan in the hope of further strengthening and legitimizing his rule. Ahmad would hold power until the British, in 1898, established the protectorate of Sudan.

While the Ottoman Empire had to deal with the loss of territory, the Qajar family took control of Iran in 1794 by deposing Lotf' Ali Khan (c.1769-1794), the last Shah of the Zand dynasty. Adopting European-style military, technological and educational influences, Qajar rulers expanded into the Caucasus but lost the territories of modern-day Georgia, Dagestan, Azerbaijan and Armenia to the Russian Empire. Under the Qajar dynasty, the idea of the Iranian kingship became reinvigorated. Shah Naser al-Din (1831-1896) introduced major reforms focused on the modernization of his military. Military and commercial relationships with the West led to Iran's encounter with the world market, which allowed western goods to flood Iran's internal markets.



Mehemet Ali Viceroy of Egypt

Artist: Auguste Couder (1789-1873)
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Defeat of Lutf'Ali Khan Zand by (Agha) Muhammad Shah; the city of Shiraz in the background

Artist: Unknown (from the Folio of Shahinshahnama of Fath 'Ali Khan Saba 1810)
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Anglo-Russian Convention acknowledged Russian influence in northern Persia as the British claimed control over the south. The Persian Constitutional Revolution (1905-1911) led to the creation of a constitutional monarchy. Not only were the Shahs losing power, but as foreign influence increased, it was outsiders who increasingly made the decisions for Iran. This encouraged the military officer Reza Khan (1878-1944) to attempt to seize control of the government. In 1925, Khan now formally known as Reza Shah created a new state officially called the Imperial State of Persia. Worried about both the Soviets and the British, Reza Shah undertook a series of reforms to modernize Iran. Many of the reforms in the Middle East during the 18th and 19th centuries were state-directed and open to Western influences. However, fundamentalist Islamic movements such as Wahabism, as it developed in Saudi Arabia, provided counterparts to modernist influences and Western encroachment. In both Sunni and Shia dominated areas, there was a growing element that wished for the state to be governed by religious rather than secular laws.

Other Islamic states joined in the resistance against Western encroachment, such as the followers of Abdelkader (1808-1883) in Algeria, who fought against the French. French rule over Algeria started in 1830 with the wresting away of Algiers from the Ottomans. French colonial rule ended with the Algerian War of Independence in 1962. From 1848, French Algeria was an integral part of France, and Algiers was often considered the second capital of France. Settling in mostly coastal areas, thousands of European immigrants settled in Algeria adding a European influence that melded European traditions with North African customs. French authorities forced colonial subjects to learn French, attend French-speaking schools and embrace French culture while also encouraging conversion to Catholicism. These methods were often also referred to as “assimilation and association” and became known as the so-called “civilizing mission.”

To pay for these, Iranians invested in cash crops like tobacco, cotton and opium. However, competition from European imports affected the Iranian manufacturing industry, leading to the bankruptcy of many local businesses. In 1890, Naser al-Din granted a British firm a tobacco monopoly. This led to internal resistance spearheaded by the Muslim cleric Jamal ad-Din Al-Afgani (1839-1897) who claimed that foreign influences and encroachment hurt local merchants as well as Iran's political and religious autonomy. Eventually, the shah had to end the tobacco monopoly. However, Western influences remained strong in Iran's mineral and oil industry and the rights belonging to it. In a concession to the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company, Iran started to export oil to the west in 1908.

The encroachments of the Russian and British empires in Iranian affairs undermined the stability of Iran. Eventually, foreign advances led to the partition of Qajar Iran into two spheres of influence. The 1907

SOUTHEAST ASIA 1500-1750

For the countries of mainland Southeast Asia—Burma (Myanmar), Thailand, Cambodia, Laos and Vietnam—the period from 1500-1750 was predominantly marked by political consolidation into Buddhist kingdoms. Growing access to European gunpowder weapons allowed local kings to expand their territories. For example, King Bayinnaung (1551-1581) helped expand Burmese political and economic influence into Japan and throughout the region. As the population of the region grew, local governments became larger and demanded more taxes, and this encouraged a shift away from subsistence agriculture toward cash crops such as sugar. Buddhist kings profited from such trade and taxation. As a means of both legitimizing their rule and demonstrating their power, these kings invested in the creation of religious texts, libraries, monasteries and Buddhist temples.

Both the Chinese and Japanese wished to expand their influence throughout Asia. While China's primary influence in neighboring areas like Vietnam or Burma remained primarily economic, Japan sought political control over areas such as Taiwan, which it conquered in 1895. The four colonial powers in the region—Britain, France, the Netherlands and Spain—thus had to navigate the politics of local kingdoms plus Chinese merchants and Japanese imperial officials.

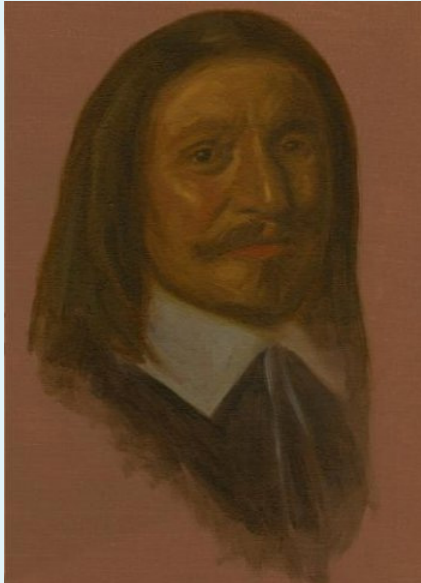
In the early 1600s, English merchants sought to break into Chinese-dominated markets. Although cast out of southeast Asia by the Dutch, the English returned to wrest Melaka from Dutch control in 1795. Twenty-four years later, the British Empire established control over Singapore. Whereas Melaka represented only a regional power, Singapore was a commercial center for all of southeast Asia. This allowed the British to control much of the trade in the region and to cast its grasp further afield.

In 1786, the British East India Company negotiated with the Sultan of Kedah to create a military and trading center on Penang Island. Worried about Dutch domination of the tea, pepper and opium trade, the British sought to create a presence in southeast Asia. Over the next century British colonial officials played

different Malay states against one another, eventually creating a protectorate over the entire region in 1909. Both Burma and Malaysia underwent rapid economic growth under the British. In addition to building railways and developing steam navigation and oil drilling, Burma also increased rice cultivation and produced timber and teakwood. The port of Rangoon (Yangon), the colonial capital, developed into a significant transaction crossroads for the region. Tin mining developed in Malaya, and Chinese laborers were recruited to work in the mines. In time, Chinese immigrants came to represent nearly half the population of Singapore. A large concentration of Chinese also migrated to Kuala Lumpur, the colonial capital of the Federated Malay States. Indian laborers likewise became a sizable population in Singapore and throughout Burma. For the greater part of the 19th century, Malaysia was divided into the British-owned straits settlements – Penang, Melaka and Singapore, whose sultanates became British client states. In 1895, British officials consolidated all of Malaysia under their rule.

Siam (Thailand), located between the British in Burma and Malaya and the French in Indochina, retained its independence from colonial powers throughout this period. King Mongkut (1851-1868) brought western science and political techniques to the nation. Although forced to grant Britain and France extraterritoriality status in Bangkok, Mongkut kept his country independent. The Thai economy developed rice, rubber, tin and tropical hardwood industries. Bangkok accordingly developed into a major trading center.

In the early 1520s, Chinese diplomats took advantage of a bloody civil war in Vietnam. Although they did little to stem the violence, Ming officials encouraged Vietnam's ruling Le Dynasty (1428-1788) to adopt the trappings of neo-Confucian ideology and culture. Dutch and Muslim merchants likewise exploited wartime scarcities by selling Indian opium and cloth respectively on the docks of Saigon and Hanoi. With their knowledge of local languages and customs, Chinese and Japanese merchants fared better than their European counterparts. Chinese traders sold metal wares, porcelain and cloth throughout Vietnam, Cambodia and Thailand in return for large quantities of refined sugar.



Artist: Unknown
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Portrait of Jeremias van Vliet

Historically, many southeast Asian women worked as merchants. As women traditionally managed households, working as merchants was seen as an extension of their domestic duties. Osoet Pegua (1615-1658) represented one such individual. Little is known about her life. In fact, no portrait of Osoet was ever made. Born in 1615 in Ayutthaya, the capital of Thailand (Siam), Osoet was of Burmese and Mon descent. At a young age, she began working at the walled compound of the Dutch East India Company (Verenigde Oostindische Compagnie, or VOC). Quickly learning Dutch, the 16-year-old Osoet began a relationship with Dutch trader Jan van Meerwijck. Following van Meerwijck's death, Osoet married Jeremias van Vliet (c. 1602-1663), the leading VOC official in Thailand, in 1638. Over the next four years, the couple produced three daughters. Over time, Osoet became an intermediary between King Prasat Thong (c. 1600-1656) and the VOC. However, when Dutch officials recalled van Vliet to Batavia over corruption charges, King Thong refused to let Osoet or her daughters leave Thailand. Osoet then formed a relationship with junior VOC partner Jan van Muijden. Using the hapless van Muijden as a proxy, Osoet effectively took over the management of the VOC office in Ayutthaya. Under her capable leadership, the VOC secured record profits and gained considerable influence with the Thai royal court. Following her death in 1658, King Sanpet VI (1630-1656) allowed for her to be buried in the Dutch compound in Ayutthaya and permitted her children to immigrate to the Netherlands.



Angkor Wat

Artist: Jean-Pierre Dalbéra
Source: Flickr
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Regional wars and epidemics also swept across southeast Asia during this time. The Kingdoms of Lan Xang and Lanna (current day Laos) fought off a series of invasions from Thailand and Vietnam. Under the capable leadership of King Settathirath (1534-1571), the unified kingdoms of Lan Xang and Lanna began a period of rebuilding and economic development. From the 800s to the 1600s the Khmer Empire flourished in what is today Cambodia. Under the able reign of Jayavarman II (c. 700-850) and Jayavarman VII (c. 1122-1218) the Khmer built complex temples and palaces such as Angkor Wat. However, a series of civil wars in the 1400s allowed King Borommara II (1424-1448) of Thailand to conquer Khmer in 1432. For the next four centuries, Cambodia would remain a Thai vassal state.

China politically and economically dominated southeast Asia until the 19th century. In 1862, the French Empire used the persecution of French Catholic missionaries as a reason to invade the southern provinces of Vietnam, including the strategic port of Saigon. By 1885, French forces occupied northern Vietnam, Cambodia and Laos. French colonists used forced labor to create massive rice and rubber plantations along the Mekong delta. Under the pretense of "civilizing" the Vietnamese, French officials renamed the region French Indochina, forced Vietnamese to adopt French names, learn the French language and convert to Roman Catholicism. To avoid prison, the Vietnamese opposition leader Ho Chi Minh (1890-1969) traveled abroad. During this time, he visited France, Britain, the United States, the Soviet Union and China. Converting to socialism, Ho became head of the Vietnamese communist party, through which he created a resistance movement to overthrow the French imperial regime.

While Thailand, Vietnam and Cambodia struggled to survive Chinese and French expansion, the people of the Philippines struggled to resist Spanish domination. In 1521, Admiral Ferdinand Magellan (1480-1521), leading a fleet of five ships, claimed the Philippines for Spain. In 1565, a Spanish invasion fleet seized the island of Luzon and established a colonial capital at Manila. From 1565 – 1821, Spanish officials in Mexico City administered the Philippines as part of the viceroyalty of New Spain. Following the independence of Mexico in 1821, the Philippines became a royal colony governed from Madrid. Spanish officials in Manila

used lavish gifts to forge alliances with local chiefs. Over the course of the 17th and 18th centuries, Manila became a Spanish settlement filled with merchants, soldiers, Catholic missionaries and some bureaucrats that would stay connected to Mexico City. Outside of Manila, a Chinese merchant community began to form. Many Chinese converted to Catholicism and intermarried with local elites.

Catholic missionaries from several orders established hundreds of schools and rural churches, most concentrated in the islands of the north and some in



Emilio Aguinaldo

Artist: Unknown
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One of the leading figures of Philippine independence, Emilio Aguinaldo y Famy was born into a wealthy family of Chinese and Tagalog descent in Cavite el Viejo on March 22, 1869. He attended the Colegio de San Juan de Letran and became a captain-general of his home province in 1895. Aguinaldo became involved with the Katipunan, a secret society that led an armed resistance against Spanish colonial rule the following year. Becoming a skilled insurgent known as “Magdeleno” (after Mary Magdalene), Aguinaldo and his “Magdelano” forces became known for carrying out planned attacks on Spanish colonial forces. For instance, at

the Battle of Zapote Bridge in February 1897, Aguinaldo ordered his troops to ring a local bridge with dynamite and lace the river beneath with punji sticks. When a Spanish army of 12,000 attempted to cross, the Magdelenos destroyed the bridge and routed the army. In March, representatives of the Philippine revolutionary government elected Aguinaldo as its generalissimo. In October 1897, Aguinaldo commissioned the creation of a constitution that further legitimized his regime. Following extensive negotiations with Spanish officials, Aguinaldo agreed to cease resistance, dissolve his government and go into exile in Hong Kong. When the Spanish-American War broke out in 1898, Commodore George Dewey arranged for Aguinaldo to be brought to the Philippines to create a new revolutionary government. After a prolonged siege, Spanish authorities surrendered Manila to American forces. Although Spain agreed to cede the Philippines to the U.S. in return for \$20 million, Aguinaldo declared the creation of a provisional Philippine republic in January 1899. Aguinaldo would lead a guerilla war against occupying U.S. forces for the next two years. Captured by American forces in Luzon on March 23, 1901, Aguinaldo acceded to U.S. control of the Philippines. Ironically, when imperial Japanese forces invaded the Philippines in December 1941, Aguinaldo re-emerged to lead a pro-Japanese collaborationist government. On February 1942, Aguinaldo took to the airwaves to give his “Bataan Address,” which urged American forces in the Philippines to lay down their arms. Captured when American troops retook the islands in 1945, Aguinaldo was released from prison under a general amnesty for all former Japanese collaborators. He then lived a quiet life in retirement, dying in 1962.

the south reaching through the Visaya archipelago and into northern Mindanao. Resistance against Spanish encroachment grew and a group of nationalists, including José Rizal (1861-1896), demanded reform. By 1896, the reform movement had grown to include militant elements, including a secret society known as the Katipunan, which started an armed revolt against Spain. Arrested and found guilty of treason, Rizal was executed by means of a firing squad on December 30, 1896. In doing so, Spanish authorities turned Rizal into a martyr in the cause of Philippine independence. In 1898, the Spanish-American war reached the

Philippines, and nationalist hero Emilio Aguinaldo (1869-1964) declared independence from Spain on June 12, 1898, which would lead to the establishment of the First Philippine Republic on January 21, 1899.

Spain turned the Philippines, along with Puerto Rico and Guam, over to the U.S. following the American victory in the Spanish-American War (1898). Consequently, the Philippine-American War (1899-1902) broke out. More than 200,000 Filipinos died, mostly due to famine and disease. The Philippines would not gain its independence until 1946.

SUMMARY

By 1900, most of Africa and Asia lay under the direct or indirect control of an imperialist power. In just a few centuries, the divided nations of Western Europe had become powerful empires with modern militaries, governments and economies. While Britain reigned over the largest number of territories, other nations like France, Germany and Italy held sizable empires. Although designed to enrich the home countries, imperialism had the effect of spreading European politics, science, technology, economic beliefs, religion and even popular sports across much of the developing world. This era also witnessed the origins of local independence movements, which in time would lead to nationalist movements across the world and would also set into motion geographical disputes that would, in turn, pave the way for the First and Second World Wars of the 20th century.

11

World in Crisis, Conflict, and the Struggle for Independence: World War I, the Indian Independence Movement and the Russian Revolution



Illustration of Christmas in the trenches of World War I

Artist: Justinas
Source: iStock.com/ Justinas
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The 20th century brought profound changes to the world. The outbreak of the First World War led to the emergence of newly independent nations, dismantling of monarchies, and millions of deaths at the hands of totalitarian regimes. Those who opposed these authoritarian states were exiled or killed as dictatorial leaders sought to control nearly every aspect of the state. The key events of this period examined in this

chapter (World War I, the Russian Revolution, and the struggle for independence in India), helped set the stage for not only the emergence of nationalist movements across the world but also global economic and political transformations that eventually triggered the rise of Nazi Germany and the arrival of a new conflict, World War II.

WORLD WAR I

Fought between 1914 to 1918, World War I constituted the first global conflict in history. At the end of the conflict, 40 million combatants and civilians lay dead, 120 million were displaced, the infrastructures of a dozen European countries were in ruins, and the political map of Europe had been fundamentally transformed.

The origins of the First World War lay in a complex series of alliances that governed Europe for a century. At the end of the Napoleonic Wars, Europe's victorious powers—Britain, Prussia, Austro-Hungary and Russia—sought to contain the liberal forces unleashed by the French Revolution. An advocate of *realpolitik*,

Austrian Prince Klemens von Metternich (1773-1859) promoted the concept of a “balance of power” in which European nations would join systems of interlocking alliances. This would prevent war as no country would dare risk a regional dispute exploding into a larger war. Although precarious, the balance of power prevented a large battle on European soil for nearly a century. By the early 20th century, the continent remained dominated by two alliance systems: the Triple Entente (Britain, France and Russia) and the Triple Alliance (Germany, Italy and Austro-Hungary, with the Ottomans, often included as a junior partner).



Map of Military Alliances of Europe in 1914

Artist: User “Historicair” (French original); Flute flute & User: Bibi Saint-Pol (English translation)
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Ethno-linguistic map of Austria-Hungary, 1910

Artist: Andrei Nacu
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In 1914, the Austro-Hungarian Empire represented a large, multiethnic state. Millions of Serbians living within the empire desired independence. On June 28, 1914, Serbian revolutionary Gavrilo Princip (1894-1918) assassinated the Austro-Hungarian Archduke Franz Ferdinand (1863-1914) and his wife Sophia (1868-1914) in Sarajevo. When Serbia refused Austria's

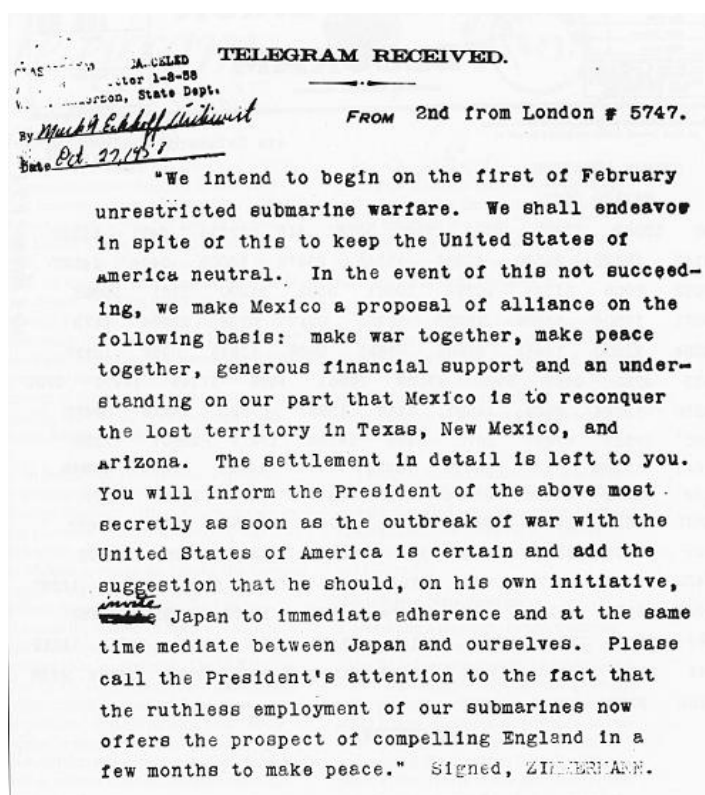
demands to condemn the assassination and prosecute Serbian nationalists, Austria-Hungary responded with a declaration of war on Serbia. Serbia's ally and fellow Slavic nation Russia declared war on Austria-Hungary. Germany declared war on Russia and Britain, with France responding by declaring war on Germany.



German soldiers of the 11th Reserve Hussar Regiment fighting from a trench, on the Western Front, 1916

Artist: Oscar Tellgmann
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troops before Allied forces abandoned the campaign. In May 1916, British and German naval forces fought a bloody but inconclusive battle off the coast of Danish Jutland. On July 1, 1916, the Battle of the Somme broke out. The battle resulted in an Entente victory. A total of 1,500,000 died, on both sides, during the battle.



Both sides expected a quick victory in the conflict. However, the development of modern military technology, including Browning machine guns, mustard gas, airplanes and eventually tanks, quickly outstripped the 19th-century battle tactics familiar to most European generals. With cavalry impractical against machine guns, millions of soldiers hunkered down in trenches and sniped at one another across miles of devastated countryside dubbed “no man’s land.” Soldiers in the trenches battled not just the enemy but also “trench foot,” snakes, rats and the elements.

At the First Battle of the Marne in September 1914, over half a million German, British and French troops were killed. From February 1915 to January 1916, Entente soldiers (many of whom were from Australia and New Zealand) attempted to attack the Ottoman’s Dardanelles Straits. The Entente lost over half a million men before abandoning plans to knock the Ottomans out of the war. The Battle of Verdun represented one of the most protracted battles of World War I. On February 21, 1916, German forces launched a major offensive to take Paris. The battle lasted 10 months and killed a total of 600,000

The Zimmermann Telegram as it was sent from Washington, DC, to Ambassador Heinrich von Eckardt, the German ambassador to Mexico.

Author/ Artist: Arthur Zimmermann
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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German and British troops during the Christmas Truce of 1914

Artist: Cassowary Colorizations
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The Christmas Truce of 1914 is considered one of the most unusual events in warfare. At 8:30 p.m. on December 24, 1914 (Christmas Eve), German troops lit candles in their trenches and began singing carols and wishing Merry Christmas to their British rivals across No Man's Land. British troops began serenading the Germans, and the two groups sent out scouts to assess the situation. Soon soldiers from the two armies were pledging not to fire on one another. All up and down the front, men walked

across no man's land to shake hands, sing carols, toast one another and exchange presents. Impromptu bands were formed to provide musical entertainment while other soldiers participated in a pick-up football game. Although many soldiers participated in the truce, active fighting continued in other theaters. Worried about the effect such fraternization might have on morale, British and French officers forbade any future celebrations with enemy troops.

The First World War represented a total war that consumed all aspects of the societies involved in the conflict. Both Britain and Germany blockaded one another's coasts. Neutral nations like the United States made tremendous war profits trading with one side or the other. For the most part, Americans wished to stay out of the war. This changed when a German submarine sank the British freighter *Lusitania* in 1915, killing 1,195 people (including 123 Americans), which encouraged more Americans to speak out in favor of war against the Triple Alliance. Although the Germans promised to stop sinking non-military vessels, they resumed unrestricted submarine warfare in February 1917. At the same time, newspaper stories about a document known as the Zimmerman Telegram surfaced. The purported telegram revealed a scheme between Germany and Mexico by which Mexico would use German aid to invade the United States and regain lands lost in the U.S.-Mexican War of the 1840s. Although he had been re-elected in 1916 on the campaign slogan "he kept us out of war," U.S. President Woodrow Wilson (1856-1924) bowed to public demand and, on April 6, 1917, asked Congress for a declaration of war.

While U.S. officials debated entering the Great War, Russian leaders pulled out of the conflict. After three

years of stalemates and defeats on the Eastern Front, millions of ordinary Russians demanded that Czar Nicholas II (1868-1918) withdraw from the war. Radical Russian socialists, known as Bolsheviks, made successful inroads with peasants and workers sick of war. Seizing the opportunity, German officials secretly shipped Russian Communist leader Vladimir Lenin (1870-1924) back to Russia. In October 1917, Lenin's Bolsheviks captured many of the major cities in Russia and instituted the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR). The "October Revolution" would have tremendous consequences for the subsequent histories of the 20th and 21st centuries.

Reinforced by American troops and equipment, Entente forces began an all-out push against Germany in October 1918. Deserting their former ally, the Ottomans and Austria-Hungary signed separate peace treaties with the Entente. Unable to continue a sustained resistance to the Entente Powers, Germany agreed to an armistice on November 11, 1918. At the Paris Peace Conference held in January 1919, Woodrow Wilson insisted that Europeans agree to a peace plan along American lines, as outlined in his "Fourteen Points." One of these points called for creating a "League of Nations," an international forum to resolve disputes between nations



Karl Liebknecht

Artist: G. G. Bain
Source: Wikimedia Commons
License: Public Domain



Rosa Luxemburg

Artist: Unknown
Source: Wikimedia Commons
License: Public Domain

without resorting to war. However, European leaders like British Prime Minister David Lloyd-George (1863-1945) and French Prime Minister Georges Clemenceau (1841-1929) demanded that Germany alone accept responsibility for the war and make steep reparation payments to the victors. Even in the United States, Congress rejected the Paris Peace Treaty and voted against joining the League of Nations. In addition, by denying Germany and the USSR representation at the Versailles Conference and saddling millions of Germans with high taxes to pay for reparations, the victorious Entente powers helped set the stage for World War II.

Before, during and even after the war, there was much opposition to World War I, including from socialist, anarchist, syndicalist and Marxist groups, even Christian pacifists. While leaders of the Social Democratic Party of Germany (SPD) encouraged their members to vote against a coming war, in the end they voted for the war on August 4, 1914. Left-wing forces such as the Russian Bolsheviks and the socialist faction of the Social Democratic Party of Germany, led by Karl Liebknecht

(1871-1919) and Rosa Luxemburg (1871-1919), were vehemently opposed to the war and the support of the German Parliament to fund the war. In 1916, Liebknecht and Luxemburg founded the anti-war Spartacus League (Spartakusbund), which later became the basis of the Communist Party of Germany. Producing anti-war pamphlets signed with Spartacus after the leader of the slave uprising in the Roman Republic, Liebknecht and Luxemburg organized anti-war strikes and were eventually incarcerated in 1916 and sentenced to 2 1/2 years in prison. Following the German November revolution, which led to the abdication of Emperor Wilhelm II (1859-1941) in 1918, the Independent Social Democratic Party (USPD) with which the Spartacus League was affiliated, and which consisted of anti-war former Social Democrats, as well as the Social Democratic Party of Germany, assumed power in the new Weimar Republic. Released from prison just before the signing of the armistice on November 11, 1918, Liebknecht and Luxemburg were founding members of the Communist Party of Germany.



Map of Europe 1923- Change in Europe's Political Geography after WWI

Artist: User "Fluteflute"; Derivative of Map_Europe_1923-fr.svg by User "Historicair"
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The newly formed Communist Party was dedicated to undermining the current government. Seen as the chief instigators, Luxemburg and Liebknecht were targeted and eventually assassinated by the Cavalry Guards of the Freikorps (Garde-Kavallerie-Schützendivision) on 15 January 1919. The killing of the two communist leaders caused increased upheaval and violence across Germany. It continued to deepen the divide within the German left, which eventually was one of the causes

that strengthened right-wing forces in the German political landscape and led to the eventual rise of Adolf Hitler and the National Socialist Party of Germany. The murder of Luxemburg and Liebknecht did not weaken the Communist Party of Germany, which remained a major party during the Weimar Republic (1918-1933) and was a leading voice in the underground resistance movement in Nazi Germany.



Tirailleurs posing for an autochrome photograph in September 1914

Artist: Jules Gervais-Courtellemont
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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AFRICA AND THE FIRST WORLD WAR

Although primarily considered a European phenomenon, a considerable amount of fighting during World War I occurred in Africa. Working together, British and French forces attacked German colonies in Africa, including invading, and then partitioning, Cameroon and Togo. Togo became French, while four-fifths of Cameroon was occupied by the French,

which ended up becoming the francophone part of Cameroon, and one-fifth, bordering Nigeria, became British. In East Africa, the German general Lettow-Vorbeck (1870-1964) scored victory after victory as his troops marched undefeated through Mozambique, Nyasaland and northeastern Rhodesia.

The campaigns in Cameroon and East Africa had devastating consequences for the African population. Villages were often burnt, and food supplies were confiscated by European troops, leading to famines, such as the one in Rwanda from 1916-1918. Many Africans employed as porters for the armies in the East African campaign died of malnutrition, disease or overwork. Most of the troops fighting for the colonial powers in Africa were Africans, but these troops might also be sent to Europe. The French conscripted over 600,000 Africans into the army. In the French army alone, 30,000 African troops died fighting in Europe. Conscription led to widespread rebellions against French colonial control. Part of this resistance to colonial powers was spurred by the paradox of the colonial soldier who had been treated as an equal in war but not outside of it.

THE STRUGGLE FOR INDIAN INDEPENDENCE

During the latter part of the 19th century, a new, more direct form of Indian nationalism developed. Indians were well aware that other parts of the empire had been given more control over local affairs, a process the British had resisted in India. Over a million Indians volunteered to serve during the First World War. Many expected that, due to their sacrifices, after the war, they would be granted more control over the running of India. The British did hire and promote more Indians within the civil service but ultimately refused to hand

over actual control. As such, British India continued to be run by the British to serve and enrich Britain.

After the war, discontent in India grew as inflation, high taxes and an influenza pandemic put many people on edge. Failing to fix the underlying problems and increasingly fearful of rebellion, the British extended wartime emergency measures, which prevented Indians from gathering or protesting British rule. The violence of British rule could be seen on April 13, 1919 when



Gandhi in South Africa in 1909

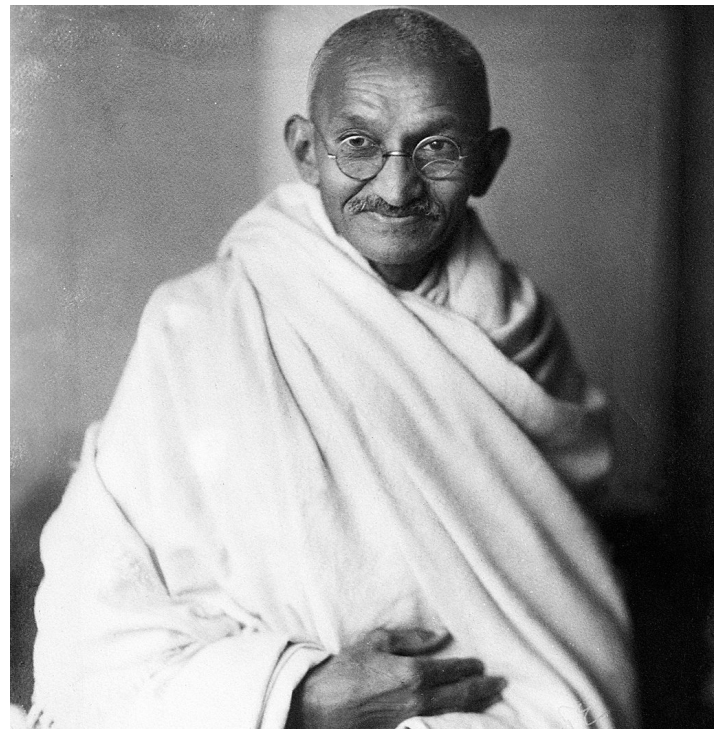
Artist: Unknown
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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way to confront and end Natal's discriminatory laws. After some soul searching, which included reading Hindu and Christian texts, Gandhi developed a form of non-violent resistance known as satyagraha. Roughly translated as "soul force," satyagraha is a non-violent protest in which the protester tries to alter the oppressor through love, compassion and a demonstration of resolve.

Gandhi organized protests to draw attention to the unfair and discriminatory laws. Tired of the disruption and bad press, in 1914, the government of Natal abolished a slew of discriminatory laws, including unfair taxation of Indian workers and property owners; they recognized non-Christian marriage and agreed to continue to allow free non-indentured Indian people to remain and to immigrate to Natal.

General Reginald Dyer ordered his men to open fire on a crowd that had gathered to celebrate a Sikh religious festival. According to British figures (which some claim are far too low), the Amritsar Massacre killed 379 people and wounded more than 1,000. The violence of Amritsar encouraged many to join the movement for Indian independence.

Mohandas Gandhi (1869-1948) is most closely associated with this new push for self-rule. Born into a relatively wealthy family, Gandhi studied law in England. In 1893, he became involved in a labor dispute in the Colony of Natal in Southeast Africa. In Natal, Gandhi came face-to-face with the poor conditions suffered by migrant Indian workers. Similar to elsewhere, especially in the Caribbean, plantation owners in Natal had imported thousands of indentured laborers from India. After completing their indentureship, some wished to stay in Natal, but new and increasingly strict regulations limited their freedom and discriminated against them. This included an 1896 law that stripped Indians of the right to vote. Learning firsthand that while the courts could be a valuable tool for change, they could be ignored by oppressive governments, Gandhi wanted a more direct



Studio Photograph of Mahatma Gandhi, London, 1931

Artist: Elliott & Fry
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Returning to India a national hero (he received the moniker “mahatma,” meaning great soul) in 1915, Gandhi wanted to learn more about his native land. As he toured around India, Gandhi witnessed how the repressive and discriminatory laws of the British held India back. Developing a version of Indian independence rooted in the traditions of the village, Gandhi advocated that people use non-violence to free India from British rule. He asked Indians to stop supporting colonialism by boycotting British products, to stop working for the British state, and to no longer pay unfair and predatory taxes.

During the 1920s, Gandhi successfully turned the Indian National Congress (a nationalist political party) into a mass movement capable of challenging British rule. With the help of Gandhi, the independence movement grew in power and popularity. Gandhi worked toward his vision of a multicultural and free India based on mutual respect. Employing his direct non-violent stance, Gandhi and his supporters demanded that Britain “Quit India.”



Map of the Partition of India

Artist: John Wyatt Greenlee
Source: World History Since 1500 (Rankin, Weise)
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During the 1930s and 1940s, the power of another independence group, the All-Indian Muslim League, had increased. Led by Muhammed Ali Jinnah (1876-1948), the Muslim League wanted to partition India into separate Hindu and Muslim states. This was in direct opposition to the pluralistic cooperative state envisioned by Gandhi. As it became increasingly apparent that the British would be forced to 'Quit' India, violence between Hindus and Muslims increased.

The British agreed to partition India, which led, in August 1947, to the creation of an independent India and Pakistan. Millions of Muslims in India and Hindus

in the newly created state of Pakistan would uproot their lives and travel, often long distances, to create a new life among their co-religionists. Independence did not end the political and religious violence.

On January 30, 1948, Gandhi was assassinated by a Hindu nationalist who shot him three times. Gandhi remains a national hero who helped India achieve independence. His stance on civil disobedience, his unwavering dedication, and his successful application of direct non-violent resistance have inspired many political activists.

RUSSIAN REVOLUTION

The early 20th century was a period of social, political and cultural change as important revolutions would occur in Iran, Russia, the Ottoman Empire, Mexico and China. These revolutions challenged the existing order and sought to create states capable of better serving their citizens and meeting the challenges of modernity.

In the early 20th century, Russia appeared like an unlikely candidate for a communist revolution. Russian troops and the secret police worked in tandem to quell any discontent or calls for reform. Ruled by a czar, the czar's word was final, and he could, and often did, rule with an iron fist. Russia had no tradition of democracy; there was no freedom of the press or association. This autocratic rule extended over a 5,000-mile expanse and comprised more than a hundred different ethnic and linguistic groups.

Russia had fallen behind the other Great Powers. At the beginning of the 20th century, as other nations had successfully industrialized, nine out of 10 Russians were still peasants. The middle class was small and politically still relatively weak as the czar and a small group of aristocrats continued to hold most of the wealth and power. During the second half of the 19th century, partly due to fears of falling behind, Russia started to invest in industry and had a small urban working class by the turn of the century. Like elsewhere, these workers were poorly paid, had virtually no rights, and worked long hours in often dangerous conditions. The proof of this falling behind could be found in Russia's defeat



Nicholas II, Czar of all the Russias

Artist: Unknown
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in the Russo-Japanese War (1904-1905). Fought over rising tensions and imperial ambitions, especially over access and control over Pacific territories, the Japanese victory confirmed their ascendancy while highlighting Russia's failure to keep pace. This put pressure on the czar and increased demands to reform the Russian state.

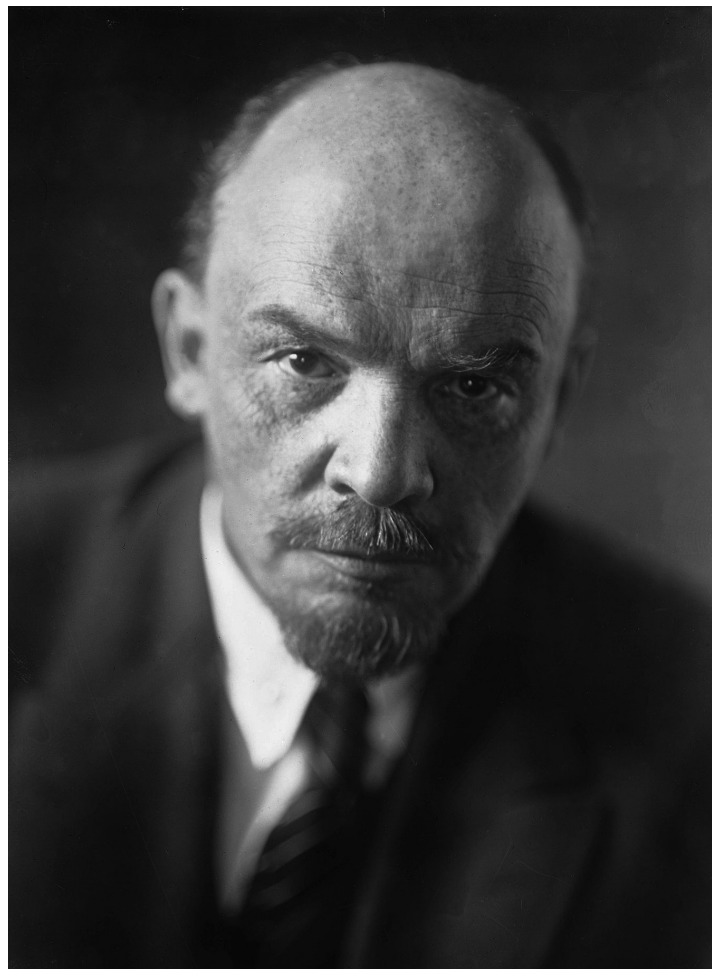
Members of Russia's middle class wanted reform. Although divided over what to reform and how far reform should be carried out, many desired for Russia to become a Western-inspired constitutional monarchy similar to what existed in Britain. They did not ask for the dissolution of the monarchy or the aristocracy but wanted to implement a parliamentary system that would give them some say in how the government operated. Czar Nicolas II (r. 1894-1917) refused to allow significant reform or to alter his position and power.

On January 22, 1905 (known as Bloody Sunday), workers attempted to petition the czar by gathering outside his palace in St. Petersburg. They called for improved working conditions, better pay and an eight-hour workday. They came in peace, singing songs like God Save the Czar. Instead of hearing their demands the unarmed subjects were met with bullets. While the numbers vary widely, hundreds of people were killed by bullets or from being trampled as people tried to flee. This was a turning point for many Russians. After this, the widely held belief that it was not the czar but his ministers responsible for the problems in Russia seemed to go up in smoke.

Coupled with the general discontent and disillusionment with the poor progress against Japan, Bloody Sunday led to a wave of strikes across the Russian Empire. These events are called the Revolution of 1905. Needing to calm the people, the czar agreed to a more limited form of monarchy, a parliament called the Duma, and a new Russian constitution. Czar Nicolas II did not believe in these reforms, and as soon as discontent settled down, he took back much of these concessions and tried to rule as he always had. Going back on his word further undermined the trust many had placed in the czar, serving to increase the number of people advocating for reform or desiring a revolution.

The Revolution would have to wait another 12 years. The catalyst for this event was World War I. To change Russian fortunes, Czar Nicholas went to the front to take direct control of the army. The czar could not change the war's course as Germany drove deeper into Russian territory.

The only thing keeping the czar on his throne was the forces of law and order which had stayed loyal to him. Even these elements began to waver. The final blow to the czar's rule came in 1917 when troops, instead of firing on a crowd of protestors in St. Petersburg, joined the protestors. Without power or protection, Czar Nicolas II abdicated his throne. The following year, Nicholas, his wife and five children were executed.



Vladimir Lenin

Artist: Pavel Zhukov
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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With the czar out of the way, a new Provisional government operated out of the Duma. Dominated by liberal thinkers who wished to modernize Russia without completely altering the current system, the Provisional government failed to bring order to the Russian state. It continued the war effort despite how unpopular it had become. At the same time, the Russian experiment with democracy spread to the local level as workers elected councils called Soviets to govern factories. These Soviets offered a rival government and power structure to the Provisional government.

At this point, a long-time revolutionary named Vladimir Ulyanov (known as Lenin) gained increasing notoriety and power. Exiled for his revolutionary activities, Lenin stayed committed to revolution in Russia. Indeed, Lenin had written numerous influential pamphlets on communism and Russia since leaving the country in 1900. He was critical of capitalism (which he believed, just like Marx, would be done away with) and Russia's participation in World War I.

Still living in Zurich when the czar lost his throne in 1917, the 47-year-old Lenin knew the time was right for his return, but Switzerland, which remained neutral during the war, was surrounded, and it seemed that there was no way to get to Russia. Aware that Lenin was opposed to the war, the Germans agreed to put him on a train home so that Lenin could use his influence to agitate against the war effort. Once he arrived, Lenin announced that the revolution would provide "peace, land and bread." Despite his years in exile, Lenin judged the mood of Russians perfectly, which helped him win sympathy for the communist cause.

While on the train from Switzerland, Lenin composed his April Theses which called on communists to end any support for the Provisional government. Caught between the communists and those who wanted to re-establish the old system, the Provisional government began to waver.



Lenin's Travel in a Sealed Train in 1917 from Zurich to Petrograd

Artist: User "Kimdime"
Source: Wikimedia Commons based on
File:Blank map of Europe 1914.svg
License: CC BY-SA 4.0 | © Kimdime



Eastern Europe in 1914

Artist: Department of History of the United States Military Academy
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Called on to defend the desperate Provisional government, the Soviets, instead of supporting the government, overthrew it. This is known as the second revolution. These actions ensured that the second revolution was indeed a socialist one.

Lenin worked to establish peace with Germany. The Treaty of Brest-Litovsk, which finally got Russia out of the war, stands as a testament to how badly Lenin wanted peace, for he gave Germany some of Russia's most fertile and industrialized areas and a third of the Russian population. Lenin defended losing so much territory by stating that it did not matter, for soon, a worldwide communist revolution would make such treaties irrelevant. After years of fighting, losing so

much territory to Germany was, for many Russians, a bitter pill to swallow.

Although he promised peace for the next nearly four years, Russia would be involved in a devastating civil war that pitted the communists against an alliance of czarist forces and Russia's former war allies (who hoped to do away with Lenin and force Russia back into the war). Luckily for Lenin, most troops from England, France, Japan and the United States were withdrawn after the war ended in 1918. As Commissar of War, Leon Trotsky's leadership played a crucial role in suppressing the counterrevolution allowing the communists to claim victory in the civil war.



After the civil war, Lenin turned his attention to reforming Russia. True to his Marxist roots, Lenin abolished private ownership of land and, to better organize Russian industry, confiscated factories and merged them into giant government-controlled trusts. He established the legal equality of women, including making divorce more accessible, while implementing universal education. Lenin did not seek consent for his actions as he had no intention of letting the Soviets direct policy and quickly brought them under the control of the Communist party. He ruled like an autocrat, creating a party dictatorship rather than a communist state along the lines envisioned by Marx. Dying in January 1924, it would be up to Lenin's successors to bring forward the revolution and the vision of a better and more egalitarian world led by workers.

Leon Trotsky, Aged 54

Artist: Unknown
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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SUMMARY

World War I ushered in a new era of warfare. Not only had conflict become global, but it was now much more destructive and deadly. The war also demonstrated how the modern state could be reconstituted to fight what is now known as total war. The Russian Revolution led to the creation of the first Marxist-inspired state. Sympathizers hoped that the Soviet Union would create a more egalitarian society along Marxist-Leninist lines. Instead, a strong one-party authoritarian dictatorship emerged that ruled with little opposition and increasing repression of alternative voices by sending political opponents to forced labor camps. The independence movement in India gave birth to new nations and forms of national conflict and struggle. The campaign for Indian independence inspired other colonies to fight for sovereignty. The early decades of the 20th century presented numerous issues and problems but also brought hope as dedicated groups all across the globe struggled for increased freedoms and equality.

12

Interwar Years and the Rise of Fascism

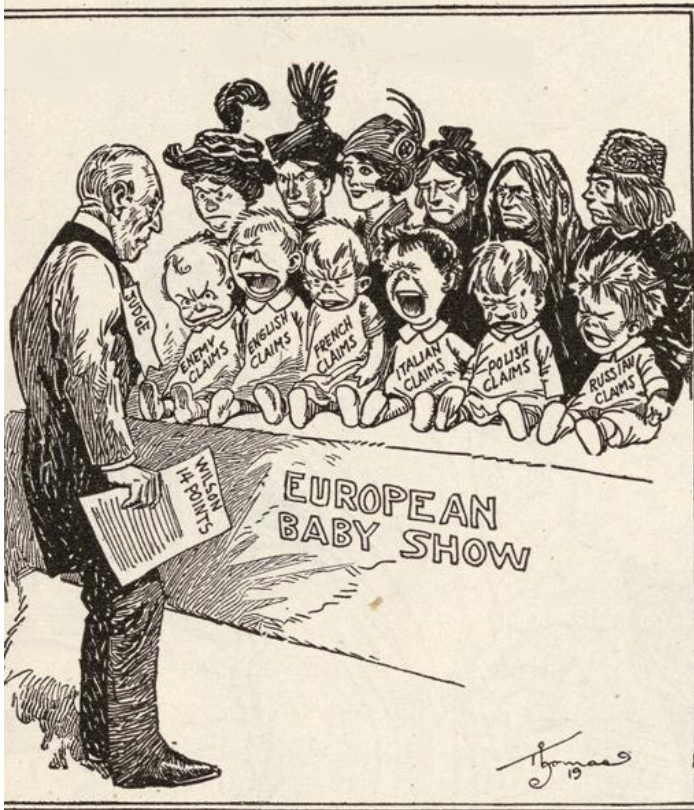


New Model A Ford (1931) – Miami, Florida

Artist: William A. Fishbaugh
Source: Wikimedia Commons (provided by
State Library and Archives of Florida)
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On December 13, 1918, U.S. President Woodrow Wilson (1856-1924) arrived in Paris to streets thronged with cheering crowds. Over the past 18 months, Wilson had provided manpower and supplies crucial to the victory of Entente forces in World War I. His Food Administration had likewise provided millions of tons of food for the starving populations of Britain

and France. The first president ever to travel abroad to negotiate a peace treaty, Wilson had journeyed to Paris to participate in the 1919 Versailles Peace Conference. Encouraged by such a warm reception from ordinary Parisians, Wilson believed that if the conference delegates would follow his “Fourteen Points,” that future world wars could be prevented.



Artist: Burt Randolph Thomas
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Wilson's Fourteen Points- European Baby Show

Woodrow Wilson's proposed "Fourteen Points" represented a combination of progressive political thought, laissez-faire economics and old-fashioned power politics. They included open treaties, freedom of the seas, equal trade, a decrease in armaments among all nations, and an adjustment of the colonial claims of different countries. Wilson also insisted on the evacuation of all Central Powers forces from Russia, the restoration of the Belgium government, the return of Alsace and Lorraine to France, a readjustment of Italy's border with Austria, national self-determination for the ethnic minorities of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, national self-determination for the peoples of the Balkans, and the creation of Turkey and Poland as independent nations. Lastly, Wilson suggested the creation of a League of Nations to maintain world peace and prevent future wars. The European delegates at the Paris Peace Conference were amazed at the boldness of Wilson's proposal. French Prime Minister Georges Clemenceau reportedly stated, "God gave us the Ten Commandments, and we broke them. Wilson gives us the Fourteen Points. We shall see."

A product of American progressivism, Wilson failed to understand neither the deep-seated rivalries that had triggered World War I nor the anger and despair many Europeans grappled with in the wake of four years of bloody warfare. For Prime Ministers George Clemenceau of France (1841-1929), David Lloyd-George from Great Britain (1863-1945), and Vittorio Orlando of Italy (1860-1952), there was no question that the terms of the Versailles Peace Treaty upon the defeated Triple Alliance would be harsh. In the final version of the treaty, Germany was forced to reduce its military to the size of a police force, give up territory in the east to Poland and in the west to France, plus its overseas colonies. Section 233 of the document likewise laid the moral blame for the war entirely at Germany's feet. Most controversial, a Reparations Committee set up by the Entente powers determined in 1921 that Germany would pay \$31.5 billion (in U.S. dollars) in war reparations. As none of the Triple Alliance powers had representation at Versailles and were forced to accept either the treaty or military occupation, the war's end left Germans embittered. They scornfully referred to the treaty as the Diktat (dictated peace) and repeatedly sought ways to work around it.

One of the few Fourteen Points that the leaders of Britain and France did not object to was the final one, namely that "[a] general association of nations must be formed under specific covenants for the purpose of affording mutual guarantees of political independence and territorial integrity to great and small states alike." The delegates at the Versailles Conference established the Covenant of the League of Nations as part of the Versailles Peace Treaty signed in 1919. Consisting of a National Assembly, Executive Council and Secretariat, the League sought to provide a forum for resolving international disputes.



THE CHILD WHO WANTED TO PLAY BY HIMSELF

PRESIDENT WILSON: "Now come along and enjoy yourself with the other children. I promised that you'd be the life and soul of the party."
From *Punch* (London)

Artist: Staff Cartoonist for PUNCH magazine London, 1919
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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U.S.A. Resists League of Nations 1919

Although Wilson received the 1919 Nobel Peace Prize for his efforts, a Republican-controlled Senate led by Senator Henry Cabot Lodge (1850-1924) blocked U.S. entry into the organization. Lodge was primarily angry because the Republican Party had been afforded no representation in the American delegation to the Paris Peace Conference. Furious at this blow to his plans, Wilson embarked on a national speaking tour to drum up support for American entry into the league. Suffering a stroke in Pueblo, Colorado in September 1919, Wilson would have diminished health for the remainder of his presidency.

Perhaps the greatest threat faced by belligerents was an influenza pandemic that swept the world. The outbreak was dubbed the "Spanish flu" because while other nations still at war suppressed information about the pandemic, neutral Spain had no such newspaper or press restrictions. Although its precise origins are unknown, some believe that the disease may have actually originated in Kansas. Spread throughout the world by humans brought into close proximity in wartime military camps and field hospitals, the disease

killed between 20-40 million worldwide (including 675,000 Americans) in just one year. Already caring for millions of wounded veterans, doctors throughout the world struggled to treat the influx of influenza victims. Ironically, the fact that the American and European public had recent experiences in wartime sacrifices and government regulation of their lives meant that they responded to medical demands for sanitation, inoculations and vaccines with considerable maturity and compliance.



Emergency hospital during influenza epidemic, Camp Funston, Kansas

Artist: Otis Historical Archives, National Museum of Health and Medicine
Source: Wikimedia Commons
License: Public Domain

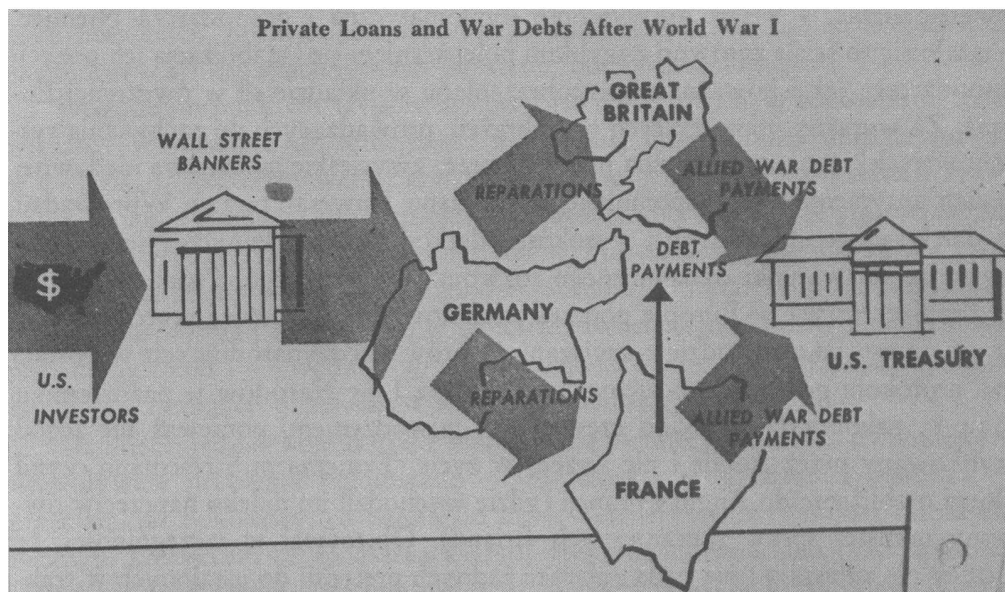
THE WEIMAR REPUBLIC

Given the abdication of Kaiser Wilhelm II (1859-1941) at the war's end, a new government came to power in Germany. Nicknamed after its capital city, the "Weimar Republic" remained a weak, unpopular regime throughout the 1920s. For instance, in 1922, the Weimar government attempted diplomatically to reintegrate into the rest of Europe. Like Germany, the USSR lost millions of soldiers in the Great War and was not afforded a voice at the Paris Peace Conference. In 1922, Weimar and Soviet diplomats signed the Treaty of Rapallo, by which Germany took steps to diplomatically recognize the Soviet Union in return for the USSR foregoing any territorial and reparation claims against their former enemy. At the urging of Foreign Minister Gustave Stresemann (1878-1929), the Weimar government signed the Treaty of Locarno with Belgium, Britain, France and Italy in 1925. By accepting the loss of Alsace and Lorraine to France and promising to submit any future border disputes regarding Poland and Czechoslovakia to international arbitration, Germany secured admission to the League of Nations in 1926. Two years later, Germany signed the well-intentioned but ultimately naive and unenforceable Kellogg-Briand Pact that promoted diplomacy and negotiation rather than war as the primary means of settling disputes between nations.

Despite these encouraging steps, many Germans blamed Britain, France and Weimar officials for their problems. Many right-wing political leaders argued that the German war effort in World War I had been

"stabbed in the back" by socialists, Jews and leftists in general. In March 1920, American-born conservative politician Wolfgang Kapp (1858-1922), World War I veteran Hermann Ehrhardt (1881-1971), and their Freikorps (militia) followers seized control of the German government. Only a general strike by German socialists kept the coup from succeeding. Freikorps forces retaliated by assassinating almost 400 progressive political leaders.

Matters came to a head in November 1922 when the Weimar government defaulted on a reparation payment. French and Belgium troops responded by occupying the valuable industrial Ruhr Valley in the Rhineland. Germans countered with a passive resistance campaign, refusing to work or do business with the occupying troops. Weimar officials also inflated Germany's currency to rob the French government of any profits from the Ruhr. In January 1921, an American dollar was worth 120 German marks. A year later, a U.S. dollar was theoretically worth 4,200,000,000,000 marks. Although this hyperinflation significantly hurt the French economy, it also wiped out the savings and pensions of millions of working-class Germans. Seizing upon the desperation felt by many ordinary Germans, Adolph Hitler (1889-1945), the charismatic leader of the National Socialist German Workers' Party (known popularly as the Nazi Party), launched another coup to overthrow the Weimar regime. Started in a tavern in the conservative-leaning city of Munich, Bavaria, the "Beer Hall Putsch" failed to attract widespread public support. Authorities arrested Hitler, who served an eight-year jail sentence during which he wrote his best-selling *Mein Kampf* (My Struggle).



Dawes Plan: Private Loans and War Debts after World War I
Schemat przepływow (HistoriaPolski str.174)

Artist: Henryk Zieliński
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In late 1923, the Allied Reparation Commission formed a subcommittee headed by U.S. banker Charles G. Dawes (1865-1951) to address the issue of German war reparations. In April 1924, the committee offered its proposal, known as the “Dawes Plan.” The scheme reduced Germany’s annual reparation payments until the nation’s economy recovered from hyperinflation. The German government would replace its inflated Papiermark with a new form of currency called the Reichsmark, pegged to real estate rather than specie. As a sign of good faith, France and Belgium would withdraw their troops from the Ruhr Valley. U.S. banks would loan Germany \$200 million to rebuild its economy and make reparation payments to Britain and France, who would then use such funds to repay American loans incurred during World War I. For his efforts, Dawes would become U.S. Vice-President and win the Nobel Peace Prize in 1925.

So long as U.S. loans could guarantee German reparation payments, the Dawes system functioned. However, a stock market crash in October 1929 and a

subsequent depression, known as the Great Depression, abruptly ended the conspicuous consumption which had defined the 1920s. Between 1929-1932, the world’s GDP fell by 15%. Savings and pensions were wiped out, unemployment in the U.S. rose to 25%, and prices for farm goods fell by nearly 70%. Under these circumstances, American banks lacked the capital to loan money to Germany. European and American leaders floated different proposals to cancel Germany’s reparation payments (and British and French loans to the United States) but failed to reach a solution.

Ironically, the political instability of the 1920s triggered a period of tremendous German artistic and cultural expression. Walter Gropius (1883-1969) pioneered international or rational architecture, which drew from modernism to reflect the values of a young, urban generation of Germans. Rejecting traditional European architecture’s gilded and ornamental style, Gropius created giant skyscrapers composed of glass and steel, such as the Fagus building in Alfeld and the Haus am Horn in Weimar.



Fagus Factory, Front 2022

Artist: User “Zedstyle”
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Max Beckmann, 1918-19, *The Night (Die Nacht)*, oil on canvas, 133 x 154 cm, Kunstsammlung Nordrhein-Westfalen, Düsseldorf

Artist: Max Beckmann
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Expressionist painters, including Max Beckmann (1884-1950), Otto Dix (1891-1969), and George Grosz (1893-1959), led the *Neue Sachlichkeit* (new objectivity) movement. As World War I veterans, they produced art that reflected the brutality and inhumanity of war. Beckman's *The Night* (1919) portrayed three men invading a family home, hanging a father, raping a mother, and kidnapping a child. Dix's *Sex Murder* (1922) conveyed a woman who had been raped and murdered.

In 1928, Composer Bertolt Brecht (1898-1956) created

Die Dreigroschenoper (*The Threepenny Opera*), a satire in which the crime lord Macheath escapes the gallows and is made a Baron by Queen Victoria. Robert Wiene's (1873-1938) movie *Das Cabinet des Dr. Caligari* (*The Cabinet of Dr. Caligari*) used surreal landscapes and multiple camera angles to replicate feelings of isolation and madness. Fritz Lang's *Metropolis* (1927) likewise represented a groundbreaking science fiction film that questioned whether human beings would merge with technology in an increasingly mechanized future.

The Great Depression brought about immediate consequences for Germany. By 1932, the German

government defaulted on its loan payments to American investors, struggled to address the needs of 6 million unemployed workers, faced an industrial decline of 50%, and suffered the loss of two-thirds of its foreign trade. The aging World War I war hero turned German President Paul Hindenburg (1847-1934) used his emergency executive powers to appoint moderate Heinrich Brüning (1885-1970) as Chancellor. However, Brüning's austerity policies proved deeply unpopular with German voters. From 1930-1932, the rightwing Nazis and leftwing Socialists made massive political gains in the Reichstag. In particular, by 1932, the Nazis could boast a membership of close to 1,400,000 and appeared to be on the verge of taking over the government.

FRANCE IN THE INTERWAR PERIOD

Of all European nations, none had witnessed more physical destruction during World War I than France. By 1918, France had suffered 1.3 million casualties, witnessed another million troops return from the war permanently disabled, and watched as 13,000 square miles of French territory became transformed into a bloody no man's land choked with trenches, shell craters and barbed wire. Aided by war reparation funds and American loans, the French economy successfully weathered the transition back to a peacetime economy. As such, France survived the Great Depression more effectively than Britain, Germany, or the U.S. French unemployment remained under 5%, industrial production only fell by 20%, and there was no run on the banks as there was in the U.S. The Great Depression brought to power conservative French leaders who placed restrictions on immigrants and created tariffs to protect French domestic industries. In keeping with this isolationist way of thinking, the French government began construction of the Maginot Line, 280 miles of fortifications, pillboxes and bunkers along the French-German border. Worried that Germany would seek revenge for its humiliating defeat in World War I and hoping to spare the French population the slaughter of another world war, the Maginot Line was devised in order to delay an all-out German assault until fresh reinforcements could be dispatched to the front.

However, France's greatest achievements in the interwar period were intellectual and cultural rather

than economic or military. During the 1920s, Paris became the center for a vibrant community of foreign writers, poets, painters and intellectuals who sought to experiment with new forms of artistic expression against the backdrop of Parisian culture. American writers such as E. E. Cummings (1894-1962), William Faulkner (1897-1962), F. Scott Fitzgerald (1896-1940), Ernest Hemingway (1899-1961), Ezra Pound (1885-1972) and Katherine Anne Porter (1890-1980) created some of their most memorable works in Paris. African-Americans, including Josephine Baker (1906-1975), Langston Hughes (1901-1967) and Richard Wright (1908-1960) likewise flocked to Paris to live and work in an environment free of much of the racism they encountered back home.

Following World War I, a new generation of surrealists like the poet André Breton (1896-1966) and painters Salvador Dali (1904-1989) and Paul Delvaux (1897-1994) created works that integrated subconscious feelings into scenes of everyday life, creating a sense of "super objectivity" that freed audience's minds from the preconceptions of rationalism. Marcel Proust's *À la Recherche du Temps Perdu* (Remembrance of Things Past) experimented with using stream-of-consciousness writing to analyze the author's sense of dislocation from contemporary society.

ITALY IN THE INTERWAR PERIOD

Italy had the most complicated history of all the nations that fought in World War I. In 1882, Italy joined the German and Austrian Empires in forming the Triple Alliance. Wary of siding with its old adversary Austria, Italian officials declared their neutrality in August 1914. The following year Italy joined the Triple Entente hoping to gain the culturally Italian but Austrian-occupied areas of Trentino, South Tyrol and Trieste. In April 1915, Italy declared war on its former allies. However, as Italy remained an overwhelmingly rural country, it lacked the industrial base to equip its military. Although Italian troops attempted several advances against Austria, they failed to make a breakthrough. It was only in October 1918 that a combined army of Italian, British and French troops broke through the Austro-Hungarian lines. The Austrians then sued for peace a week before the Germans did likewise.

Although Italy was among the “Big Four” at the Paris Peace Conference, the British, French and American delegations did little to help them gain Austrian territory. Italian resentment at the Treaty of Versailles gave journalist and former socialist turned fascist Benito Mussolini (1883-1945) political ammunition to use in his rise to power. In March 1919, Mussolini formed his first *fasci di combattimento* (fighting leagues). Although he coopted certain progressive ideas, such as an eight-hour workday and women’s suffrage, Mussolini primarily pushed an anti-socialist message. A month later, Mussolini’s “black shirts” burned down the offices of a socialist newspaper in Milan and killed four people. Within a year, fascists broke up strikes, suppressed labor unions and intimidated political officials. From 1921-1922, known throughout Italy as the “*biennio nero*” (two black years), Mussolini’s black shirts consolidated their hold over the Italian political system.

In October 1921, Mussolini created the *Partito Nazionale Fascista* (PNF or National Fascist Party). After crushing a strike directed by the Confederation of Labor in August 1922, Mussolini led a march on Rome in October. King Victor Emmanuel III (1869-1947) appointed Mussolini Prime Minister, turning

over to him the official reins of power. For 18 months, Mussolini served as part of a coalition government but in early 1925, Mussolini ordered a crackdown on all groups opposed to fascist rule. By 1927, he had abolished elections, curtailed freedom of the press, and outlawed opposition parties. The *Organizzazione di Vigilanza Repressione dell’Antifascismo* or ORVA (Organization for the Vigilant Repression of Anti-Fascism) assassinated those who opposed Mussolini’s regime. Fascist-led committees controlled school curricula and approved textbooks. The government also arranged national holidays and vacations for workers. The government even attempted to control language by banning foreign-sounding words, renaming public places, and promoting fascist slogans such as “Mussolini ha sempre ragione” (“Mussolini is always right”), “*Credere, obbedire, combattere*” (“Believe, obey, fight”), and “*Un Popolo, un impero, un capo*” (“One people, one empire, one leader”). Of all the segments of Italian society, only the Roman Catholic Church remained independent of fascist control. In February 1929, Mussolini’s government allowed Vatican City to become an independent nation. The Church also maintained control over church lands and schools.



Parade for the 17th Anniversary of MVSN

Artist: Unknown
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Italian propaganda poster depicting the shooting of a traitor.

Artist: Gino Boccasile
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As Italy had been among the victors of World War I, it did not have to face the issue of reparation payments. However, in 1926 inflation set in, and unemployment started to rise. Following the outbreak of the Great Depression in 1929, Italy's fascist government created public works and welfare programs and provided loans to banks and businesses. Fascist trade unions, known as syndicates, secured a 40-hour work week, welfare benefits, vacation time and pensions. Committees of business owners and workers, known as corporations, arbitrated labor issues. A system of tariffs protected Italian farmers and wine growers.

Having failed to gain Austrian-held territory at the end of World War I, Italy attempted to build an overseas empire in the 1920s. As early as 1912, Italy had defeated the Ottoman Empire in a brief war through which it

gained Libya. When Mussolini came to power, he often postured as a modern-day Caesar, referring to the Mediterranean by its traditional Roman name as the *mare nostrum* (our sea). In 1923, Mussolini used the murder of four Italians on the Greek island of Corfu to occupy the area until reparations were made. The following year he strong-armed Yugoslavia into giving Italy the city of Fiume on the Dalmatian coast. In October 1935, Italy invaded Ethiopia. Although Emperor Haile Selassie (1892-1975) and his forces fought bravely, the 400,000-strong Italian army crushed all resistance. In April 1939, Italian troops occupied Albania, made the teaching of Italian mandatory in Albanian schools, and stocked the Albanian government with Italian officials.

Italy's aggressive foreign policy worried other European nations. In May 1935, Britain and France slapped



Pirelli Tower - Milan

Artist: Paolo Monti
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economic sanctions on Italy. Mussolini responded by allying with Nazi Germany and creating the “Rome-Berlin Axis.” In May 1939, Mussolini and Hitler signed the “Pact of Steel,” which committed each nation to support the other in case of invasion. Ironically, when Germany and the USSR invaded Poland on September 1, 1939, Italy once again declared itself neutral.

Like Germany, the devastation of World War I and the political turmoil of the 1920s inspired Italian architects, artists and filmmakers to find new forms of expression. Inspired by the futurist movement, Italian architects like Gio Ponti (1891-1979) and Giovanni Muzio (1893-1982) developed the *novacento italiano* (Italian twentieth century) movement. In particular, Ponti’s Pirelli Tower and Villa Planchart utilized glass, steel and concrete to create large structures that projected strength and functionality. Artists like Fortunato Depero (1892-1960) likewise produced paintings and

sculptures that celebrated industrial development and the development of new technologies.

Throughout the 1920s, Italy was home to the “Italian Futurism” movement in filmmaking. Futurist directors, including Filippo Tommaso Marinetti (1876-1944), Arnaldo Ginna (1890-1982), Bruno Corra (1892-1976) and Giacomo Balla (1871-1958), created cinematic innovations such as superimposition, fade-outs and the use of light and color to mimic human emotions. In the 1910s, Corra and Ginna experimented with adding color to film. Anton Giulio Bragaglia’s (1890-1960) *Thaïs* (1917) dealt with the tortured love affairs of Countess Vera Preobrajenska. As the movie’s scenes become more surreal, her trysts and their implications become more complicated. Because the Fascists heavily censored movies in the 1920s and 1930s, the Italian film industry declined, only to enter a golden age in the postwar period with the works of Federico Fellini (1920-1993) and Sergio Leone (1929-1989).



Contemporary Map of Middle East

Artist: User "Cacahuete" (amendments by Globe-trotter and Joelf)
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THE MIDDLE EAST DURING THE INTERWAR PERIOD

After the First World War, a series of mandates were established that gave Britain and France control over vast territories in the Middle East. The establishment of the Mandate System did little to ease tensions between various groups in the Middle East. The British Mandate for Palestine further complicated the situation between Arabs and Jewish people in

the region. The key issue was the migration of Jewish people from Europe to the Middle East. Arab leaders and people wanted to restrict migration, while various Jewish people and organizations hoped to promote and increase migration. During the war, the British had reached understandings with both Arabs and Jewish people on the future of the Middle East. After the war, British policy focused upon their own geopolitical considerations and this led to both Arabs and Jewish authorities losing faith in the British.

Theodor Herzl

Artist: Carl Pietzner
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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“Mandatory Palestine in 1946”

Artist: User “Bolter21”
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The British lacked a clear and comprehensive policy for the Mandate and the Middle East as a whole. Inspired by its chief proponent Theodor Herzl (1860-1904), the development of Zionism in the later 19th century put further pressure on the British as Jewish people the world over began looking to develop their own state. Zionism encouraged many Jewish people to migrate to the Middle East which increased friction between Arabs and Jewish people.

Beginning in the early 1920s, the United States began restricting immigration from Eastern Europe. Until the passing of more restrictive rules, the U.S. had been one of the most popular destinations for Jewish immigrants from Eastern Europe. In response to this policy, Jewish migration to the Middle East increased. This further accelerated after 1933 when Adolf Hitler became Chancellor of Germany. The British Mandate lasted until 1948. The day before the British Mandate for Palestine was set to expire, David Ben-Gurion (1886-1973) announced the creation of an independent Israel. In 1949, after fighting a coalition of Arab forces, Israel became a member of the United Nations.

DISARMAMENT

The Interwar period was a time of massive change throughout the world. At the end of the First World War, Russia remained embroiled in a civil war; the German, Austro-Hungarian and Ottoman Empires lay in ruins; and new countries like Poland, Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia struggled to survive. For the first time, the United States played a leading role in rebuilding the nations of Europe along democratic lines. However, the outbreak of the Great Depression led to the rise of fascism in Germany, Italy and Spain.

The sheer devastation of World War I led to a disarmament movement in the early 1920s. In 1921, U.S. Secretary of State Charles Evans Hughes (1862-1948) led the Washington Naval Conference, which agreed to limit the number of warships each of the leading naval powers of the world could possess. In 1930, the British

government hosted a similar conference in London that limited the number of cruisers and submarines each nation could have.

Most remarkably, in 1928, French Foreign Minister Aristide Briand (1862-1932) and U.S. Secretary of State Frank B. Kellogg (1856-1937) met in Paris with the leaders of 13 other nations to sign the Kellogg-Briand Pact that outlawed war as a means of dispute resolution. Although well-meaning, the signers of the pact had no way of enforcing it.

THE UNITED STATES IN THE INTERWAR PERIOD

Due to the shortages caused by World War I, many Americans saved their money. Following the conflict's end, they spent freely on new fashions, art, homes and other examples of material consumption. Flappers with



Briand and Kellogg 1928

Artist: Unknown
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New Orleans Rhythm Kings

Artist: Unknown
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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bobbed hair and sheiks in zoot suits danced to the latest tunes in jazz clubs. Suffragettes marched in favor of women's rights, teetotalers celebrated the prohibition of alcohol, families drove to silent movies in model A and model T Fords, and barnstormers dazzled crowds with their death-defying biplane stunts.

The rise of the American automobile industry fundamentally transformed American society. Although commercially available since the 1890s, the earliest cars were notoriously expensive and accident-prone. However, in 1908 Michigan-born inventor Henry T. Ford (1863-1947) began production of his Model-T Ford automobile. By experimenting with assembly lines and standardized and interchangeable parts and by paying his employees \$5 a day, Ford lowered production costs and created the first motor car that millions of middle-class families could practically afford. Other fledgling car companies followed suit, and by the onset of the Great Depression, 23 million cars plied American roads. In addition to providing new transportation and employment opportunities, automobiles provided Americans with more leisure, vacation and socializing time.

The interwar period also witnessed the golden age of the American movie industry. Blessed with a moderate climate and a variety of natural environments, Hollywood, California rapidly emerged as ground zero for movie making. Much as Henry Ford had used assembly lines to churn out cheap, affordable cars, so to enterprising Hollywood producers such as Adolph Zukor (1873-1976) of Paramount Studios; Louis B. Mayer (c. 1883-1957) of Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer (MGM); and Jack (1892-1978), Harry (1881-1958), Albert (1884-1967) and Sam Warner (1885-1927) of Warner Brothers developed the studio system to produce cost-effective movies that were then distributed to movie theaters across the nation. For the price of 15 cents, ordinary Americans could laugh at the comedic slapstick of Charlie Chaplin (1889-1977) in *The Kid* (1921), delight in the swashbuckling adventures of Douglas Fairbanks (1883-1939) in *The Mask of Zorro* (1920), experience the complexities of love with Greta Garbo (1905-1990) in *Flesh and the Devil* (1927), or witness the grandeur of middle eastern culture in Rudolph Valentino's (1895-1926) *The Sheik* (1921). With the appearance of Al Jolson's (1886-1950) *The Jazz Singer* in 1927, "talkies" became popular with American audiences. However, early American cinema also had a darker side. In 1916,



Marlene Dietrich
Monitor NBC Radio

Artist: NBC Radio
 Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Born into an upper-class family in Berlin in 1901, Marie Magdalene “Marlene” Dietrich (1901-1992) developed an interest in theater at a young age. After failing to gain admission to a classical dance academy, Dietrich found success as a chorus girl and singer in German vaudeville. She eventually transitioned into leading roles in plays and musicals, including Frank Wedekind’s (1864-1918) *Pandora’s Box*, William Shakespeare’s (1564-1616) *The Taming of the Shrew*, and George Bernard Shaw’s (1856-1950) *Back to Methuselah*. After appearing in German movies such as *Café Elektric* (1927), *I Kiss Your Hand, Madame* (1928), and *The Ship of Lost Souls* (1929), Dietrich moved to the United States in 1930 to break into the American film industry. Her leading performances in *The Blue Angel* (1930), *Shanghai Express* (1932) and *Desire* (1936) garnered both box office sales and critical acclaim. Much like the formidable, independent characters she played on screen, Dietrich led a fashionable lifestyle and was often in the public eye. Much like many male actors of the time, she pursued an active social life. She reportedly had liaisons with Gary Cooper (1901-1961), Douglas Fairbanks Jr. (1909-2000), Jimmy Stewart (1908-1997), Erich Maria Remarque (1898-1970), John Wayne (1907-1979) and John F. Kennedy (1917-1963). Conscious of her German background, Dietrich worked actively during the Second World War to entertain American troops and appear in films that popularized the Allied war effort. During the 1950s, Dietrich returned to performing in plays. She passed away in Paris in 1992, leaving behind a legacy as one of Hollywood’s most popular and successful stars.

D. W. Griffith’s (1875-1948) *Birth of a Nation* shattered box office records but invoked blatant racism to depict black politicians during Reconstruction as corrupt and licentious while portraying the Ku Klux Klan as the virtuous defenders of white, southern womanhood.

During the First World War over 380,000 African-Americans served in the U.S. war effort. While living in France, they were treated with the same respect as white soldiers. Upon returning home at war’s end, many black veterans refused to return to the status of second-class citizens under segregation laws. During the “Red Summer of 1919,” a series of race riots broke out in cities across America. Riots initially broke out in Washington, D.C. and Norfolk, Virginia in July. In Chicago, the stoning death of a young black man for swimming near a segregated beach led to a riot that left 38 dead and over 500 injured. Two years later, white mobs burned and looted the black business district of Tulsa, Oklahoma, killing upwards of 300 and injuring 800. During this period, violence against African American people, including hundreds of lynchings, were carried out throughout the nation.



Irish Republican
Volunteers in Spain,
February 2, 1937

Author: Unknown
 Source: Wikimedia
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SPAIN IN THE INTERWAR PERIOD

In the 1930s, Spain became the site of a bloody civil war. In 1936, the Spanish military and conservative Catholics revolted against the elected Spanish government. Mussolini and Hitler supplied General Francisco Franco's (1892-1975) "Franconia" forces with weapons, vehicles and advisors. The conflict also served as a training ground for Italian and German troops who would go on to fight in World War II. The Republican or Loyalist forces who continued to support Spain's constitutional government received aid from Mexico and the Soviet Union. After four years of bloody fighting, Franco's forces emerged victorious. However, the war also convinced many otherwise ambivalent Americans, British and French that fascism represented a growing danger to their countries.

JAPAN IN THE INTERWAR PERIOD

While the Spanish Civil War raged in Europe, the Japanese Empire began to emerge as the dominant military power in Asia. After the United States forced

Japan at gunpoint to end its two-hundred-year policy of isolation in the 1850s, the Japanese government adopted the Meiji reforms, seeking to modernize its country by borrowing from western examples. For instance, the Japanese created textile factories based on British precedents, telegraph and electric lights based on American models, and a modern military that resembled Germany's armed forces.

To sustain its increasingly industrial economy, Japanese leaders considered creating colonies throughout Asia to supply the motherland with raw materials. During World War I, Japan joined the Entente powers to seize German-held territories in China. At the Paris Peace Conference in 1919, the Japanese delegation proposed an amendment to the Versailles Treaty that would forbid any member of the proposed League of Nations from discriminating against other members based on race. When the measure was defeated, Japan began reconsidering its relationship with its western allies. By the 1930s, the Japanese government was becoming increasingly conservative and xenophobic. In September 1931, the Japanese military seized control of Manchuria. It created the puppet state of Manchukuo, ruled by Henry Puyi (1906-1967), the last Qing emperor. When the League of Nations asserted that Japan had acted illegally in taking Manchuria, Japan pulled out of the organization.

SUMMARY

Even today, the interwar period remains one of the least understood eras in world history. Many who fought in World War I believed that the conflict would end quickly and with little loss of life. Four years and 37 million deaths later, the fighting ended with an armistice. However, many of the problems which had led to the outbreak of war in August 1914 remained unresolved. The German and Austro-Hungarian empires had fallen, and the ethnic minorities they had governed over now sought to establish their own nation-states. In the early 1920s, western European nations like Germany and France took tentative steps toward political liberalization. However, the bloody legacy of the First World War led to a questioning of traditional western morality, religion and art. The scholars and artists of the interwar years experimented with new architectural, painting and cinematic techniques to capture the randomness and absurdity of the world around them. Following the Great Depression, large sections of the middle classes in western nations found themselves unemployed, destitute and willing to follow fascist leaders that promised a return to the power of traditional monarchies and empires but with the trappings of elections and representative government. By the 1930s, the rise of Hitler in Germany, Mussolini in Italy and Franco in Spain seemed to mark the beginning of a new era of authoritarianism in Europe. It would take another world war and a drawn-out cold war before democracy became a possibility for millions of people around the world.

13

World War II



Selection on the ramp at Auschwitz-Birkenau, 1944

Artist: Unknown
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Fought from 1939-1945, World War II was the bloodiest war in world history. Fought in theaters stretching from the frozen fields of Russia to the sweltering jungles of Myanmar, the Second World War witnessed the defeat and division of Germany, the use of nuclear weapons on Japan, the expansion of Soviet-style communism throughout Eastern Europe, the emergence of the United States as a superpower, and the decline of colonial empires around the world.

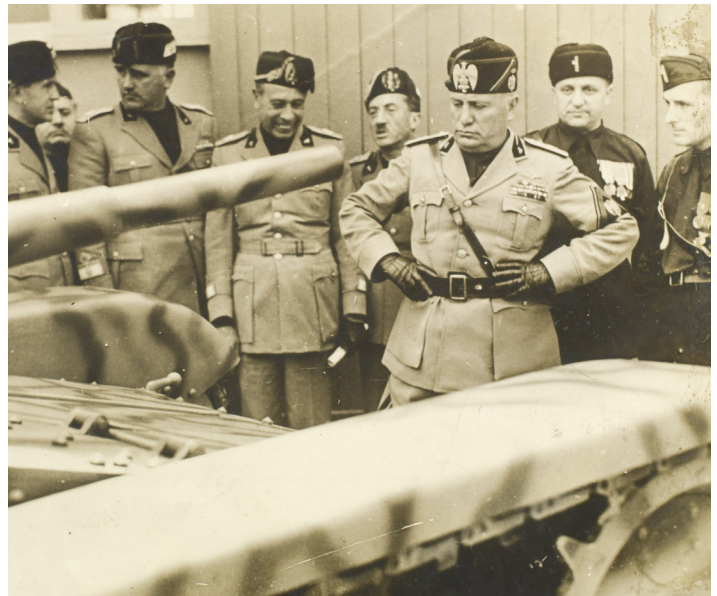
In many ways, the failures of the Paris Peace Conference set the stage for the Second World War. Held at the French palace of Versailles in 1919, the conference included representatives from the victorious powers Great Britain, France, Italy (who had been an ally of Germany and Austro-Hungary until 1915), and the United States. Germany and the Soviet Union were not allowed representation. While U.S. President Woodrow Wilson (1856-1924) wanted to create a peace treaty

with lenient terms, the British and French wanted harsh punishments for the defeated nations. They created a peace treaty and terms that forced Germany to accept the blame for starting the war and to agree to pay steep reparation payments to Britain and France.

THE RISE OF FASCISM

The United States, which did not sign the Versailles Peace Treaty, agreed to loan money to Germany to finance its reparation payments. However, the postwar Weimar government of Germany faced consistent economic stagnation and inflated currency throughout the 1920s. In 1929, the Great Depression undermined economies and governments on both sides of the Atlantic. Desperate Europeans began turning to radical political figures who promised solutions to their problems. In 1922, Italians elected journalist and World War I veteran Benito Mussolini (1883-1945) as Prime Minister.

Germans watched events in Italy with much interest. In 1923, Adolph Hitler (1889-1945), a veteran of World War I and National Socialist German Workers' Party (Nazi) leader, launched an armed coup against the Weimar Government. Defeated and thrown into prison, Hitler wrote a biography entitled, *Mein Kampf* (*My Struggle*). In this work, Hitler discussed his service as a corporal in the German Army during World War I, his disillusionment with the Kaiser's surrender, and his brushes with poverty in the 1920s. Throughout his work, Hitler railed against Jews, whom he blamed for the rise of international communism and Germany's defeat in the Great War. He also stressed that Germans had a "national destiny" in gaining lebensraum (or living room) in Eastern Europe.



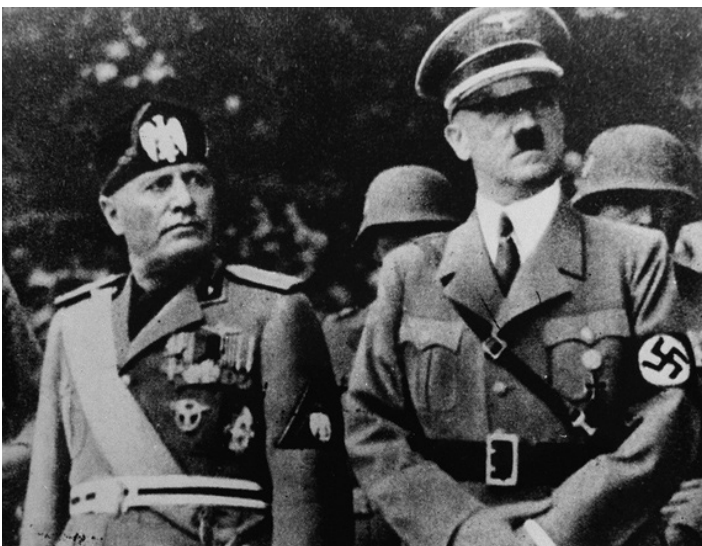
Benito Mussolini

Artist: Unknown
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Born into a working-class family in Romagna, Italy in 1883, Benito Mussolini was named after Mexican revolutionary Benito Juárez (1806-1872). After serving two years in the Italian military, Mussolini became a journalist. Well-versed in the works of leftist European intellectuals, he became a leading Italian socialist. When the First World War broke out, Mussolini broke with socialism and became a corporal in the Italian army. In 1919, he founded the first Italian fascist party. Three years later, Mussolini and 20,000 fascist followers marched on Rome to demand the resignation of Italian Prime Minister Luigi Facta (1861-1930). Appointed as the new prime minister, Mussolini set out to remake Italian society in his image. A master of propaganda, Mussolini projected the image of a strong leader who dressed in military costumes, surrounded himself with his armed Black Shirt followers, and used parades and radio broadcast speeches to enhance his reputation. Taking on the moniker of El Duce (or leader), Mussolini dismantled Italy's constitution to create a police state under his control. In doing so, Mussolini created the first fascist state in Europe. Fascism differed from traditional authoritarianism in that fascist leaders were often democratically elected, exalted nationalism above any other consideration, created cults of personality surrounding their leaders and concentrated political power in the hands of dictators and their followers.

Benito Mussolini and Adolf Hitler

Artist: Unknown
Source: United States Holocaust Memorial Museum
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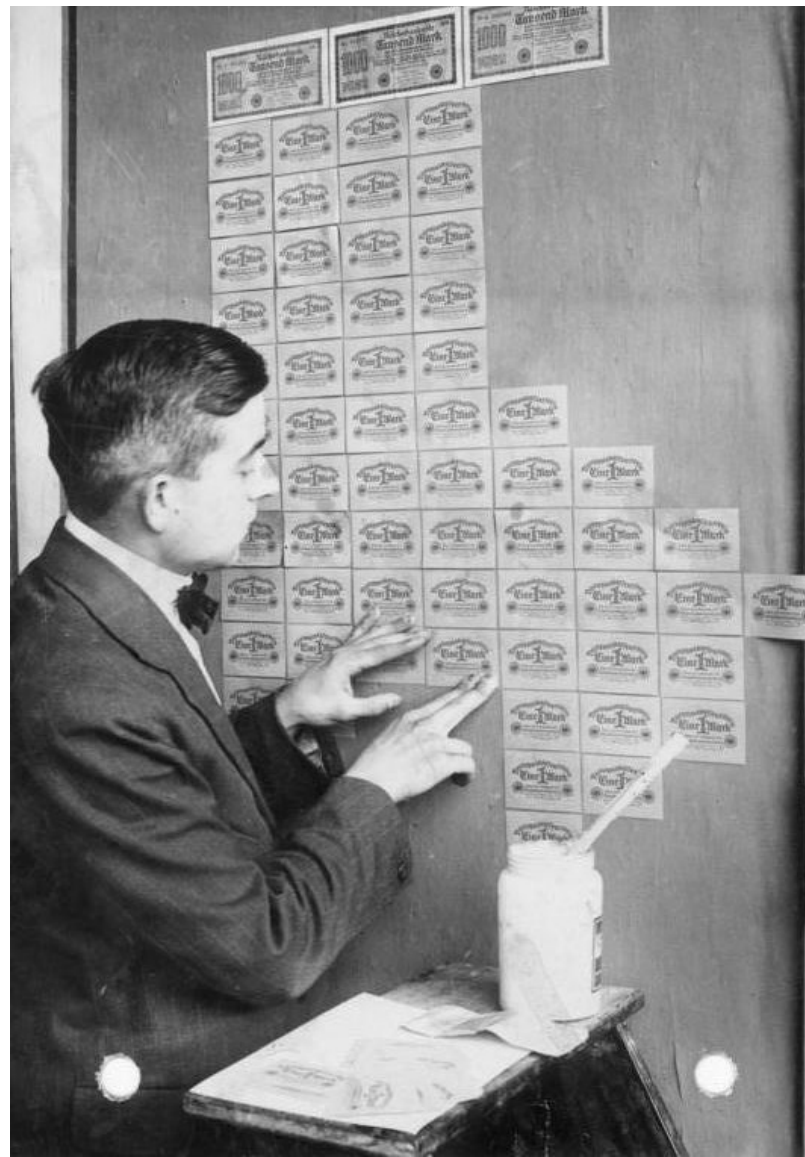


For an individual who would cause the death of millions, Adolph Hitler came from an unremarkable background. Born to a single mother, Hitler was raised in Braunau am Inn in Austro-Hungary, near the German border. After his mother died of cancer, Hitler became a homeless watercolor artist living on the streets of Vienna. In 1914, he volunteered for service in the German army, serving as a dispatch runner. While recovering from a mustard gas attack, Hitler learned of Germany's surrender. Devastated, Hitler believed that Jews and subversives had undermined the German war effort from within. He became a member of the German Worker's Party in 1919. A master orator, Hitler soon became a rising star in the organization. When the party rebranded itself the National Socialist Workers Democratic Party (or Nazi Party for short), Hitler designed its swastika insignia. In 1921, Hitler became the undisputed leader of the Nazi Party.

Two years later, Hitler and his followers attempted a military coup to take over the German government. Referred to as the "Beer Hall Putsch" because it began in a Munich beer hall, Hitler's movement failed, and he received a five-year prison sentence. Realizing that he could achieve his goals through mass party mobilization rather than a coup, Hitler, after being released from prison, began working toward gaining control of the German government.

By the 1920s, the inability of the Weimar government to address the problems of war reparations and inflation caused the regime to become very unpopular in the eyes of the German public. Hitler agitated for overturning the Treaty of Versailles and making Germany great again. Before the Weimar Republic came into being, Germany was controlled by authoritarian rulers. After the surrender in World War I, a new constitution was written, which established a democratic government, that had a president, chosen by the German people, who appointed a chancellor and cabinet ministers.

As hyperinflation set in following the outbreak of the Great Depression, many Germans lost their pensions. The death of Chancellor Gustav Stresemann (1878-1929) further weakened the Weimar government. The German economy also relied heavily on U.S. loans, and when the Great Depression hit, Washington discontinued the program. The downfall of the German economy in 1930-1931, eventually paved the way for the ascent of the Nazis to political power. Unemployment rose from



Germany, 1923: banknotes had lost so much value that they were used as wallpaper

Artist: Georg Pahl

Source: Wikimedia Commons

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2.25 million in early 1930 to 6 million and beyond in 1932. It significantly affected the governing coalition of Social Democrats and moderate conservatives, which collapsed leading to new elections. Those on the right (the Nazis) and the left (Communists) gained followers and with that, seats in the Reichstag. In 1930, the Nazis won 107 seats (they had held only 12 after the previous election). As the economy became more and more unstable, Hitler promised that the Nazi Party would combat unemployment and provide aid to farmers.

In the next national election, the Nazi Party won 14.5 million out of 35 million votes, making it the largest

party in the government. Hitler continued to agitate for reform and was eventually appointed chancellor by President Paul Hindenburg (1847-1934) on January 30, 1933. Within eight weeks, Hitler created a dictatorship. He proclaimed his office to be the true source of executive, legislative and judicial power, eliminated competing political groups, and stirred up the masses against the biggest and most dangerous enemies of the Nazis: the communists.

The National Socialists also gained momentum in the German Reichstag due to the disagreement among left-wing forces. The Social Democrats refused to work with the Communist Party because of their radical views. In March 1932, Ernst Thälman (1886-1944) ran for the German presidency against the Social Democrat Hindenburg and Hitler. The famous slogan of the KPD was “A vote for Hindenburg is a vote for Hitler. A vote for Hitler is a vote for war.” After Thälman lost the election, he tried to persuade the leaders of the SPD to organize a general strike to prevent the National Socialists from taking power. Having been refused, Thälman pushed for the overthrow of Hitler’s government.



Ernst Thälman

Artist: Agence de press Meurisse
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In late February 1933, the Reichstag building caught fire. Claiming that the state was in danger, Hitler persuaded President Hindenburg to grant him emergency powers. The Nazis accused the Communist Party of setting the fire. This gave them an excuse to arrest and silence critical left-wing opponents. Thälman was arrested on March 3, 1933, and spent 11 years in solitary confinement. In August 1944, he was sent to Buchenwald concentration camp. The same month, Hitler ordered that he be killed.

On March 5, 1933, the Nazis won 43.9% of the votes in the Reichstag. Using the near majority, Hitler passed the Enabling Act, granting him and his government the power to rule by decree. To solidify his power, Hitler banned the Communist Party and arrested its leaders so they could no longer vote against him. Within a month, Hitler transformed the German government from a democracy to an authoritarian dictatorship. In April 1933, new laws were passed to remove opposition party members from all government departments. In May 1933, all trade unions were banned and reorganized into a Nazi-controlled organization, the German Labor Front or DAF (Deutsche Arbeitsfront). The Social Democratic Party was outlawed as well. By July 1933, all political parties except the Nazis were banned, as Germany became a one-party dictatorship.

Having seized control of the German political system, Hitler turned next to stifling dissent within his own ranks. During his rise to power, Hitler had used the Nazi party to formally agitate for more power. However, behind the scenes he relied upon a group of paramilitary party members known as the Sturmabteilung (storm battalion), informally known as the SA or the “Brownshirts” due to their habit of dressing in brown shirts complete with ties. Hitler used the Brownshirts to intimidate, beat or even kill political rivals. Although many Brownshirts were World War I veterans completely loyal to Hitler, they were also a well-trained and well-armed group that could at times prove difficult to rein in. In June 1930, Hitler received word of a rumor that SA leader Ernst Röhm (1887-1934) planned to launch a coup against him. On June 30 to July 2, Hitler ordered a group of handpicked Brownshirts and Gestapo (secret police) agents to purge Röhm and his followers. Hitler used his emergency powers to suspend all political and civil rights, to arrest anyone suspicious of agitating against the government, and keep them in

prison indefinitely without fair trials or due process. As only Nazi Party members could now become judges, Hitler's regime controlled what judicial processes remained in Germany.

The Nazis reorganized Germany into *Gaue*, or districts, and put them under the command of Gauleiters (district leaders). Each town was also divided into smaller units called *Viertel*s (quarters). Each quarter had its own warden who would monitor his section and investigate suspicious individuals. The warden was the direct link to the Nazi Party. People were encouraged to report their families, neighbors and friends if they were not in full support of Hitler and the Nazi Party.

Within the state, all cultural activities were geared toward propagating the ideology of National Socialism. Many cultural events were organized to show open support for Hitler. Everything was strictly controlled, and non-monitored art and cultural activities were prohibited. The Nazis used an immense propaganda machine to support Hitler and the Nazi state. Joseph Goebbels (1897-1945) was put in charge of the Nazi propaganda programs, which were broadcasted through completely controlled radio stations, cinemas, speeches, parades and rallies, youth organizations and K-12 education. Given limited opportunities, women were told to concern themselves with "children, church, kitchen" (*Kinder, Kirche, Küche*).



Map of the Holocaust in Europe during World War II, 1939-1945, showing death camps, most major concentration camps, labor camps, ghettos, major deportation routes, and major massacre sites.

Artist: User "Emdee"; Derivate of WW2-Holocaust-Europe-2007Borders.png by User "Dna-Dennis"
 User "Dna-Dennis"
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Hitler worked closely with Heinrich Himmler (1900-1945), the head of the SS and the Gestapo. Himmler headed the Reich Security Main Office, which was charged with internal safety and security. He is also seen as the principal architect of the concentration and death camps. Concentration and death camps housed political opponents and were used to systematically murder people – most of them Jews.

On September 15, 1935, the Nazi government announced the passage of a slew of laws that discriminated against Jewish people. These Nuremberg Laws, (the Reich Citizenship Law and the Law for the Protection of German Blood and German Honor) emphasized that Germans, but not Jewish people, belonged to the so-called Aryan race. According to these discriminatory laws, Jewish people threatened the purity of the German people and thus, the Nazis believed that they had to identify and separate Jews from German society. The law banned marriages and relationships with Jews and pushed Jews into ghettos. The rules also applied to the Sinti and Roma communities. The Reich Citizenship Law underscored that only racially pure people could hold German citizenship, which meant that Jews could never be considered full German citizens. The situation worsened in 1938 when new laws were passed that prohibited Jews from any participation in public life. The regulations also highlighted if Jews were to

emigrate that they would surrender their property to the German state. Furthermore, Jews had to publicly wear a yellow star embossed with the word “Jew” and obtain a “J” label on their passports. On November 9, 1938, during Kristallnacht (Night of the Broken Glass), over 7500 Jewish businesses and over 400 synagogues were destroyed, more than 90 Jews were killed, and over 30,000 arrested.

At the Wannsee Conference in Berlin in 1942, Hitler suggested the Final Solution for the Jewish problem. Jews were collected from the ghettos and sent to the death camps in Poland. The Holocaust did not end until Germany’s defeat in 1945 and the end of World War II. By the time of their liberation, over 6 million Jews died in the Holocaust and another 6 million Romani, Slavs and other targeted groups had also been killed by the Nazis. Millions of prisoners of war, especially from the Soviet Union, also died at the hands of the Nazis.

Many people blindly supported Hitler because he reduced unemployment. He built up the German weapon industry, which created many jobs and helped promote economic efficiency. Overall unemployment fell from 6 million in 1933 to below 1 million in 1939. The rearmament benefited big enterprises especially. Although the overall economy did not necessarily improve under Hitler’s leadership, the German



Civilians watch a Kristallnacht: Nazi officer vandalizes Jewish property, most likely in Fürth, outside Nuremberg.

Artist: Unknown
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Kristallnacht was a wave of state-sponsored terrorism directed against Germany’s Jews from November 9-10, 1938. In early November, Nazi officials expelled over 5,000 Jews of Polish descent from Germany. When learning that his parents had been among the deportees, 17-year-old Herschel Grynszpan (b. 1921) assassinated Ernest vom Rath (1909-1938), a German embassy official in Paris. Vom Rath died on November 9, the anniversary of Hitler’s 1923 attempted coup known as the “Beer Hall Putsch.” When Hitler’s propaganda minister Joseph Goebbels suggested that his followers begin a series of spontaneous demonstrations to protest the assassination of vom Rath, violence against Jewish synagogues, businesses and homes broke out across Germany, Austria and the Sudetenland. By the morning of November 10, over 7,500 Jewish businesses had been looted, and nearly a hundred victims lay dead.

people saw shrinking unemployment, vigorous social investment policies, and some prosperity. An increased industrial effort was centered on the armament industries and presupposed the coming of a war.

RISE OF THE SOVIET UNION

Hitler's lebensraum plans brought him into conflict with the Soviet Union. In October 1917, Vladimir Ilyich Lenin's Bolshevik forces overthrew the government of Czar Nicholas II. Executing the czar and his family, the revolutionaries announced the creation of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the first Communist state in the world. As secretary general of the Central Committee of the Communist Party, Lenin signed a humiliating peace treaty, surrendered territory to Germany, and fought off challenges from Russian military forces still loyal to the old czarist regime. He also nationalized all aspects of Russia's economy and began plans to industrialize the nation. In 1924, Lenin suffered a series of strokes and died in office. Joseph Stalin (1870-1953), a Georgian native who had trained to become a priest before becoming a full-time communist revolutionary, became the new leader of the USSR. A bold visionary and brutal dictator, Stalin announced the creation of Russia's first five-year plan by which industry would be pursued at all costs and private farms would be collectivized. Stalin rapidly increased the size of the Soviet military and instituted a secret police force known as the NKVD to crack down on dissenters. During the Great Purge, which lasted from 1936-1938, Stalin's agents targeted millions of intellectuals, writers, religious leaders, ethnic minorities and other "enemies of the state."

THE WAR BEGINS

In 1936, Nazi Germany annexed Austria. Two years later, Hitler demanded that Czechoslovakia hand over a border area inhabited by ethnic Germans known as the Sudetenland. At a conference with British, French and Italian delegates in Munich, Germany, Hitler promised that if granted the Sudetenland, he would make no more territorial demands. Upon returning home, British

Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain (1869-1940) told a worried British public that he had obtained "peace in our time." Signaling their intentions to check German expansion, Britain and France signed a mutual defense pact with Poland in April 1939. The following month Germany and Italy signed the "Pact of Steel," which pledged mutual support in the case of invasion. In August 1939, German and Soviet delegates signed the Molotov-Ribbentrop Nonaggression Pact, by which they agreed not to invade one another for the next 10 years.

The campaign fought between Nazi Germany and the USSR constituted one of the bloodiest theaters of World War II. After signing a mutual nonaggression pact in August 1939, both nations jointly invaded Poland on September 1. Learning from the lessons of World War I, Hitler's generals utilized a new blitzkrieg strategy (lightning war). Blitzkrieg involved using strafing runs by Messerschmitt fighters and bombing raids by massive Junkers. Heavily armored but maneuverable Panzer tanks would then punch holes through enemy lines. Infantry units would then consolidate battlefield gains while special Einsatzgruppen (mobile killing) units followed behind to mop up survivors and execute captured Jews and Polish officers.

Bound by treaty obligations to defend Poland, Britain and France issued declarations of war against Germany on September 3, 1939. Britain quickly sent an expeditionary force to reinforce France. In May 1940, German forces led by General Erwin Rommel (1891-1944) launched an invasion of France, bypassing the massive Maginot Line (defensive fortifications) by moving through the neutral countries of Belgium, Luxembourg and the Netherlands. Moving quickly using their blitzkrieg tactics, German forces trapped British and French forces in Normandy. With the aid of a fleet of civilian ships, over 300,000 British and French troops were evacuated from the port of Dunkirk to the English coast. With most of its armed forces captured, France sued for peace with Germany on June 22, 1940. Germany occupied northern France while allowing a collaborationist regime headquartered in Vichy to control the southern portion of the country.



Panzer II of the 15th Panzer Division in North Africa used as Artillery Observation Tank.

Artist: Dörner
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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THE SECOND SINO-JAPANESE WAR

While fascism continued to rise in Europe, the Japanese Empire took increasingly aggressive steps to expand the size of its empire throughout Asia. In 1910, Japan annexed Korea and began programs to force native Koreans to adopt the Japanese language and culture. In 1931, Japan would invade and occupy Manchuria. The following year, Japan sponsored the creation of the puppet state of Manchukuo with Emperor Puyi (1906-1967), the last emperor of the Qing dynasty, as a figurehead. Japan began using Manchuria's natural resources to fund its burgeoning empire. Japanese settlers also began infiltrating Manchuria and encouraging the region's "Japanification." With tensions between China and Japan rising, open warfare broke out in 1937. Within months the better-armed and supplied Japanese Army captured Beijing, Shanghai

and Nanjing. During what historians would later call the Rape of Nanjing, Japanese forces looted the ancient imperial capital, leveled most of the city's infrastructure, massacred an estimated 400,000 Chinese civilians, and raped thousands of women. In September 1940, Japan, Germany and Italy signed the Tripartite or Axis Pact. Under this agreement, the newly formed Axis Powers pledged mutual aid to one another in the case of war.

BATTLE FOR BRITAIN

By the summer of 1940, with most of Europe under his control, Adolf Hitler turned his attention to Britain. Hitler never really wanted war with Britain. Hitler respected England and believed that he could still be the master of Europe without having to defeat them. After conquering much of Europe, Hitler thought he had won the war and signaled his desire for peace with Britain.



Winston Churchill at a Conference in Quebec

Artist: Unknown
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Because of the British refusal to accept or even consider peace, Hitler reluctantly ordered his staff to plan an invasion of Britain. His generals could see no clear path to using Blitzkrieg over a body of water as large as the English Channel. The German air force (Luftwaffe) offered a different approach, one they hoped would bomb Britain into submission. This led to the famous

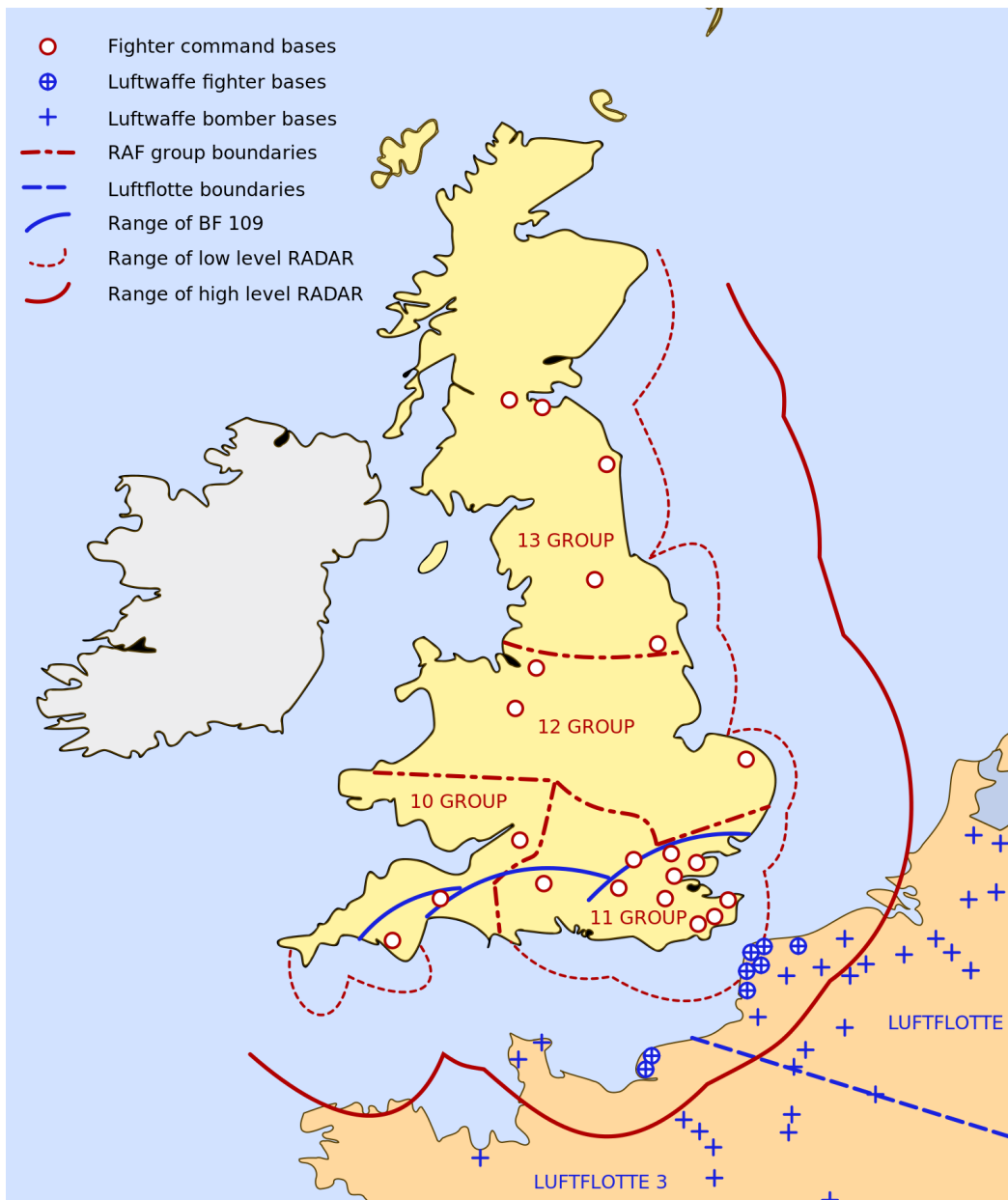
Battle of Britain; an aerial war fought between July 10 and October 31, 1940.

The Luftwaffe's plan initially targeted military installations, especially British airbases. This was a successful strategy, but for reasons still debated, the Luftwaffe switched its focus to civilian and government targets, especially those in London.

Royal Air Force Boulton Paul Defiants of No. 264 Squadron in Flight

Artist: B.J. Daventry
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Battle for Britain Boundaries, Bases and RADAR Coverage

Artist: User "Hohum"
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Battle of Britain Air Observer

Artist: Unknown Author
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Because of this change in tactics, Londoners became the first to prove that it was possible to live under the stress of nightly air raids. Aided by advances in radar technology, the British could shoot down approximately two German planes for every one it lost. This, combined with an increase in the production of the number of aircraft, ensured that Germany failed to gain aerial superiority. Hitler acknowledged this waste of resources and withdrew from the Battle of Britain in October 1940, although the bombing of Great Britain, especially at night, would last until 1941. Many see the Battle of Britain as a turning point as Hitler was forced to fight a much longer and drawn-out war.





View along the River Thames in London after an Air Raid during the Blitz

Artist: New York Times Paris Bureau Collection
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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BATTLE IN THE EAST

After knocking France out of the war and having failed to conquer Britain, Hitler turned to his plans for creating lebensraum, or “living room,” for German settlers in Eastern Europe. Viewing the Soviet Union as the primary block to his plans, Hitler ordered an invasion of Russia on June 22, 1941. Dubbed Operation Barbarossa, the charge saw three million Axis soldiers launching attacks toward Leningrad, Moscow and Ukraine. Taken by surprise, inexperienced Russian troops initially retreated before the German blitzkrieg. Minsk, Smolensk and Kyiv quickly fell to German forces. Long tired of Russian domination, some Ukrainians initially welcomed the Germans as liberators.

Worried about these developments, the United States, which had remained neutral to this point, began taking steps to support the British and Chinese war efforts. Although limited by Neutrality Acts

which sought to maintain American neutrality, U.S. President Franklin D. Roosevelt (1882-1945) secured passage of the Lend-Lease Act in March 1941, which allowed the President to exchange or lease military items, food, fuel, or any item deemed necessary for the defense and security of the United States to its allies.”

AMERICA ENTERS THE WAR

While strengthening its ties to Britain, America also took steps to contain Japanese expansionism. In July 1940, the U.S. banned all oil exports to Japan. The following year Congress ordered American banks to freeze all Japanese accounts. In September 1941, U.S. officials stopped all iron and steel sales designed to aid the Japanese war industry. American and Japanese diplomats spent much of 1941 unsuccessfully negotiating a compromise. But when the U.S. repeatedly demanded that Japan remove its forces from China, the Japanese imperial government, under the control of Prime Minister Hideki Togo (1884-1948), decided upon a preemptive



Artist: Priest, L C (Lt), Royal Navy official photographer
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President Roosevelt and Winston Churchill seated on the quarterdeck of HMS PRINCE OF WALES for a Sunday service during the Atlantic Conference, 10 August 1941

In August, Roosevelt met with British Prime Minister Winston Churchill aboard the HMS *Prince of Wales* off the coast of the Dominion of Newfoundland, to issue the Atlantic Charter of Freedom. Although not a formal treaty, the charter represented a statement of common goals both nations pledged to work toward. The charter consisted of eight points, including a pledge to seek no territorial expansion, no territorial changes except those freely agreed upon, the right of all people to choose the government under which they lived, free trade, labor and economic rights, freedom from fear and want, freedom of the seas, and the creation of a system of worldwide general security.

strike. In late November 1941, a Japanese fleet of six aircraft carriers, two battleships, six destroyers, 28 submarines and a variety of supporting craft under the command of Admiral Isoroku Yamamoto (1884-1943) began to steam toward the Hawaiian Islands. On December 7, 1941, Yamamoto ordered his troops to attack the American Pacific fleet stationed at a large naval base known as Pearl Harbor. Attacking at dawn,

Japanese Aichi and Nakajima dive bombers sank four American battleships and damaged four others. By day's end, over 2,300 American servicemen had been killed. The following day U.S. President Franklin D. Roosevelt declared December 7 "a day that would live in infamy" and asked Congress to declare war against Japan. Germany responded by declaring war on the United States. America had now entered the fray.



Center of Stalingrad after liberation

Artist: Zelma
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Following the launching of Operation Barbarossa, Stalingrad and the oil fields it defended, remained a tempting military target. Throughout summer 1942, General Friedrich von Paulus (1890-1957) and the German 6th Army advanced deep into Ukraine. By October, German Junker bombers had pummeled much of Stalingrad into dust, although Russian forces clung desperately to the city's western edge. Ordering Russian troops to hold Stalingrad at all costs, Stalin had fresh reinforcements constantly ferried into the city across the Volga River. Raw Russian recruits, many unarmed, were forced by their officers to advance on German forces under pain of death if they retreated. While Russian snipers such as Vasily Zaitsev (1915-1991) pinned down German troops inside the city, Soviet Marshall Georgi Zhukov (1896-1974) surrounded Paulus's army with two large Soviet forces. Although Hitler insisted that his troops fight to the death, Paulus surrendered his remaining 91,000 soldiers to Russian forces on February 2, 1943.

BATTLE OF STALINGRAD

In the meantime, as German forces advanced deeper into Russian territory, they faced increasingly stiff resistance plus exposure from the brutal Russian winter. German armies failed to take either Leningrad or Moscow. Over the opposition of his generals, Hitler ordered an all-out assault on the city of Stalingrad. Beginning in August 1942, General Friedrich von Paulus (1890-1957) led a combined army of 270,000 soldiers armed with 500 Panzers and 600 Junker and Stuka bombers against 187,000 Russian defenders armed with 400 outdated T-34 tanks and only 200 IL-2 monoplanes and Yakovlev single-engine fighters.

For six months, German and Russian forces waged a bloody campaign for the city involving block-by-block fighting, carpet bombing, sniper attacks, psychological warfare and starvation. With Allied military aid and their brutal “not one step backward policy,” Russian forces regained control of the city at the loss of over a million casualties. With their own losses at nearly a million men, the Germans were forced to retreat. Operation Barbarossa was a defeat, and Germany now lay open to invasion.

While Russian forces carried out the vast majority of fighting against the Axis powers, Great Britain and American troops launched a campaign to defeat German and Italian forces in Africa and thus defend the Suez Canal. British forces under General Bernard Montgomery (1887-1976) decisively defeated German General Erwin Rommel’s Afrika corps at the Battle of El Alamein in November. Having secured North Africa, British and American forces launched a successful invasion of Sicily in July 1943. In September, Allied forces landed at Salerno. Following heavy losses to entrenched German and Italian forces, Allied divisions captured Naples, Monte Cassino, and Rome. Mussolini’s fascist government collapsed, and the new regime held the former dictator prisoner. Although rescued by German commandos, he was recaptured and executed in April 1945.

D-DAY CAMPAIGN

After the Italian campaign reached a stalemate in late 1943, Allied commanders prepared plans to launch a cross-channel invasion from Britain. On June 6, 1944, 156,000 British, American, Canadian,

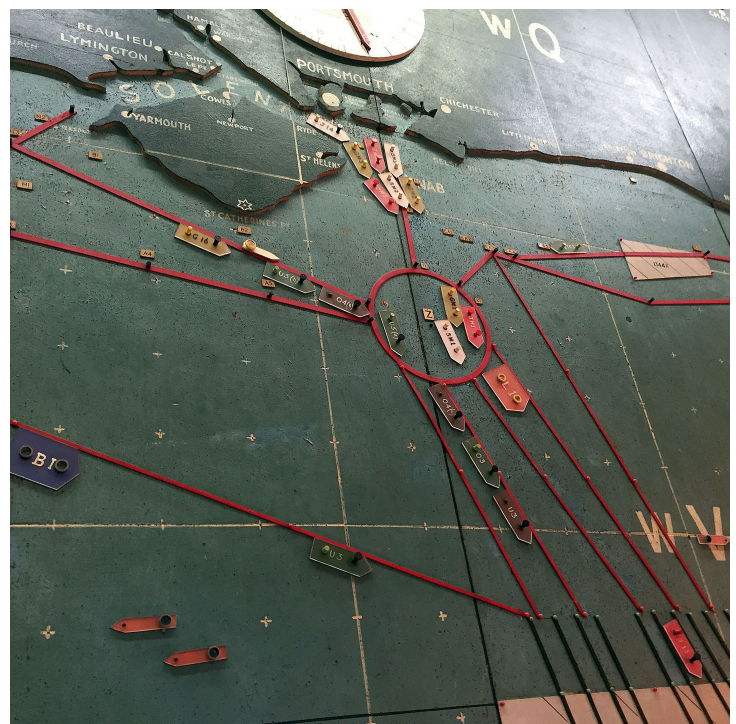


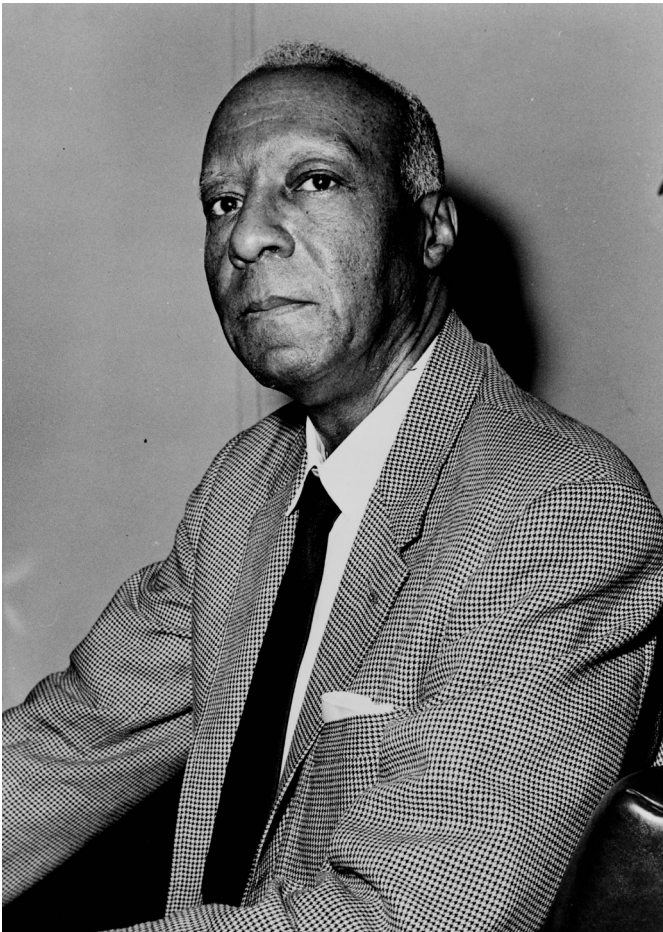
Vasily Zaytsev, left, and other Soviet snipers

Artist: Unknown
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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D-Day Map

Artist: User “Hogweard”; Derivative of D-Day map, Southwick House.png by User “Hchc2009”
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A. Philip Randolph, U.S. civil rights leader, 1963

Artist: John Bottega, NYWTS staff photographer
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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A Real-Life Rosie the Riveter

Artist: Unknown
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Back home, the Second World War took its toll on virtually all aspects of American society. Factories were recalibrated to churn out weapons, ammunition, tanks, planes, ships and uniforms. The federal government contracted with large agricultural corporations and small family farms to procure food for the troops. As millions of men enlisted in the military, women, African Americans, Latinos and Asian Americans found employment in America's burgeoning wartime industrial sector. Iconic figures such as "Rosie the Riveter" became popular symbols of wartime production. Taking advantage of wartime labor conditions, labor organizer A. Philip Randolph (1889-1979) planned a "March on Washington" to occur in 1941. On the personal appeal of President Roosevelt, who reminded Randolph of the need to defeat fascism abroad before dealing with civil rights at home, Randolph called off the march. In return, Roosevelt supported the creation of the Fair Employment Relations Act, which called for an end to job discrimination. Randolph's plan for a March on Washington would come to fruition during the civil rights movement of the 1960s.

Polish and French troops under Supreme Allied Commander General Dwight D. Eisenhower (1890-1969) stormed the beaches of Normandy, France. Despite high casualties and 10,000 Allied losses by the end of the day, the Allied forces had secured a beachhead and opened a second front in the war.

Allied forces made rapid strides across northern France using their own combinations of massive aerial bombardments and rapid tank attacks. In late December 1944, German forces pushed back Allied troops at the bloody "Battle of the Bulge." Although Axis forces were almost spent, the Allies enjoyed constant infusions of new soldiers and material and were soon on the offensive again. On August 25, 1945, Allied forces liberated Paris, with German forces agreeing to leave without destroying the city. Fighting would further intensify as British and

American armies advanced toward the German border.

While British and American forces pushed eastward, the Red Army invaded East Prussia. Russian forces advanced upon Berlin by taking the German city of Königsberg in April 1945. For two weeks, two million Soviet and Allied forces fought Berlin's defenders, many of whom were Hitler Youth or elderly civilians with little military training. On April 30, Adolf Hitler, his wife Eva Braun (1912-1945), and a few of his commanders committed suicide in their command bunker. Two days later, Russian forces raised the flag of the Soviet Union over the burned-out remains of the German Reichstag building. The remaining German troops surrendered. The war in Europe was now over.

WAR IN THE PACIFIC

In April 1942, the United States launched a risky bombing raid against Japan. Led by Lieutenant Colonel James Doolittle (1896-1993), 16 Mitchell bombers launched from the USS *Hornet* dropped bombs on Tokyo and other targets throughout the island of Honshu. Forced to abandon their aircraft in China, Japanese forces captured many of the U.S. pilots involved in the raid. The following month, American and Australian forces defeated a Japanese invasion fleet off the coast of New Guinea. In June, U.S. Admiral Chester Nimitz (1885-1966) led a fleet of three aircraft carriers, seven heavy cruisers and 15 destroyers against a large Japanese fleet led by Admiral Yamamoto. U.S. forces forestalled future Japanese raids on Hawaii by sinking four Japanese aircraft carriers.

At the grueling Battle of Guadalcanal, fought from August 1942 to February 1943, 60,000 U.S. marines and sailors defeated 36,000 entrenched Japanese defenders determined to fight to the death (less than a 1,000 of the Japanese soldiers surrendered). By securing Guadalcanal's airfield, the United States could now conduct direct bombing of the Japanese home islands.



Marines rest in the field at Guadalcanal

Artist: U.S. Navy
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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While the United States engaged in an “island hopping campaign” across the Pacific, Chinese forces under the command of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-Shek (1887-1975) continued to tie down half a million Japanese troops. Isolated by Japanese armies that controlled the eastern Coast of China and large areas of Burma and French Indochina, Chiang's forces, headquartered in Chongqing, relied on Allied supplies flown in by air over the “hump” of the Himalaya Mountains from British-controlled India for survival. Chiang also contended with a growing Chinese communist movement led by former school teacher turned revolutionary Mao Zedong (1893-1976). In fact, Chiang considered wiping out his communist rivals as more important than fighting the Japanese. Although treated as an equal by President Franklin Delano Roosevelt at the 1943 Cairo Conference, Chiang was, in reality, relegated to the status of a junior partner in the overall Allied war effort.

Chiang Kai-Shek

Artist: Unknown
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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BIG THREE CONFERENCES

While German and Russian forces engaged in bloody combat along the Eastern Front and Chinese and American forces battled the Japanese in Asia and the Pacific, the leaders of the three strongest Allied powers—Great Britain, the United States and the Soviet Union—held a series of conferences to plan war strategy as well as determine the map of the postwar world.

In November 1943, Franklin Roosevelt, Winston Churchill and Joseph Stalin met in Tehran, Iran. In addition to discussing the date for a cross-channel invasion from Britain and the willingness of the United States to supply military aid to the USSR, the three leaders issued the Tehran Declaration, which called for Poland and other Eastern European countries to enjoy the right of self-determination once the war was over. At the subsequent Yalta Conference in February 1945, Roosevelt, Churchill and Stalin agreed to divide control of Germany and Austria between their nations and France, establish a coalition government in Poland, and lend their support to creating a United Nations. At the third and final conference, held in Potsdam, Germany, in July and August 1945, Harry S. Truman (1884-1972), Clement Attlee (1883-1967) and Joseph Stalin demanded the unconditional surrender of Japan, planned to divide Germany and Berlin, discussed the donation of American money to rebuild Europe, and promised to hold free and fair elections in Eastern Europe.

DROPPING THE BOMB

By 1943, Allied forces had successfully pushed Japanese forces back to the home islands. American bombers launched round-the-clock firebombing raids on Japanese cities, most notably Tokyo. However, Allied leaders became worried that an invasion of the Japanese home islands might cost upwards of a million casualties and drag on for years as Japanese troops and civilians fought diligently to their deaths. As such, President Roosevelt and his generals looked for an alternative to invasion.

Following the death of President Franklin Roosevelt in April 1945, his successor, Harry S. Truman, authorized the use of nuclear weapons against Japan. On August 6, 1945, the crew of the U.S. bomber *Enola Gay* dropped a 21-kiloton atomic bomb named “Fat Man” on Hiroshima, Japan. Three days later, American forces dropped another atomic bomb dubbed “Little Boy” on Nagasaki. When counting not only the immediate victims of the atomic blasts but also those who died later from radiation poisoning, it is estimated that between 90,000-166,000 residents of Hiroshima and 60,000-80,000 people living in Nagasaki died. Unaware that the United States only possessed two atomic bombs, Japanese officials agreed to the Allied demand for unconditional surrender, insisting only that the Japanese Emperor Hirohito (1901-1989) be allowed to remain in power as a symbolic ruler. On September 2, 1945, Japanese delegates signed documents of surrender aboard the USS *Missouri* in Tokyo Harbor. The war in the Pacific was now at an end.



Artist: Corbis
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The Gadget

The Manhattan Project represented one of the most top-secret projects of the war. Led by physicists Robert Oppenheimer (1904-1967) and Enrico Fermi (1901-1954) and coordinated by U.S. Army General Leslie Groves (1896-1970), scientists for the Manhattan Projects worked first in Chicago, then in Oak Ridge, Tennessee. Experimenting with Einstein's concept that matter and energy were interchangeable, Oppenheimer and Fermi's team learned through constant experimentation to split uranium 238, a very unstable isotope. On July 16, 1945, the Manhattan team detonated an 18.6 kiloton atomic bomb dubbed “the Gadget” on a barren stretch of desert near Alamogordo, New Mexico. Upon witnessing the power of the nuclear blast, Oppenheimer quoted the Hindu holy text, the Bhagavata, by stating, “I have become death, the destroyer of worlds.”



Artist: Unknown
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The United Nations Fight for Freedom

From April 25 to June 26, representatives from over 50 countries gathered in San Francisco to draft the charter for the United Nations. Similar in principle to the League of Nations, the UN would act as an international forum to air grievances between nations and seek peaceful solutions to global problems. The Charter of the United Nations established a governing structure that resembled a parliamentary democracy. Each of the 51 nations that initially joined the UN sent delegates to meet once a year in a General Assembly. Regardless of the size of each member state's delegation, they received one vote each in assembly votes. Delegates generally debated the adoption of international treaties and set up and evaluated the work of UN subcommittees, including the World Health Organization and the UN Children's Fund. The UN also featured a number of permanent committees. The United Nations International Court of Justice oversaw the prosecution of war criminals and international terrorists. The UN Secretariat ran the day-to-day operations of the UN and enforced General Assembly resolutions. The UN Security Council constituted the most powerful part of the United Nations. It initially featured five permanent members—the United States, Soviet Union, Britain, France and China (Chiang Kai-Shek's Kuomintang government until 1971, Mao Zedong's PRC regime afterward) each of which wielded a veto over Security Council resolutions. The Security Council was charged with maintaining international peace and stability, investigating conflicts, establishing peacekeeping missions and setting up economic sanctions. Since its first session in 1946, the United Nations has played an active role in shaping global politics.

SUMMARY

By 1945, the Second World War ended in a complete victory for the Allied Powers. Although victorious, Americans, British, French and Russians soon came face to face with the true costs of the war. Between 40 and 50 million people died in the conflict, many of them civilians. Six million Jews and 6 million Romani, Slavs, homosexuals and other target groups died in the Holocaust. The economies of much of Europe and Asia lay shattered. Of all the prewar powers, only the United States could boast a booming economy and a fully operational military. Furthermore, two erstwhile allies, the U.S. and the USSR, were moving toward a cold war that pitted American capitalism and freedom against Soviet beliefs in planned economies and a collective mentality. For the next 50 years, the conflict between these two superpowers would help shape world events.

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Cold War and Decolonization of the World from 1950



Elbe Day

Artist: Unknown Photographer; Edited by Cassowary Colorizations

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On April 25, 1945, Second Lieutenant William Robertson of the 69th Infantry Division of the U.S. Army crawled across a damaged bridge that spanned the Elbe River near Torgau, Germany. At the other end stood Soviet Lieutenant Alexander Silvashko of the 58th Guards Rifle Division. Reaching the middle of the bridge, Robertson shouted “American” and was escorted to meet Silvashko. The two men shook hands and hugged before breaking into an impromptu celebration. This

meeting was auspicious. For four long years, over 25 million Soviets had died as the Red Army pushed Axis forces westward into Germany. Since D-Day, June 6, 1944, U.S. and Allied forces had pushed eastward from Normandy, suffering over two million casualties. The “Torgau handshake,” as it was later called, represented the first time American and Russian soldiers had met on the battlefield. Yet despite this friendly meeting, within two years, the United States and the Soviet Union would

be locked in what President John F. Kennedy (1917-1963) would call a “long twilight struggle” known as the Cold War. From 1947-1991 the U.S. and USSR fought not just a conflict for strategic domination, natural resources or political power, but an ideological one in which both sides courted and pressured third-world nations into adopting their codes of ethics, systems of governance and culture. In doing so, the Cold War did much to shape the postwar world.

ORIGINS OF THE COLD WAR

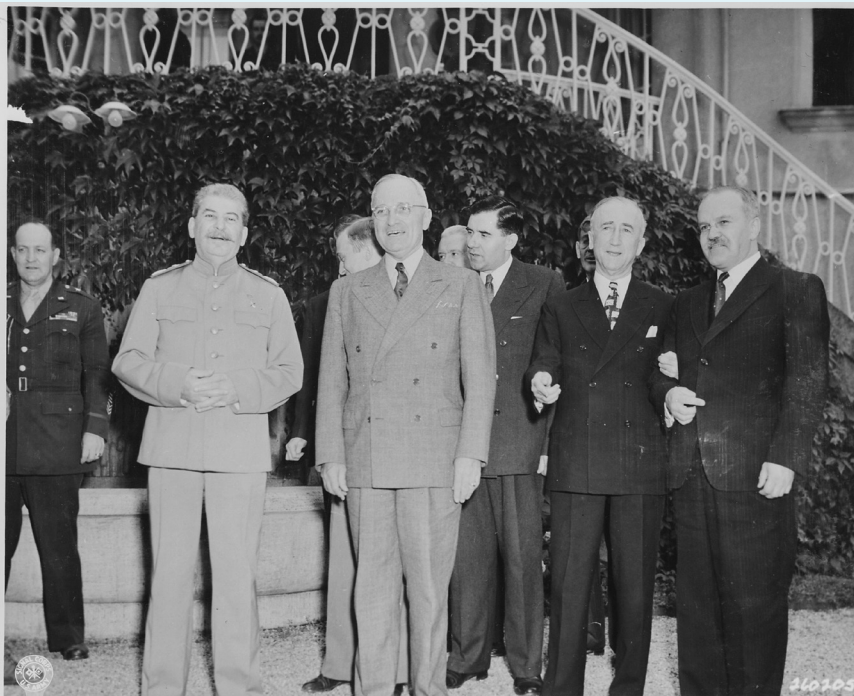
The roots of the Cold War lay in the late 19th and early 20th century. Following devastating losses on the eastern front in World War I, Russian peasants under the leadership of Vladimir Ilyich Lenin and his Bolshevik followers overthrew the regime of Czar Nicholas II. They established the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR). Lenin and his followers initiated a massive industrialization and farm collectivization program. His successor, Joseph Stalin (1878-1953), created a series of five-year plans designed to collectivize every aspect of Russian society and place complete political power within his hands.

Alarmed at the possible spread of communism to their own countries, victorious Entente nations like the

United States, Britain, France and Italy refused to give the Soviet Union representation at the 1919 Paris Peace Conference. The United States, Great Britain and Japan aided the White Russian forces in their unsuccessful bid to roll back the Russian Revolution.

Although many European and American progressives were impressed that the USSR appeared to be immune to the effects of the Great Depression, Franklin D. Roosevelt waited until February 1933 to diplomatically recognize the Soviet Union. Seven years later, when Stalin signed a non-aggression pact with Nazi Germany and jointly invaded Poland, many Americans dismissed the Soviet Union as an authoritarian state no different from their fascist partner.

However, American perceptions changed rapidly when the Axis Powers invaded Russia on June 22, 1941. The Roosevelt Administration made Lend-Lease aid available to Russia and unfroze Russian funds in American banks. By the war's end, the U.S. would ship 17 million tons of supplies to the USSR through the North Atlantic, Pacific and Middle East. Although many Americans remained suspicious of Soviet intentions, they realized that Russians were doing the majority of fighting in the conflict.



President Harry S. Truman visits Soviet Prime Minister Josef Stalin at Mr. Stalin's residence during the Potsdam Conference

Throughout World War II, American, British and Soviet leaders of the “Big Three” nations met at a series of conferences to coordinate the Allied war effort. Initially represented by U.S. President Franklin Delano Roosevelt, British Prime Minister Winston Churchill, and Soviet Premier Josef Stalin by the Potsdam Conference of 1945, Harry Truman replaced Roosevelt, who had died the previous spring, and Clement Attlee joined Churchill who he had defeated at the ballot box. This gave Stalin, the senior delegate, an advantage in the postwar negotiations.

Artist: Unknown
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Even before the end of the war, American and Soviet interests began to diverge. Although the United States provided the most funding and supplies for the Allied war efforts, the Russians had done the most fighting by far, having lost over 28 million soldiers and civilians by 1945. The United States and Great Britain looked forward to a postwar world based on free trade and democratic values as outlined by the Atlantic Charter. In contrast, many Soviet leaders viewed the war as an important stage in establishing a worldwide communist revolution. Given that Russia had been invaded three times in the past two centuries, Stalin was unwilling to tolerate regimes in Eastern Europe that were unfriendly to the Soviet Union. Realizing that the Soviet Union would be occupying much of Eastern Europe at war's end, Roosevelt and his advisors hoped that the planned United Nations would allow the two emerging superpowers to compromise and work together as they had done during the war.

EUROPE AFTER WORLD WAR II

The Second World War brought unmitigated human suffering on a level never seen before or since in world history. The postwar German, Italian and Japanese

governments struggled to feed their populations. Large sections of Poland, the Soviet Union and France had experienced the destruction of “scorched earth” tactics. Although victorious, the British Empire was exhausted and would continue to decline as a world power over the next half-century. Of all the Allied powers, only the United States emerged from the war with fixed borders and a thriving industrial economy.

The war also sparked a process of decolonization across the world. During the conflict, Great Britain and the United States had been able to mobilize overseas colonies and non-aligned nations to support the Allied war effort with the promise, as espoused in the Atlantic Charter, of freedom and equality at the war's conclusion. The issue of what to do with areas annexed by the Axis powers remained a thorny one. Occupied nations that Nazi Germany had attempted to colonize such as Poland and Ukraine regained their sovereignty (albeit under Soviet domination). Two of Italy's former colonies, Libya and Ethiopia were eventually granted their independence. Japan was forced to return Vietnam to France and Taiwan to China. Korea, which had been an independent nation before 1910, was divided into northern and southern occupation zones controlled by the USSR and U.S. respectively.

Telegram, George Kennan to George Marshall [“Long Telegram”], February 22, 1946. Harry S. Truman Administration File, Elsey Papers.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE		INFORMATION
INCOMING TELEGRAM		COPY
FEM-K-M No paraphrase necessary.		8063
ACTION: EUR INFO: SECRET S U C A-B A-C A-D SA SPA UNO EUR/X DC/R		Moscow via War Dated February 22, 1946 Rec'd 3:52 p.m.
Secretary of State, Washington.		
511, February 22, 9 p.m.		
<p>Answer to Dept's 284, Feb 3 involves questions so intricate, so delicate, so strange to our form of thought, and so important to analysis of our international environment that I cannot compress answers into single brief message without yielding to what I feel would be dangerous degree of over-simplification. I hope, therefore, Dept will bear with me if I submit in answer to this question five parts, subjects of which will be roughly as follows:</p> <p>(One) Basic features of post-war Soviet outlook.</p> <p>(Two) Background of this outlook.</p> <p>(Three) Its projection in practical policy on official level.</p> <p>(Four) Its projection on unofficial level.</p> <p>(Five) Practical deductions from standpoint of US policy.</p> <p>I apologize in advance for this burdening of telegraphic channel; but questions involved are of such urgent importance, particularly in view of recent events, that our answers to them, if they deserve attention at all, seem to me to deserve it at once. HERE FOLLOWS PART ONE: BASIC FEATURES OF POST WAR SOVIET OUTLOOK, AS PUT FORWARD BY OFFICIAL PROPAGANDA MACHINE, ARE AS FOLLOWS:</p> <p>(A) USSR still lives in antagonistic "capitalist encirclement" with which in the long run there can be no permanent peaceful coexistence. As stated by Stalin in 1927 to a delegation of American workers:</p>		

Long Telegram

On February 22, 1946, George Kennan (1904-2005), an American diplomat living in Moscow, wrote an 8000-word “Long Telegram” to Secretary of State James Byrnes (1882-1972). Byrnes had asked Kennan to speculate on why Soviet officials opposed the recently created World Bank and International Monetary Fund (two organizations that worked in tandem to maintain economic stability and fund development especially in the third world). Although Kennan admired the toughness and resilience of the Russian people, he distrusted Stalin and his regime. Kennan also disapproved of President Roosevelt's policy of engaging the Soviet dictator on friendly terms. Concerned about recent tensions between the U.S. and the Soviet Union, Kennan wrote a lengthy essay on the foreign policy motives of the Soviet Politburo and what the United States should do to counter them. In his essay, Kennan argued that the United States should seek to stop communist expansion in its tracks rather than engage in a direct confrontation with the USSR. This “containment” policy would become the basis for U.S. policy toward communism until the end of the Cold War.

Artist: George F. Kennan
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Although the U.S. and Soviet Union had pledged to support free and fair elections for Central and Eastern European nations following the war, Soviet officials held sham elections in Poland, Romania, Bulgaria and the Russian-occupied sectors of Germany. In areas that had a coalition government, like Czechoslovakia, Soviet-backed socialists used “salami tactics” to take over key military and law enforcement positions and gradually leveraged such power to take over the entire government. American officials worried about the development of Soviet satellite states, took an increasingly assertive stance against what they perceived as Soviet expansionism.

THE TRUMAN DOCTRINE

Franklin Delano Roosevelt died in April 1945. His successor, the conservative and cantankerous Harry S. Truman (1884-1972) of Missouri, tended to see the world in much starker terms and adopted a harsher tone with the Soviet Union. To this day, scholars debate whether one of the reasons Truman allowed the atomic bomb to be used on Japan was to intimidate Stalin with the military and technological power of the U.S.

In March 1946, Winston Churchill delivered a speech at Westminster College in Fulton, Missouri. In his speech, Churchill insisted that “[w]e welcome Russia to her rightful place among the leading nations of the world.” But he expressed concern that “From Stettin in the Baltic to Trieste in the Adriatic, an iron curtain has descended across the Continent. Behind that line

lie all the capitals of the ancient states of Central and Eastern Europe. Warsaw, Berlin, Prague, Vienna, Budapest, Belgrade, Bucharest and Sofia, all these famous cities and the populations around them lie in what I must call the Soviet sphere. All are subject in one form or another, not only to Soviet influence but to a very high and, in some cases, increasing measure of control from Moscow.” Churchill concluded that only a strong response led by the United States and Great Britain could meet the threat of communist aggression. The speech had an immediate impact upon U.S. public opinion toward the USSR.

In fall 1946, the Soviet Union attempted to pressure Turkey into allowing it to place a military based on the Dardanelles Straits as a prelude to joint control of the area. When the United States dispatched two aircraft carriers to the region, the USSR backed down. At the urging of a group of statesmen known as the “wise men,” Truman and his congressional allies passed the 1947 National Security Act. The measure created the cabinet position of Defense Secretary, Central Intelligence Agency (CIA), Joint Chiefs of Staff and National Security Council (NSC). Truman also offered Greece and Turkey \$400 million in aid to ensure they embraced western style democracy rather than socialism. He also announced what would become known as the “Truman Doctrine.” The United States would not attempt to roll back communism where it already existed but would contain it and aid third-world governments in resisting communist insurgencies within their borders. Truman also announced the creation of the Marshall



Berliners watching a C-54 land at Berlin Tempelhof Airport, 1948.

Artist: Henry Ries / USAF
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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By 1948, Stalin had become very concerned that the United States, Britain and France had combined their occupation zones in Germany and Berlin and that Marshall Plan money had helped reindustrialize these areas. In July 1948, East German officials sealed the border between West Germany and Berlin. As a municipality of West Germany (even though located deep in East Germany) West Berlin received most of its fresh food, gasoline and coal from the West. Since the end of the war, Soviet officials had allowed West German trucks to ferry goods and people between the West German border and Berlin. Not wanting to confront the Soviet Union directly, the United States began the “Berlin Airlift.” For 15 months, the U.S. conducted over 250,000 flights to West Berlin, delivering much needed food, fuel and supplies to the 2 million inhabitants of the city. By spring 1949, East German and Soviet officials relented and once again allowed supply convoys from West Germany to West Berlin.

Plan. Named after U.S. General and Secretary of State George C. Marshall (1880-1959), the Marshall Plan would provide over \$13 billion in loans and grants to help European nations, Germany, and even the Soviet Union, rebuild their governments, armed forces and economies.

Alarmed by the Berlin crisis, Britain, Canada, Denmark, Iceland, Italy, Norway and Portugal formed the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) in April 1948. Alliance members pledged to come to the aid of one another in the case of invasion or internal subversion. In response, the Soviet Union sponsored the creation of the Warsaw Pact in 1955, an agreement signed by Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Bulgaria, Romania and the USSR, which promised that an attack on one would be considered an attack on all.

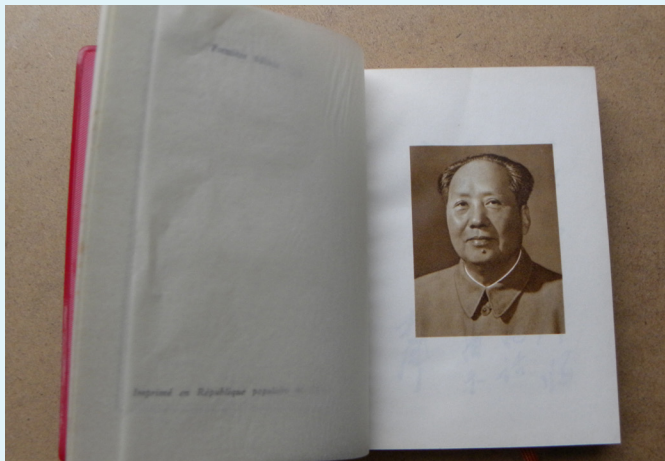
RISE OF CHINA

By the late 1940s, world attention shifted from Europe to Asia. Since the 1930s, Chiang Kai-Shek's (1887-1975) Kuomintang government had been locked in a civil war with Mao Zedong's (1893-1976) Chinese Communist forces. Under American diplomatic pressure, Chiang and Mao created a coalition government in 1946. The coalition quickly frayed and by 1949, Mao's forces forced the Kuomintang to retreat to the island of Taiwan (also known as Formosa). On October 1, 1949, Mao Zedong

announced the creation of the People's Republic of China from the top of the Tiananmen Gate in Beijing.

Throughout the 1950s and 1960s, Mao Zedong and his followers sought to remake China in their image. From 1952-1962, Mao initiated the "Great Leap Forward" by ordering Chinese peasants to create primitive blast furnaces and steel mills in an effort to, within a generation, catapult China into the upper echelon of industrial nations. However, by neglecting agricultural production, Mao condemned 15-55 million people to starvation.

Aware that China contained over 95 minorities and many individuals still loyal to the old Kuomintang, the Chinese government and Chinese Communist Party (CCP) used strongarm tactics to keep the population in line. Communist control of schools ensured that children were fed a steady diet of socialist ideology from a young age and urged to spy on their parents. Mandarin became the official language of the government. Mao even demanded that China's traditional writing system be simplified to purge it of class bias. Even powerful government officials were often forced to attend party indoctrination sessions, confess their "crimes" and submit to public denunciations. The Chinese secret police were everywhere, arresting, torturing and sentencing thousands of suspected Chinese intellectuals, poets, politicians and even military officials to long sentences in "re-education camps."



The Little Red Book: Quotations from Chairman Mao Zedong (1966), First French Edition, Printed in the Peoples' Republic of China

Artist: Photograph by User "Olnnu"
Source: Wikimedia Commons
License: CC BY-SA 3.0 | © Olnnu [Photograph]

Mao Zedong's Little Red Book, formally known as *Quotations from Chairman Mao Zedong*, represented one of the most influential political tracts of the 20th century. Compiled in 1964, the book contained 267 sayings attributed to Chairman Mao. Forming a crucial part of Mao's cult of personality during the Cultural Revolution, The "Little Red Book" was modeled on popular collections of quotes from Chinese scholars like Confucius and Mencius that Chinese schoolchildren had used for centuries. In the 1960s, the Chinese Ministry of Education aimed to give a copy to every Chinese citizen. Red Guards would also routinely ask whether ordinary Chinese had a copy with them or whether they could quote passages from the book from memory. Two of the most often recited quotes from the "Little Red Book" were, "Every Communist must grasp the truth: Political power grows out of the barrel of a gun" and "A revolution is not a dinner party, or writing an essay, or painting a picture, or doing embroidery; it cannot be so refined, so leisurely and gentle, so temperate, kind, courteous, restrained and magnanimous. A revolution is an insurrection, an act of violence by which one class overthrows another."

From 1966-1976, Mao launched the “Cultural Revolution.” Although officially designed to combat corruption and keep the Chinese people in a permanent state of communist revolution, in reality, the Cultural Revolution involved creating a cult of personality around Mao. At Mao’s urging, groups of young people known as “Red Guards,” indoctrinated by the ceaseless reading of a collection of their leader’s teachings incorporated in “Little Red Books,” scoured the Chinese countryside. They humiliated, beat and killed individuals considered “capitalist roaders,” destroying churches, temples and other symbols of China’s past, all with little or no opposition from Chinese officials. Although figures vary, it was estimated that over two million people died during the Cultural Revolution, a movement that did not officially end until Mao died in 1976.

DECOLONIZATION IN AFRICA, ASIA, AND THE MIDDLE EAST

During the Second World War, Allied Powers such as Great Britain and the United States enjoyed tremendous support from their colonies and overseas territories. Indian Gurkhas, Australian and New Zealand “diggers,” and Filipino “hunters” all contributed to the Allied war effort with the hope of independence for their homelands when the war was over. The one recurrent theme that ran through the Atlantic Charter, Tehran, Yalta, Potsdam Declarations, and the Charter of the United Nations was that of national self-determination for all peoples including the developing world. From the 1940s to the 1970s, Great Britain, Germany, Italy, Japan, France, Spain, Portugal and the Netherlands were forced to grant independence to most, if not all, of their overseas empires. To be sure, many imperialists fought the loss of their overseas territories tooth and nail. As British Prime Minister Winston Churchill quipped in November 1942, “I have not become the King’s First Minister in order to preside over the liquidation of the British Empire.” However, not even a figure as formidable as Churchill could turn back the forces of decolonization in the developing world.

MAU MAU REBELLION AND THE RHODESIAN BRUSH WAR

From the 1880s to the 1910s, many European nations competed in the “scramble for Africa.” By the eve of



Pokot women and men during the festivities to mark the 10th anniversary of Kenya’s independence

Artist: Unknown

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The Mau Mau revolt began when poor Kikuyu people, having been forced off their traditional land, made war against British officials and upper-class, “Anglicized” members of their communities. Many Mau Mau adopted British Scout uniforms and merit badges to fool British soldiers into believing they were loyal Kenyans. Over time, the Mau Mau began to wear scout uniforms as symbols of resistance and pride.

World War II, virtually the entire continent lay under the control of one European power or another. During World War II, 1.3 million Ghanese, Kenyan, South African, Botswanan, Malawian and Zambian troops served in the British forces and returned home with a sense of group solidarity and confidence. In 1960, British Prime Minister Harold Macmillan (1894-1986) gave a speech in Johannesburg, South Africa, in which he recognized “the wind of change blowing through the continent.” Although Britain’s leaders granted independence to many African colonies, they fought to keep Kenya and Rhodesia (current day Zimbabwe) in the empire.

From 1952-1960, British troops ruthlessly suppressed the Mau Mau Uprising in Kenya. Kikuyu men and women who trained to become Mau Mau warriors

often believed their initiation rituals would make them invincible to British bullets. As such, they fought ferociously in battle. British officials killed over 20,000 Mau Mau during the conflict and placed another 20,000 Kikuyu and other minorities into brutal “labor camps” that bore more than a passing resemblance to German concentration camps. Although British colonial forces defeated the largest Mau Mau army in 1956, they could not stop international pressure and local resistance. At the First Lancaster House Conference, held in 1960, British and Kenyan delegates worked out a roadmap for a transition government that provided complete independence for Kenya in 1963.

Kenya’s experience provided a blueprint for other British colonies in Africa to seek their independence. In 1965, the governing white minority population of Rhodesia declared the region’s independence from the British Empire. This led to the Rhodesian Bush War (1964-1979), in which the white-dominated Rhodesian government fought against several African revolutionary groups. Placed in the position of peacemaker, the British government helped negotiate a cease-fire at the Second Lancaster House Conference in 1979. Under the terms of this agreement, white settlers agreed to share power with indigenous Africans in a new nation called Zimbabwe, which became fully independent in 1980.

ALGERIAN WAR FOR INDEPENDENCE

During the Second World War, most of France’s overseas territories were occupied by Japanese, British, or American forces. This made France’s resumption of power in such areas tenuous at best. Nevertheless, under Charles De Gaulle (1890-1970), a former general and hero of two World Wars, the French government attempted to reconstitute its prewar empire.

In 1830, French forces invaded and occupied Algeria. For the next century, thousands of French colonists, known as “pieds-noirs” (black feet), created enclaves throughout the region and introduced French technology, language and culture to the native Algerians. Following World War II, Messali Hadj’s (1898-1974) Movement for the Triumph of Liberal Democracies (MTDL) launched an independence movement against French rule.

While the MTDL publicly campaigned for a peaceful end to French imperialism, a group of Algerian militants known as the Special Organisation (SO) used ambushes, assassinations and bombings to take the fight directly to French soldiers and colonial administrators. Both groups joined together to form the National Liberation Front, which carried on the struggle for independence. After a decade of fighting and losing 36,000 soldiers and civilians, De Gaulle’s government finally agreed on a transition plan that resulted in Algerian independence in 1963.



Samia Lakhdari, Zohra Drif, Djamilia Bouhired, Hassiba Bent-Bouali

Artist: Unknown
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Women such as Djamilia Bouhired (b. 1935) played leading roles in the Algerian liberation movement. Born into a middle-class family in colonial Algeria, Bouhired ran into discipline problems in primary school for shouting “Algeria is our Mother” instead of the customary “France is our mother” at morning assemblies. Becoming an active demonstrator against French imperialism, the dedicated and determined Bouhired once endured 17 hours of torture at the hand of colonial officials without revealing any useful information. In July 1957, French authorities arrested Bouhired on charges of bombing a café that killed 11 people. French attorney Jacques Vergès agreed to represent Bouhired at trial. In a sensational courtroom event that garnered international attention, Vergès accused French colonial officials of carrying out the bombing. When a jury found Bouhired guilty and sentenced her to death by guillotine, protest groups campaigned on her behalf. Due to the personal intervention of Moroccan Princess Laila Ayesha, French President René Coty commuted Bouhired’s punishment to life imprisonment. After serving five years at a prison in Reims, she was released in 1962 as part of a general amnesty policy.

KOREAN WAR

Throughout the early 1950s, government officials, congressmen, media moguls and ordinary Americans asked the perennial question, “Who had lost China?” Federal officials produced NSC-68, a memorandum that stated the United States needed to commit to “the rapid building up of the political, economic and military strength of the free world” to offset Soviet and Chinese aggression.

At the end of World War II, Soviet forces liberated northern Korea while American forces occupied southern Korea. Both Allied powers established a border between their occupation zones at the 38th parallel. Over the next five years the Soviet Union provided arms and assistance to Communist hardliner Kim Il-Sung (1912- 1994) while the United States backed the conservative government of Princeton graduate and English-speaking Syngman Rhee (1875-1965) in Seoul.

Having received the tentative approval of Joseph Stalin but not Mao Zedong, Kim launched a 100,000-man army complete with Soviet-built T-34 tanks and Mig-15 planes across the 38th parallel in June 1950 in an attempt to unite the Korean Peninsula by force. The North Korean army quickly overran Seoul and bottled up South Korean and U.S. forces in the southern coastal city of Busan.

Viewing the invasion of South Korea as a real test for the United States and its commitment to containment, the Truman administration secured a mandate from the United Nations to defend its ally. In September 1950, World II hero, U.S. General and postwar governor of Japan, Douglas MacArthur landed 75,000 U.S. and allied troops at Inchon, relieving pressure on Busan and retaking Seoul. Backed by the Truman administration, MacArthur planned not just to liberate South Korea but roll back communism in the north. Despite repeated threats of intervention from Beijing, MacArthur’s troops occupied Pyongyang and pushed North Korean forces



Gojong of the Korean Empire Wearing Western Style Uniform

Artist: Unknown
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Korea and Japan experienced a tumultuous relationship in the 1800s and 1900s. For centuries the Kingdom of Korea had been a vassal state to the Chinese Qing dynasty until, in 1895, Japan defeated China in the First Sino-Japanese War. With China no longer able to influence Korean affairs, Japanese merchants, diplomats and colonists soon began migrating to the peninsula. By 1905, Tokyo demanded that Korea accept Japanese supervision over its government and become a protectorate of Japan. In 1907, Japanese officials pressured the Korean Emperor Gojong (1852-1919) to give up the throne in favor of his son, the crown prince Sunjong (1874-1926). They soon forced Sunjong to sign a treaty that allowed Japan to annex Korea. Although the United States had signed a treaty of friendship with Korea in 1882, the administration of Theodore Roosevelt (1858-1919) refused to intervene. The Japanese colonial government suppressed Korean history, language and cultural teaching and began a campaign to force Koreans to accept Japanese names and cultural identities. Thousands of Koreans resisted through boycotts, strikes and guerilla warfare. Following Japan’s defeat in World War II, Korea became divided into Soviet and American spheres of influence.



General of the Army Douglas MacArthur smoking his corncob pipe, probably at Manila, Philippine Islands, August 2, 1945.

Artist: Unknown
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Born in Little Rock, Arkansas, in 1880, Douglas MacArthur (1880-1964) graduated first in his West Point class in 1903. In 1941, he coordinated resistance to the Japanese invasion of the Philippines. When ordered to retreat to Australia, he promised the Filipino people, "I shall return." Three years later, he fulfilled his promise, wading to shore to demonstrate his resolve. Following the war, MacArthur was appointed Supreme Commander of the Allied Powers in Japan. A stern operator, he oversaw the distribution of aid to the Japanese population, restarted the national economy, supervised the rebuilding efforts and helped create a new Japanese Constitution in 1947. In 1950, MacArthur was given command over UN forces in Korea.

to the Yalu River. When UN forces bombed bridges over the Yalu, a 200,000 poorly armed yet determined Chinese "volunteer" army moved into Korea on October 19. Chinese and North Korean troops pushed UN forces south using human wave tactics and the brutal Korean winter to maximum advantage. MacArthur publicly demanded the authority to use nuclear weapons against China. President Truman worried about the Soviet reaction and aware that the Soviet Union had successfully tested an atomic bomb in 1949, decided to relieve MacArthur of command. Battle lines stabilized near the 38th parallel, as the war continue to drag on.

EISENHOWER AND THE COLD WAR

In the U.S. Presidential election of 1952, Dwight Eisenhower (1890-1959), a moderate Republican, retired Army general and architect of D-Day, easily defeated Democrat Adlai Stevenson (1900-1965). Eisenhower and his militantly anti-communist Secretary of State John Foster Dulles (1888-1959) reduced conventional armed forces and increased America's stockpile of nuclear weapons in a strategy of "massive retaliation." Seeking an end to the stalemate in Korea and taking advantage of the death of Joseph Stalin in March 1953, the Eisenhower administration supported an armistice agreed to by the USSR, China, the United States and North Korea (although not initially by South Korea). Signed in July in the border town of Panmunjom, the armistice remains in effect down to the present, making the Korean War the most protracted armed conflict in recent history.

IRANIAN INTERVENTION AND THE FIRST INDOCHINA WAR

Although Eisenhower fulfilled his campaign to end the fighting in Korea, his administration engaged in other theaters of the Cold War. Angered by an Anglo-American monopoly over their oil fields, Iranians backed the progressive government of Prime Minister Mohammad Mosaddeq (1882-1967) in 1951. Two years later, the CIA helped Shah Reza Pahlavi (1919-1980) launch a military coup against the left-leaning government of Prime Minister Mosaddeq.

In September 1940, the Japanese Empire conquered the French colonial possession of Indochina (modern-day Vietnam). School teacher turned revolutionary Ho Chi Minh (1890-1969) launched a guerilla movement against the Japanese and their Vichy French collaborators. The United States and Great Britain provided weapons and logistical support for the rebels. As Japanese forces abandoned the region in 1945, Ho proclaimed the Republic of Vietnam. Hoping for U.S. recognition, Ho and his followers were dismayed when the Truman administration announced that it would support the return of Indochina to the French. Ho then ordered his Viet Minh forces to fight the French occupiers, this time

with Russian and Chinese support. From 1946-1954, the Viet Minh fought an increasingly successful war against French forces. In 1954, Vietnamese troops surrounded and destroyed a well-armed French garrison at Dien Bien Phu. Exhausted from decades of fighting, the French announced to the United States their intention to retreat from Vietnam. Although declining to aid the French directly, Eisenhower and Dulles instead poured money and military aid into Ngo Dinh Diem's (1901-1963) anti-communist government in the newly created republic of South Vietnam. At the same time, Eisenhower dispatched the U.S. Navy to defend Taiwan during intense shelling from the Chinese mainland.



Ho Chi Minh (third from left standing) and the OSS in 1945

Artist: US Army
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Ho Chi Minh was born into a family of scholars and teachers in Hoang Tru, Vietnam, in 1890. He received a traditional Confucian education before traveling to France, the United States and Great Britain. While living in Paris from 1919-1923, he became involved with the French socialist movement. He had unsuccessfully petitioned the delegates at the 1919 Paris Peace Conference to recognize the independence of Vietnam. From 1923-1924, he attended the Communist University of the Toilers of the East in Moscow before returning to Vietnam. Traveling widely throughout Europe and Asia in the 1930s, he furthered his education in Russia and worked with communist forces in China. In 1941, Japanese imperial forces seized Vietnam. Ho returned home to create the Viet Minh resistance movement. During the Second World War, Ho received military supplies and medical treatment from the American Office of Strategic Services (OSS), a precursor of the

CIA. At the end of the conflict, Ho Chi Minh declared the creation of the Democratic Republic of Vietnam on September 2, 1945. When France began military operations to retake Vietnam, Ho's Viet Minh forces retaliated. From 1946-1954, Ho waged a successful war against French forces, achieving a significant victory against them at the Battle of Dien Bien Phu, where more than 10,000 French soldiers surrendered to the Viet Minh. In 1954, France pulled out of Vietnam, and the United Nations called for a general election in 1956 to decide the country's future. South Vietnamese leader Ngo Dinh Diem refused to participate in the election and created the Republic of Vietnam, headquartered in Saigon. Ho Chi Minh created a new revolutionary movement, the Viet Cong, to overthrow Diem's regime and its American backers. Although Ho died in 1969, his movement to unify Vietnam came to fruition with the fall of Saigon in 1975.

Throughout the 1950s, the Eisenhower administration sponsored projects such as Radio Free Europe and Radio Liberation to encourage dissension and revolt behind the Iron Curtain. Yet when Soviet troops and tanks crushed riots in East Germany in 1953 and a full-fledged uprising in Hungary three years later, the U.S. failed to intervene. The United States worked in partnership with the Soviet Union to end a joint seizure of the Suez Canal by British, French and Israeli forces in 1956. The successful launch of Sputnik I, the first artificial satellite to be launched into orbit, encouraged American Cold War strategists to consider that the Soviet Union might possess the ability to strike the U.S. with nuclear-tipped missiles from half a world away.

By the late 1950s, the Eisenhower administration attempted to deemphasize tensions with the Soviet Union. In 1953, Russian reformer Nikita Khrushchev (1894-1971) became the premier of the Soviet Union. Denouncing Stalin's brutal purges in a secret party meeting in 1956, he implemented a policy of freeing some political prisoners, allowing the publication of critical accounts of life under Stalinism, permitting Russian citizens to travel abroad in large numbers, and pursuing closer ties with the West. This created an enormous rift with Mao Zedong, who condemned Khrushchev's speech and designated himself the true inheritor of Lenin's and Stalin's socialist legacies.

CUBAN REVOLUTION

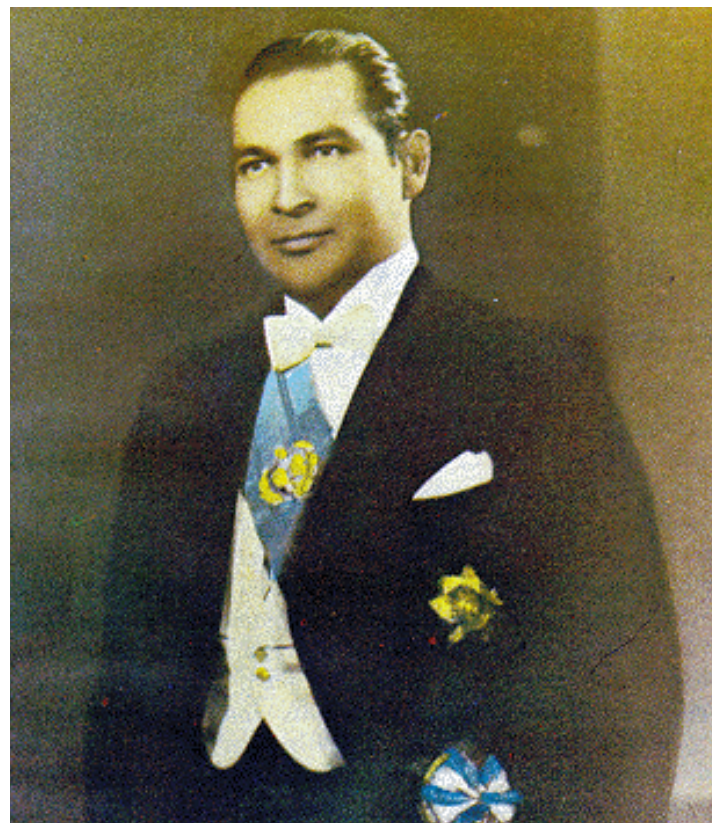
During the Cold War, countries were pressured to embrace democracy or socialism. While a few countries joined what is known as the non-aligned movement, a group of countries that strove not to be drawn into the clash of superpowers, those closer to America or the Soviet Union were not always free to make a choice. Being only 90 miles off the coast of Florida, Cuba was a vital ally to the United States. Cuba, however, did not have much experience



**Premier Nikita S.
Khrushchev Pats
High Milk Producer**

Artist: U.S. Department
of Agriculture
Source: Wikimedia
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In 1959, Khrushchev toured Los Angeles, New York, Pittsburgh, Iowa and Washington DC. Having been raised in a farming family, he particularly enjoyed his time in Iowa, where he toured Iowa State University's agricultural education program. An enthusiastic supporter of corn production, he hoped to duplicate the success of Iowa's corn industry in the Soviet Union. He also wanted Eisenhower to visit the USSR. This invitation was revoked after the downing of an American U2 spy plane caught flying over Soviet airspace in May 1960.



**Batista's
Presidential Photo**

Artist: Cuban government
Source: Wikimedia
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Gold-Coated Telephone Given as a Gift to Batista by the International Telegraph and Telephone Company

Artist: User "Gomera-b"
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with democracy, having had a long history of autocratic rule. During the colonial period, Cubans had little role in the running of the government and, after independence (1902), had a string of dictators who ruled with an iron fist. In 1933, one such dictator, a 32-year-old sergeant by the name of Fulgencio Batista (1901-1973), seized control of the government. Batista would manage the government directly or through puppet governments until 1944 when his candidate for the presidency lost the election. Batista returned to power in 1951 after staging a bloodless coup. This is known as Batista's second dictatorship.

Although he had once been dedicated to social reform, upon returning to power in 1951, Batista was more focused on winning the support of the Cuban elite and increasing his personal fortune. Batista worked with the United States and its corporations to attract investment in Cuba. In a few short years, American investors came to own a majority of Cuba's public utilities, its railways and mines. The ultimate symbol of the profits made by American corporations was the gold-coated phone given by ITT Corporation to Batista after he approved a large and, for ITT, very profitable telephone rate increase. Batista's new approach caused him to lose the support of many Cubans, who began looking for new alternatives to his government.

Fidel Castro (1926-2016) would emerge as Batista's toughest critic and rival. A long-time radical, Castro, while studying law, became increasingly active in student politics and after graduation, established his own law firm. Critical of Batista's government, Castro even brought legal actions against the dictator. This was a dangerous game. It also taught Fidel that law in a lawless state was useless and that violence, as



Fidel Castro and His Men in the Sierra Maestra

Artist: Unknown
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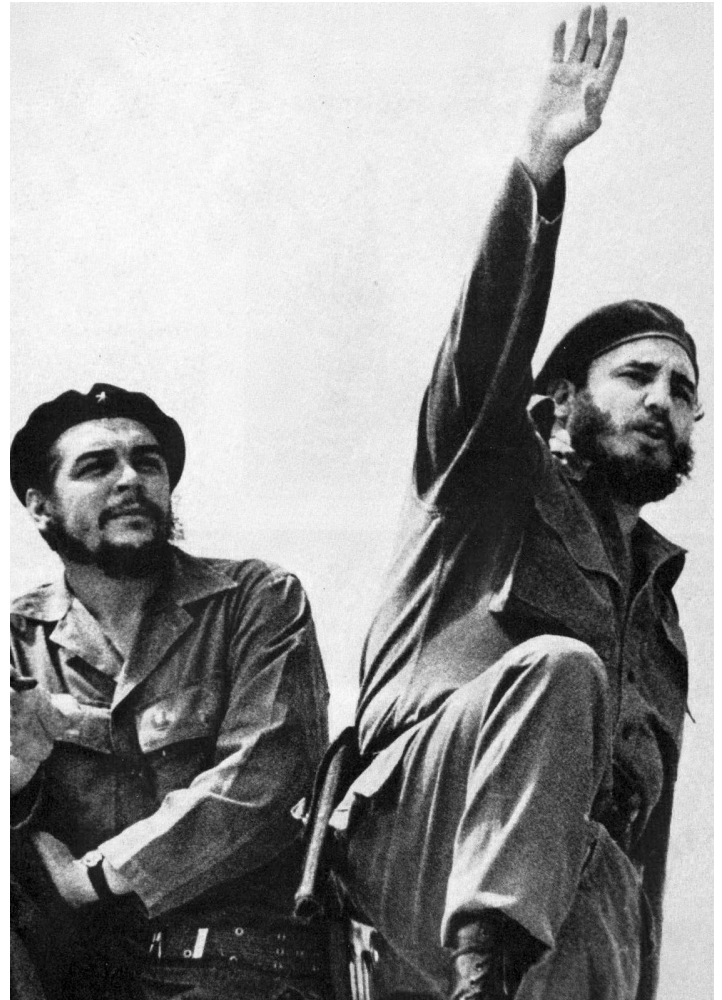


Portrait of Ernesto 'Che' Guevara

Artist: Alberto Korda
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"Che" Guevara and Fidel Castro

Artist: Alberto Korda
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advocated by Lenin, was the only vehicle for social change. Concluding that he could no longer tolerate the Batista regime, Castro first attempted to overthrow the state in 1953 with an unsuccessful attack on a provincial army barracks. Sent to prison, Castro was released in 1955.

Wanting to continue his efforts against Batista, Fidel traveled to Mexico with his brother Raul (b. 1931). In Mexico, they would be introduced to the young Argentine Ernesto 'Che' Guevara (1928-1967). A trained doctor who had become a leading Marxist, Che joined the brothers in their quest against Batista and would later be a martyr to the cause of worldwide revolution. In December 1956, Fidel set sail with 81 others to unseat Batista's government. Ambushed by government forces, less than 20 would survive the landing. Refusing to surrender, they fled to the mountains. The rebels would recruit, repel and eventually defeat Batista's forces.

On New Years' Eve 1958, Batista said goodbye, and early the following day, he flew to the Dominican Republic, taking his family, close associates, and a substantial fortune with him. On January 1, 1959, revolutionary forces took control of Havana.

Castro moved quickly to consolidate his power as he began the nationalization process. The property of

Cubans and American corporations was taken and repurposed for the use of the new government. This increased tensions with the United States. In 1960, Castro signed a Cuban-Soviet deal to trade sugar for crude oil. Given the cold-war atmosphere, U.S.-owned oil refineries reacted to this deal by refusing to process the oil. Castro responded by nationalizing the refineries. The U.S. then embargoed exports to Cuba and stopped buying sugar. Castro reacted by nationalizing more U.S. companies. By January 1961, the U.S.-Cuban split had been complete as trade and movement between the two countries was severely restricted.



Map of Cuba, Showing the Bay of Pigs

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In April 1961, an operation known as the Bay of Pigs was launched to remove Castro from power. Led by Cuban exiles and funded covertly by the United States, the failed operation increased Castro's power while also strengthening relations between the Soviets and Cuba.

The Bay of Pigs accelerated Soviet interest in Cuba. To ensure Soviet influence over a territory near the U.S., Khrushchev sent large sums of economic, technical and military aid to Cuba. By 1962, the Soviets began secretly importing into Cuba, ballistic missiles capable of carrying nuclear warheads into the U.S.

On October 22, 1962, President John F. Kennedy (1917-1963) demanded that the missiles be removed from Cuba. Kennedy then imposed a naval blockade on the island as Soviet ships advanced toward Cuba. On October 27, Soviet leader Nikita Khrushchev informed Kennedy that he would remove the missiles if the U.S. agreed not to attack Cuba. No one bothered to tell Castro. Enraged, Castro sent Cuban soldiers to take over the missile sites. The Soviets defended the missiles and took them back to the Soviet Union.

During Castro's time as the leader of Cuba, the economy relied heavily on the Soviet Union and it was in much trouble, especially after the break-up of the Soviet Union in 1991. While the effects of the Cuban revolution continue to be debated today, one thing is clear; Fidel Castro turned a small Caribbean nation into one of the world's best-known and most talked about places.



John F. Kennedy in the Oval Office

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BERLIN WALL

Although the Caribbean proved an important theatre in the Cold War in the early 1960s, it was not the only one. Throughout the 1960s, thousands of East Germans and other groups living behind the Iron Curtain migrated to the West, often through the free city of West Berlin. Worried about losing skilled labor, East German and Soviet officials slowly choked off migration to the West. On August 12, 1961, East German officials sealed the border with West Berlin. Over the next several weeks, brick walls topped by barbed wire, minefields, and a no man's land sprang up between East and West Berlin.

Although limited amounts of travel and trade between West and East Germany continued throughout the Cold War, the Berlin Wall essentially sealed both societies off from one another. Linked to the United States and NATO, West Germany became more capitalistic, individualistic and materialistic. Dominated by Russia, East Germany was characterized by single-party rule, state control of the economy, a police state complete with the secret

police (Stasi), a controlled educational system, and constant inculcation of communist ideology.

In summer 1963, U.S. President John F. Kennedy visited West Germany, including a trip to West Berlin. In front of the West Berlin Rathaus Schöneberg (city hall), Kennedy gave a rousing speech in which he declared, “Ich bin ein Berliner” (I am a Berliner). Although Kennedy primarily sought to show solidarity with a key Cold War ally, his speech helped cement, in the eyes of many Americans and Europeans, the perception that the West stood for freedom, opportunity and the future. In contrast, the Eastern Bloc appeared to be a closed police state trapped in the past.

LBJ AND THE VIETNAM WAR

A little over a year after the resolution of the Cuban Missile Crisis, a disgruntled former marine and defector named Lee Harvey Oswald (1939-1963) assassinated President Kennedy in Dallas, Texas on November 22, 1963. Kennedy's successor, Lyndon Baynes Johnson



President John F. Kennedy Speaks at Rudolph Wilde Platz in Berlin, Germany

Artist: Cecil W. Stoughton
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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President Lyndon B. Johnson signs “Gulf of Tonkin” resolution

Artist: Cecil W. Stoughton
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(1908-1973), proved a key figure in the Cold War. A Texas native, admirer of Franklin Roosevelt, and former Senate majority leader, Johnson had little foreign policy experience. After being sworn in as president, LBJ primarily concentrated on domestic issues, using the death of JFK to push through the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and Voting Rights Act of 1965, and declaring war on poverty with an expansive set of social welfare programs known as the Great Society.

Initially, Johnson continued to uphold the foreign policy initiatives of his predecessors. In 1964, the People’s Republic of China detonated its first nuclear bomb and edged closer to displacing Taiwan as the official representative for China on the UN Security Council. The Johnson administration responded by increasing U.S. military and economic assistance to Ngo Dinh Diem’s South Vietnamese government. However, Ho Chi Minh’s Viet Cong movement, supplied by both the USSR and the PRC, only continued to increase in manpower and popularity. Relying on a cadre of Kennedy appointees including Defense Secretary Robert S. McNamara (1916-2009), Secretary of State Dean Rusk (1909-1994) and National Security Advisor

McGeorge Bundy (1919-1996), Johnson began to send American combat troops to Vietnam.

Throughout the early 1960s, North and South Vietnam fought a bloody civil war. Communist China supported the North Vietnamese, while the United States backed the regime of Ngo Dinh Diem in Saigon. In early August 1964, the U.S. Navy destroyers U.S.S. *Maddox* and U.S.S. *Turner Joy* were patrolling the Gulf of Tonkin off the coast of North Vietnam. On August 2, three North Vietnamese patrol boats engaged in a skirmish with the *Maddox*. Two days later, the *Maddox* and *Turner Joy* reported another attack and returned fire. However, conflicting reports stated that the American destroyers fired at what they thought was a second attack, although no North Vietnamese ships were actually spotted. In any case, President Johnson appeared live on television before the American public to report the attacks and announce his intention to retaliate. On August 7, Congress agreed to the Gulf of Tonkin Resolution, providing the President with wide latitude to conduct military operations in Vietnam. It was the closest the United States ever came to formally declaring war on North Vietnam.

Following the Gulf of Tonkin Resolution, President Johnson ordered massive bombing campaigns against North Vietnam and sent over 300,000 American troops to reinforce the South Vietnamese military. American special forces trained South Vietnamese soldiers, sent long-range reconnaissance patrols deep into the Vietnamese countryside to stop flows of weapons and supplies to communist insurgents, and helped to build up the South Vietnamese infrastructure.

Led by General William Westmoreland (1914-2005), the U.S. military in Vietnam had a large technological advantage over the North Vietnamese forces. However, the Viet Cong's use of guerilla warfare and their widespread support among the people more than made up for this advantage. In January 1968, Viet Cong and North Vietnam forces launched the Tet Offensive, a series of attacks on over 100 American military targets throughout South Vietnam. This caused many Americans, including leading members of the media like Walter Cronkite (1916-2009), to question whether the war could still be won. Worried about the draft, thousands of young Americans took to the street to protest the war. The war became so controversial that LBJ pledged not to run for re-election in 1968. Former vice president and Communist hardliner Richard M. Nixon (1913-1994) defeated Democrat Hubert Humphrey (1911-1978) to become U.S. president. Promising Americans "peace with honor," Nixon increased bombing on North Vietnam but gradually began transferring responsibility for the defense of South Vietnam over to ARVN (Army of the

Republic of Vietnam) in a process he referred to as the "Vietnamization" of the conflict.

In 1970, former Pentagon employee Daniel Ellsberg (b. 1931) published classified documents showing that American officials had greatly exaggerated American victories in Vietnam while hiding the number of American casualties from the public. Nixon's secretary of state, Henry Kissinger (b. 1923), conducted shuttle diplomacy with Soviet, Chinese and North Vietnamese diplomats to negotiate a gradual withdrawal of U.S. forces from South Vietnam. By 1973, all U.S. soldiers were withdrawn from Vietnam.

Since 1946, North Vietnamese forces had fought against the Japanese, French and Americans. In 1973, President Richard Nixon announced that the "Americanization" of the war was complete and ordered U.S. troops to turn over military operations to their South Vietnamese counterparts. Backed by the Soviet Union and the People's Republic of China, North Vietnamese forces began infiltrating the south. By April 1975, the North Vietnamese army approached Saigon, triggering a panic among the city's residents. Thousands of South Vietnamese that had worked with American forces fled by sea. Helicopters evacuated American embassy personnel and their dependents. At 2:30 p.m. on April 30, South Vietnamese Doung Van Minh (1916-2001) took to the airwaves to announce that his government had surrendered and that the Republic of Vietnam no longer existed. In 1976, North and South Vietnam were merged creating the Socialist Republic of Vietnam.



A boat with refugees next to the U.S. Navy aircraft carrier USS *Midway* (CVA-41) during "Operation Frequent Wind" in the South China Sea

Artist: US Navy
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THE END OF THE COLD WAR

For the rest of the 1970s, the United States remained preoccupied with domestic issues such as the decline of the steel belt, drastic increases in oil prices, stagflation, the Iranian hostage crisis, and the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan. The one diplomatic breakthrough during this period was the improvement of diplomatic relations between the United States and the People's Republic of China. Following the success of Communist forces in the Chinese Civil War in 1949, the United States refused to recognize Mao Zedong's regime. Chinese intervention in the Korean War and support for Ho Chi Minh's Viet Cong forces in the Vietnam War likewise hobbled efforts at dialogue. In 1969, Sino-Soviet relations began to deteriorate. This was caused, in part, by a border dispute which, in 1969, led to Soviet and Chinese troops engaging in a brief shooting war over the ownership of Zhenbao Island on the Ussuri River near Manchuria.

In the meantime, the Nixon administration's desire for Chinese support for aiding America's exit from Vietnam provided an opportunity for a thaw in Sino-U.S. relations. After several meetings between Chinese officials and Secretary of State Henry Kissinger, President Richard Nixon made a highly advertised goodwill trip to Beijing in 1972, meeting with Chinese Party Chairman Mao Zedong and Premier Zhou Enlai (1898-1976). During the trip, the parties discussed the possibility of diplomatic recognition and closer economic and cultural ties between China and the United States. When Mao died four years later, moderate reformer Deng Xiaoping (1904-1997) came to power. In 1978, President Jimmy Carter (b. 1924) and Deng established diplomatic relations. To reassure America's Taiwanese allies, Congress passed the Taiwan Relations Act of 1979, which required the U.S. to defend Taiwan in case of invasion.

The election of conservative Republican Ronald Reagan (1911-2004) in 1980 brought about a resurgence in Cold War tensions. Dismissing the Soviet Union as an "evil empire," Reagan drastically increased military spending, provided additional military and economic aid to allies in the third world, and began a massive military build-up of both conventional and nuclear forces. In 1985, Michael Gorbachev (1931-2022) became general secretary of the Politburo. Realizing

that the USSR could not keep up with American military spending, Gorbachev announced the new policies of glasnost (openness and transparency) and perestroika (restructuring). Above all, Gorbachev sought to allow criticism of the government and to open Russia's state-run economy to liberal reforms. However, the pace of change soon outstripped the ability of Soviet officials to control its effects. In November 1989, Soviet and East German leaders agreed to tear down the Berlin Wall. As thousands of Eastern Europeans fled to freedom in the West, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Bulgaria, Ukraine and the Baltic states began withdrawing from the USSR and turning their backs on communist ideology. Following a failed coup against Gorbachev's regime, Soviet leaders disbanded the USSR in December 1991.

TIANANMEN MASSACRE

Events took a different turn in China. The collapse of the Soviet Union created tremendous demands for political, economic and social change among ordinary Chinese citizens. Uncertain of what to do, the Chinese government of Deng Xiaoping made minor concessions and played for time. However, throughout spring 1989, thousands of demonstrators congregated in Tiananmen Park in Beijing, where Mao Zedong had proclaimed the existence of the PRC exactly four decades before. Building makeshift monuments to freedom and marching with placards, hundreds of demonstrators camped overnight in the park. Chinese officials negotiated with the protesters while building up police and military forces surrounding Tiananmen. When talks stalled, Deng ordered the military to disperse the crowd on June 4. Even to this day, it is estimated that hundreds, possibly thousands, of demonstrators died in the ensuing conflict. Although the United States and other Western countries imposed economic and cultural sanctions on China, East-West relations were restored by the time of the Clinton Administration in 1993. As a result of the Tiananmen Massacre, the CCP sent a message that although it would continue to liberalize economically, it would tolerate no social liberalization or threats to its power.

Although official accounts vary, it is estimated that 50,000-100,000 demonstrators gathered in Tiananmen Square from April-June, 1989. Students from all over

China represented the largest number of protesters. Following the Chinese government's crackdown on June 4, many students were imprisoned or forced to flee the country.

Few images of the Tiananmen Square Massacre are as iconic as that of “Tank Man,” a lone demonstrator who faced down four Chinese tanks on June 5, 1989. Dressed in a white shirt and black trousers, the man refused to back down. The tank drivers remained in place, unwilling to spark an international incident. To this day, the identity of Tank Man remains unknown. However, he has become a symbol of resistance to the heavy hand of the PRC government and a reminder of protesters who were killed or imprisoned due to their participation in the demonstrations.



Students on Tian'anmen Square, China 1989

Artist: Jiří Tondl
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SUMMARY

The Cold War was a unique kind of conflict. Deeply ideological, the Cold War pitted supporters of democratic government, capitalism and individualism against proponents of one-party political systems, socialist economic planning and the collective good. On another level the war represented a struggle between the world's two most powerful nations. Although the Cold War did explode into real conflict—Korea and Vietnam for instance – it was largely a war carried out in the shadows, involving boycotts, propaganda and national reputations. Although the United States and its allies won the war, significant geopolitical issues remained to be solved.

Although the Soviet Union was dismantled, Russia remained a viable state. The role that Russians, in shock and angered by the loss of the Cold War but still possessing a powerful conventional military and nuclear arsenal, would play on the world stage remained to be determined. Although the countries of Eastern Europe were now free, their economies remained fragile. Poles, Hungarians, Czechs and Slovaks now had to determine if their nations would progress with free markets or some form of capitalist-socialist hybrid system. Germans now openly discussed the possibility of reunification. But what type of relationship would a unified Germany have with its neighbors? Although a key U.S. ally in the Cold War, Japan now stood as a nation with a powerful economy that could increasingly say no to the will of the American government. Finally, as the Tiananmen Square Massacre revealed, although the People's Republic of China had liberalized key sectors of its economy, it would not reform its political or constitutional system. Therefore, although there was much to celebrate at the end of the Cold War, the people of the world looked forward to the end of the 20th century with a mixture of hope and uncertainty.

15

The Modern World



President Reagan is giving his famous speech 1984 at the Berlin Wall behind the Brandenburg Gate on the West Berlin side.

Artist: Unknown
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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Created in 1961 by the East German government to prevent local citizens from fleeing to the West, the Berlin Wall represented a collection of bunkers, guard towers and barbed wire fences that spanned 96 miles through downtown Berlin. In three decades, over 140 people were killed trying to cross the barrier. As the Cold War intensified, the Berlin Wall became a symbol of communist oppression.

Following the announcement of Mikhail Gorbachev's liberalizing glasnost and perestroika policies of the mid-1980s, the pro-Kremlin East German government faced public pressure to reform. Bowing to such pressures, GDR Politburo Member Gunter Schabowski announced in a November 9, 1989 press conference that the East German government would allow freedom of travel between the two Germanys. When a reporter

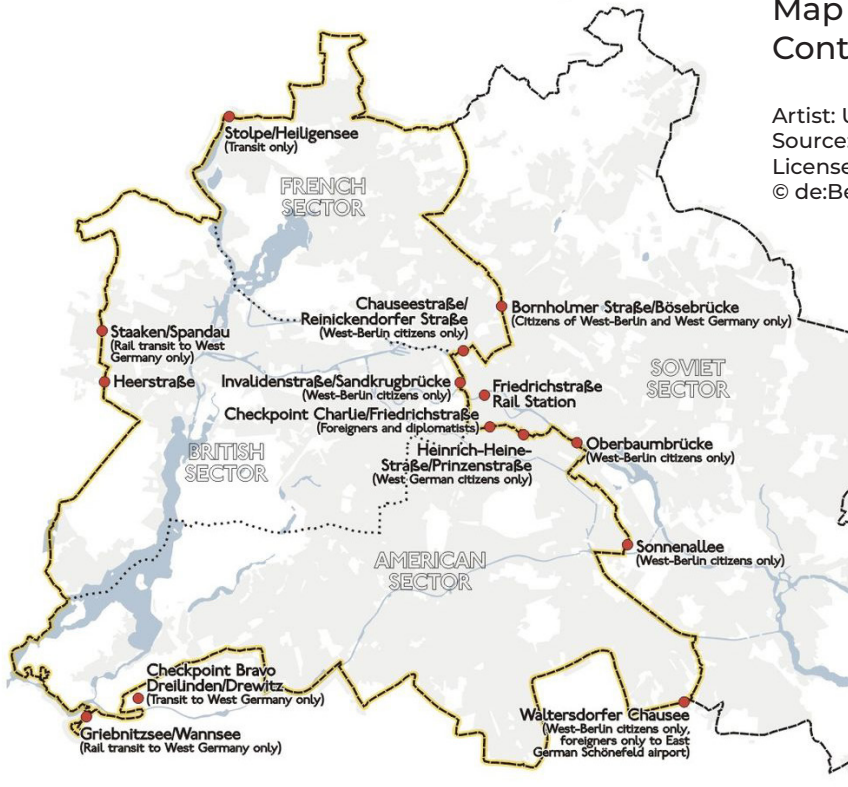
Map Shows the Berlin Wall and the Border Control Checkpoints until 1989.

Artist: User "de:Benutzer:Sansculotte"

Source: Wikimedia Commons

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© de:Benutzer:Sansculotte



1986 picture of the Berlin Wall in Bethaniendamm, the West Berlin side brightly painted

Artist: Noir

Source: Wikimedia Commons

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asked when this policy would take effect, the startled officials responded, "As far as I know—immediately, without delay." Within minutes of Schabowski's statement, East German crowds took sledgehammers to the Berlin Wall, a hated symbol of Soviet repression. When border guards refused to fire on the Mauerspechte (wallpeckers), East Germans began climbing over the wall to be greeted with flowers and champagne from elated West Berliners. The fall of the Berlin Wall marked a crucial moment in the emergence of a post-Cold War world. This chapter discusses the political, economic and social factors that led to the fall of the Soviet Union and the emergence of a "new world order."

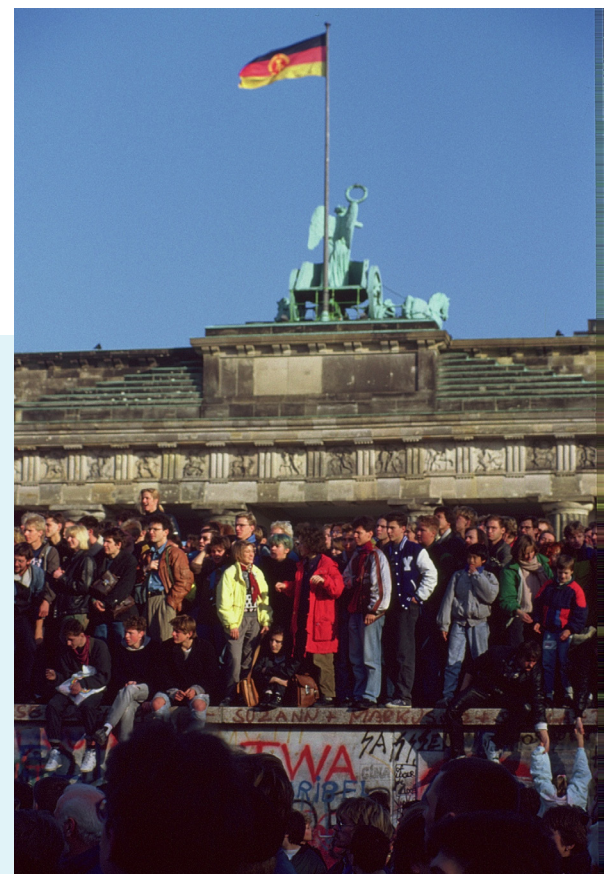
Completed in 1791 as a monument to King Frederick Wilhelm of Prussia, the Brandenburg Gate represented one of the most famous landmarks in Berlin. Located near the Berlin Wall on the West German side, the gate served as a symbol of hope and unity during the Cold War. Most famously, it served as the site for U.S. President John F. Kennedy's June 26, 1963 "Ich bin ein Berliner" speech. The gate was also a popular rallying point for demonstrators during the fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989.

Fall of the Berliner Wall November 9, 1989

Artist: Roland Blunck

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THE FALL OF THE SOVIET UNION

The death of Joseph Stalin in March 1953 created a power vacuum in the Kremlin. Georgy Malenkov (1901-1988), a loyal Stalinist, initially emerged as the new premier. However, less than two years later, the popular political reformer Nikita Khrushchev replaced the dour Malenkov as the key powerbroker in Moscow. In a secret speech delivered to the 20th Party Congress on February 14, 1956, Khrushchev condemned Stalin for “his intolerance, his brutality, and his abuse of power” against “not only against actual enemies but also against individuals who had not committed any crimes against the party or the Soviet Government.” Over the next two years, Khrushchev shuttered “GULAG” labor camps, freed thousands of political prisoners, eased travel restrictions to and from the USSR, and announced a “peaceful cooperation” policy with the West. To be certain, Khrushchev did not hesitate to brutally crush an uprising in Hungary in 1956. Nevertheless, his tenure as premier marked a definite thaw in the Cold War.

During the Cuban Missile Crisis of 1962, U.S. President John F. Kennedy successfully prevented the installation of Soviet nuclear missiles in Cuba. Soviet leaders blamed Khrushchev for caving to Western pressure and two years later backed Leonid Brezhnev (1906-1982) to become the new premier. A communist hardliner, Brezhnev rolled back many of the Khrushchev-era reforms. For instance, in what became known as the “Brezhnev Doctrine,” the Soviet leader argued that any attempt to overthrow a socialist government in the Eastern Bloc threatened all socialist nations throughout the region and justified invasion by the Soviet Union and its Warsaw Pact allies. Brezhnev used this rationale to justify the Soviet invasion of Czechoslovakia in 1968 to suppress the reform movement known as the “Prague Spring.” Brezhnev restored many state controls over the Soviet economy, emphasizing slow and steady industrial and agricultural growth. Although this approach allowed the Soviet economy to avoid the boom-and-bust cycles of Western nations it also came at the expense of chronic shortages of consumer goods and stagnated living standards throughout the USSR.

In terms of foreign policy, Brezhnev sought to prevent another Cuban Missile Crisis by working with the Nixon (1913-1994), Ford (1913-2006) and Carter (b.

1924) administrations to create the Strategic Arms Limitation Treaties (SALT I and SALT II), which limited the stockpiles of nuclear arms each nation could possess and the circumstances under which such weapons could be used. However, any hopes for a breakthrough in the nuclear arms race ended with the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan. Since the end of the Second World War, both Soviet and Western diplomats had treated Afghanistan as a buffer state. Yet in 1973, the Soviet-backed leader of the Afghanistan socialist party Mohammed Daoud Khan (1909-1978) seized control of Kabul and announced the creation of the left-leaning Republic of Afghanistan. Offended by Khan’s Marxist government and its support from the Soviets, many Muslim chieftains who controlled the surrounding countryside worked to undermine both Khan and his Soviet allies. From 1979-1989, Mujahedeen (those who struggle) forces used guerrilla tactics—ambushes, assassinations, bombings and hit-and-run attacks—to wear down Soviet forces. In a striking parallel to the United States’ defeat in Vietnam, the Soviet-Afghan War sapped the USSR of manpower, morale and resources. The conflict also economically and diplomatically isolated the Soviet Union in the eyes of the world community.

SOLIDARITY MOVEMENT

Throughout the 1970s, many Eastern Europeans became frustrated by rising food prices and declining living standards. In June 1976, Polish Prime Minister Piotr Jaroszewicz (1909-1992) announced drastic price increases for essential goods such as butter, meat and sugar. When an estimated 20,000 Warsaw residents took to the streets in protest, state security services lying in wait launched a vicious crackdown. Realizing they had a common enemy, Polish labor unions joined forces with intellectuals to create the Worker’s Defense Party (KOR) to provide a united front that look to build a better Poland.

In 1980, electrical engineer Lech Walesa (b. 1943) worked closely with KOR to launch a strike at the Gdansk shipyards. Similar strikes quickly broke out across the nation. Walesa coordinated with local strike leaders to form the Inter-Enterprise Strike Committee. On August 17, Walesa, speaking for the committee, issued a list of 21 demands to the Polish government, including the right to create labor unions, collectively bargain, and go on strike. Two weeks later, the Polish



Born the son of an army officer and teacher in 1931, Karol Józef Wojtyła (1920-2005) attended an underground seminary in Nazi-occupied Warsaw. Finishing his theological studies in Rome, he rose quickly through the ranks of the Polish clergy. In 1978, he became Pope John Paul II, the first non-Italian pontiff in nearly 500 years. Lending the moral weight of the Roman Catholic Church to the solidarity movement, the newly installed pope quickly attracted millions of followers on both sides of the Iron Curtain. John-Paul II also steered the Catholic Church on a more conservative course away from the liberation theology and Vatican II movements of the 1960s. In May 1981, Turkish extremist Mehmet Ali Ağca (b. 1958) attempted to assassinate the Pope. John-Paul II not only recovered but met with and forgave his assailant in prison. As a religious leader who could command respect amongst Polish dock workers and Vatican hardliners, John-Paul II became one of the most popular pontiffs in church history.

Pope John Paul II in Krakow—1983

Artist: Unknown
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government agreed to the demands. Strike Committee leaders formally reorganized themselves as the National Coordinating Committee of the Solidarność (Solidarity) Free Trade Union with Walesa as chairman. Declaring the solidarity movement illegal in 1982, Prime Minister Jaroszewicz arrested its leaders. Awarded the Nobel Peace Prize in 1983, Walesa defused political tensions with Polish authorities by sending his wife Mirosława Danuta (b. 1949) to receive the award on his behalf.

As the archbishop of Krakow and later Pope Wojtyła, worked tirelessly to provide meeting space for solidarity leaders, protect political prisoners from arrest and torture, and pressure the Polish government to release innocent workers whose only crime was attempting to organize and strike for better living conditions. John Paul II's rise paralleled that of two other conservative politicians: U.S. President Ronald Reagan (1911-2004) and British Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher (1925-2013). Born into a working-class family in Tampico, Illinois, in 1911, Reagan excelled as a radio announcer and actor in the 1940s and 1950s. Reagan appeared in over 50 movies and became known as a dependable "B" list actor. Turning to politics in the 1960s, Reagan changed his affiliation from the Democratic to the Republican party. Running on a campaign that favored small government and tough on crime initiatives,

Reagan became governor of California from 1967-1975. By utilizing a cheerful, upbeat "Morning in America" campaign, Reagan won a landslide election as U.S. president in 1980. He used his training as an actor to convince American voters that expansive government could not solve longstanding social problems and stymied individual creativity and responsibility. A fierce "Cold Warrior," Reagan dismissed the Soviet Union as an "evil empire," while seeking to roll back socialism in Latin America, and sponsoring a massive military build-up to defend American interests abroad.

In pushing his anti-communist message, Reagan found a willing partner in Margaret Thatcher, the first female British Prime Minister. Born into a family of grocers in Lincolnshire, Thatcher studied chemistry at Oxford University. While serving as a member of Parliament in the 1950s, Thatcher advocated for the privatization of key segments of the British economy and for Britain and its allies to adopt a strong stance against the Soviet bloc. Much like her American counterpart, Thatcher could make large quantities of complicated political and economic data understandable to lay audiences.

Mikhail Gorbachev became general secretary in 1985. From the moment he assumed office, Gorbachev faced a litany of problems. Suffering from decades of

centralized planning, staggering inefficiency and deep-seated corruption, the Soviet economy proved unable to clothe and feed the USSR's 276 million people. Years of emphasizing military over civilian production appeared to have failed as the United States and Great Britain launched a massive military buildup that the Soviet Union could no longer keep up with. By the 1980s, a young generation of Soviet citizens had come of age. Well-educated and upwardly mobile, they had grown up on illegal but readily available Western news programs, music and television shows, and many had become openly critical of communism and socialism. Furthermore, many ethnic minorities living under Russian domination, including Estonians, Latvians, Lithuanians, Poles, Czechs, Slovaks, Hungarians, Ukrainians and Azerbaijanis, clamored for more autonomy, control over their internal affairs, and increasingly, independence. The bloody stalemate in Afghanistan continued unabated, with most of the free world openly supporting the Mujahadeen.

To tackle these problems, Gorbachev announced two new policies: Glasnost (publicity or openness) which promised freedom of speech, including the ability to criticize the government, and Perestroika (restructuring or reforming), which sought to relax governmental control over the economy, encourage privatization and provide transparency to the taxpayers. Although well-meaning, these initiatives did little to stem the forces already tearing the Soviet Union apart.



**Berlin Wall at
Brandenburg Gate,
November 10, 1989**

Artist: Sue Ream
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Born in 1931, Gorbachev represented a break from an earlier generation of Soviet leaders who witnessed the Romanovs' absolutism, the Russian defeat in World War I, and the October Revolution. A committed Marxist-Leninist, Gorbachev became a reformer in the tradition of Nikita Khrushchev. Walking a difficult tightrope, Gorbachev openly supported Brezhnev's crackdown on Prague Spring in 1968 while privately becoming frustrated by the corruption and waste he encountered because of centralized planning. Throughout the 1970s, Gorbachev avidly read the works of Western Marxist intellectuals and networked with Italian, German and French socialists. Upon becoming a member of the politburo in 1980, Gorbachev helped to advance Yuri Andropov (1914-1984) to the position of premier following Brezhnev's death two years later. When the sickly Andropov passed away in 1984 only to be replaced by the even more ill Konstantin Chernenko (1911-1985), who died of cancer in March 1985, Gorbachev became the new leader of the Soviet Union.

**President Reagan greets Soviet General Secretary
Gorbachev at Hofdi House during the Reykjavik
Summit. Iceland. 10/12/86.**

Author: Federal Government
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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On April 26, 1986, during a routine test of the Chernobyl nuclear power plant's cooling system, a reactor in the Pripyat, Ukraine plant overheated and exploded, spreading radioactive matter throughout the atmosphere. Although Soviet officials worked quickly to contain the fallout, thousands of people and acres teeming with wildlife were exposed to lethal radiation levels. Belarussian and Ukrainian leaders openly accused the Russians of recklessness in running unsafe nuclear power plants and being indifferent to the suffering of local people.

In 1987, Gorbachev announced plans to entirely withdraw all Soviet forces from Afghanistan, grant Soviet bloc countries additional autonomy, and allow opposition parties to form and take part in Russian elections. The fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989 encouraged thousands of young Russians, many cynical toward

communism, to protest throughout the streets of Moscow. Lithuania stunned the world by declaring its independence from the Soviet Union on March 11. By August 1991, Estonia, Latvia, Ukraine, Belarus, Moldova, Georgia, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan had followed suit.

RISE OF BORIS YELTSIN AND THE END OF THE USSR

Russians increasingly experienced the winds of political change. On March 29, 1990, populist and Soviet critic Boris Yeltsin (1931-2007) won election as chairman of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic, the first such



Boris Yeltsin 22 August 1991

Artist: Russian News Agency TASS, published by www.kremlin.ru
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Born in Yekaterinburg, Russia in 1931, Boris Yeltsin's father was arrested and imprisoned during the Stalinist purges. Trained as a construction engineer, Yeltsin proved a charismatic party member. In 1985, Premier Mikhail Gorbachev appointed Yeltsin to the Politburo. His outspoken criticism of Soviet central planning made him unpopular with other Russian

elites but endeared him to the masses. As president of the Russian Federation, he privatized much of the country's economy and stabilized Moscow's relations with the West. However, as time went on, Yeltsin became mired in accusations of corruption and alcoholism. After choosing Vladimir Putin (b. 1952) as his successor, Yeltsin died in Moscow in 2007.

chair to have gained office by popular election rather than appointment by the Communist Party. Striking out boldly, Yeltsin spearheaded efforts to create a new Russian constitution that guaranteed freedom of speech, private property and the right to petition the state to redress grievances. Yeltsin also demanded greater political autonomy for Russia.

In August 1991, a group of diehard Communist officials, including Soviet Vice President Gennady Yanayev (1937-2010), Prime Minister Valentin Pavlov (1937-2003), Defense Minister Dmitry Yazov (1924-2020), and KGB Chief Vladimir Kryuchkov (1924-2007), kidnapped Mikhail Gorbachev and occupied the Kremlin. On August 19, Yeltsin climbed aboard a Soviet tank parked in front of the Russian Parliament. Surrounded by thousands of demonstrators, Yeltsin announced through a loudspeaker that “we are dealing with a rightist, reactionary, anti-constitutional coup. Despite all the difficulties and severe trials experienced by the people, the democratic process in the country is acquiring an increasingly broad sweep and an irreversible character.” Realizing they lacked public support, the coup leaders surrendered to Russian authorities.

In December 1991, Yeltsin and other Soviet leaders gathered to sign the Belovezha Accords. The Accords abolished the Soviet Union and established a successor state, the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS). The Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic rebranded itself the Russian Federation, and Boris Yeltsin became its first President. After seven decades, the Soviet Union now lay in pieces, and the Cold War with it. However, the question of what kind of post-Soviet future would emerge, especially for the people whose lives had no other way of life for generations, had yet been answered.

CIVIL RIGHTS

During the Second World War over one million African Americans, Hispanic, Asians, women, and those whom today might identify as LGBTQ, had served in the U.S. military. Millions more supported the war effort by working in factories, buying war bonds and keeping the home front functioning. Nevertheless, minorities were often given the messiest and most dangerous jobs in the military. While Japanese-American members of the 522 Field Artillery Battalion liberated victims of the Dachau Concentration Camp in 1945, 120,000 of their families and friends remained incarcerated at federally administered “internment camps” that stretched from the Pacific Coast to the Deep South.

Following the Second World War many working-class Americans used the G.I. Bill to secure university degrees. Yet many elite schools, businesses and neighborhoods still refused African Americans, Hispanics and others, entry into the middle class. Angered at centuries of exclusion, African Americans across class lines invoked their wartime experiences, university degrees, and accumulated savings to begin attacking all forms of racial segregation and inequity. Realizing the difficulties in armed resistance and the intransigence of many local and state officials to any kind of racial progress, civil rights leaders decided to challenge the constitutionality of segregation laws in federal courts. In 1940, civil rights leaders including a young Thurgood Marshall (1908-1993) created the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) Legal Defense Fund. Although created and funded by the NAACP, the LDF existed as a separate organization staffed with attorneys, accountants and activists who began searching through examples of racial discrimination that could be challenged in court.

One of the first victories for the LDF came in the Supreme Court case of *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas* (1954). The case arose from the complaints of an African American father whose daughter, Linda Brown



Trabant cars on display in Berlin

Artist: Edward Haylan
Source: iStockPhoto.com/EdwardHaylan
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Born in 1913 in Tuskegee, Alabama, Rosa Parks grew up on stories of “slavery days” told by her grandfather. Growing up in Montgomery, Alabama, Parks attended segregated schools and received a high school education and training as a seamstress at the Montgomery Industrial School for Girls. Joining the NAACP in 1943, she received training as a nonviolent demonstrator from the Highlander Folk School in Monteagle, Tennessee. In 1955, she spontaneously refused to give up her bus seat to a white man, triggering the Montgomery Bus Boycott. She died in 2005 in Detroit.

Rosa Parks and Martin Luther King (around 1955)

Artist: Unknown
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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(1943-2018), had to walk several miles across dangerous train tracks to attend a second-rate school for African Americans when a brand new white primary school lay a few blocks from her home. Thurgood Marshall and his associates pushed the case through state and federal courts. In 1954, the U.S. Supreme Court under the leadership of the recently installed Chief Justice Earl Warren (1891-1974) ruled in favor of Brown. Speaking for a unanimous court on May 17 Warren asserted “[w]e conclude that, in the field of public education, the doctrine of “separate but equal” has no place. Separate educational facilities are inherently unequal.” The results of the Brown decision were instantly controversial. Southern legislatures passed dozens of “interposition” laws designed to find ways around, or at least delay desegregation. Over the next 12 months, only a few schools throughout the nation started any form of desegregation. This prompted Warren to issue another decision known as Brown II demanding that schools begin desegregating “with all deliberate speed.”

The next turning point in the burgeoning civil rights movement occurred on December 1, 1955, when Rosa Parks (1913-2005), a seamstress and trained civil rights activist, refused to give up her seat to a white man on a segregated bus in Montgomery, Alabama. Under Alabama law, African Americans were required to sit

at the back of buses and surrender their seats to white passengers on demand. Acting on her own, Parks was arrested and quickly released on bail. Local black leaders including local NAACP President E. D. Nixon (1899-1987) and 27-year-old Dexter Avenue Baptist Church minister Martin Luther King Jr. (1929-1968) quickly formed the Montgomery Improvement Association to rally public support for Parks. The MIA coordinated a massive strike on Montgomery’s public transportation system that lasted for over a year. Nixon and King also launched a federal lawsuit *Browder v. Gayle* that challenged Montgomery’s segregated bus system. On December 20, 1956, the Warren Court struck down segregation in public transportation.

Drawing from the success of the Montgomery Campaign, King and other civil rights leaders including Ralph Abernathy (1926-1990), Joseph Lowery (1921-2020), Bayard Rustin (1912-1987) and Fred Shuttlesworth (1922-2011), gathered in January 1957 in Atlanta, Georgia to create the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC). Drawing from evangelical Protestantism, transcendentalism, and Mahatma Gandhi’s concept of nonviolence (satyagraha), King proposed adopting a strategy in which black and white protesters would protest segregation through marches, sit-ins and singing. Although the protesters would face

hostility, they would not return violence with violence. In addition to possibly changing the hearts of their oppressors, such nonviolent tactics also provided a powerful image to the world of armed officers using brutal tactics against unarmed demonstrators seeking basic civil rights.

The next battle in the civil rights movement came in the fall of 1957 when nine African American school children and their families attempted to desegregate Little Rock Central High School in Arkansas. When Arkansas Governor Orval Faubus (1910-1994) called out the Arkansas National Guard to prevent the students from attending classes. Although U.S. President Dwight Eisenhower had previously proved reluctant to support the civil rights movement, he was not about to allow a state governor to contest the authority of a federal court order. He dispatched the 101st Airborne to protect the students from harassing mobs and ensure that they were allowed to pursue their education at Central High School.

Three years later, four African American students attempted to peacefully desegregate a Woolworth's lunch counter in Greensboro, North Carolina. Their efforts sparked a series of similar sit-ins across the nation. They also inspired a group of seven black and six white "freedom riders" in spring 1961 to travel throughout the south by bus, deliberately disobeying local segregation laws. Although the riders faced violent attacks in Anniston and Birmingham, Alabama, their efforts helped draw worldwide attention to the plight of civil rights protesters.

In 1963, Martin Luther King Jr. and the SCLC launched an all-out campaign against segregation in Birmingham, Alabama. On April 3, King was arrested for participating in a public protest without a permit. While imprisoned, King wrote his seminal "Letter from Birmingham Jail" which outlined his philosophy of nonviolence. To keep up the momentum, the SCLC and local civil rights leaders made the controversial decision to allow school-age children take part in the protests. When Birmingham Public Safety Commissioner Eugene "Bull" Connor (1897-1973) sought to disrupt the demonstrations by using police armed with clubs and dogs, and firemen wielding water cannons, national news cameras captured the confrontations and turned national public opinion decisively against the defenders of segregation. On May 10, a newly installed city government and the SCLC reached an agreement to free all arrested demonstrators, end segregation of parks and public transportation, and allow African Americans to hold positions in Birmingham's police and city government. However, the success of the Birmingham campaign was tragically undercut four months later by the murder of four young girls. On the morning of Sunday, September 16, 1963, white supremacists placed a bomb in the Sixteenth Street Baptist Church, a key meeting point for civil rights demonstrators. At 10:22 a.m. the bomb went off, killing four young girls - Addie Mae Collins (14 years old), Denise McNair (11 years old), Carole Robertson (14 years old) and Cynthia Wesley (14 years old). The brutal bombing revealed the true horror of segregation and encouraged even more support for the civil rights movement.

Organized by A. Philip Randolph and Bayard Rustin, the March on Washington for Jobs and Freedom held on August 28, 1963, attracted between 200,000-300,000 demonstrators, 70-80% of whom were African American. Auto Union Worker President Walter Reuther played a key role in organizing the march. The march played a leading role in the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964.

Civil Rights March on Washington, D.C. (Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. and Mathew Ahmann in a crowd

Artist: Rowland Scherman
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In August 1963, Martin Luther King Jr. and the leaders of other civil rights and labor organizations led 250,000 demonstrators in a march on Washington. Standing before the Lincoln Memorial King, delivered his “I Have a Dream Speech” in which he envisioned:

When we allow freedom to ring, when we let it ring from every village and every hamlet, from every state and every city, we will be able to speed up that day when all of God’s children, black men and white men, Jews, and Gentiles, Protestants, and Catholics, will be able to join hands and sing in the words of the old Negro spiritual: “Free at last! Free at last! thank God Almighty, we are free at last!”

The son of a Baptist minister, Martin Luther King Jr. was raised in Atlanta and subsequently attended Morehouse College and Boston University. Pastor at the Dexter Avenue Baptist Church in Montgomery, Alabama, King at age 26 became a spokesman for the Montgomery Bus Boycott. Catapulted to national fame, he helped form the Southern Christian Leadership Conference and carried out a series of high-profile civil rights campaigns throughout the 1950s and 1960s.

As support for the civil rights movement grew, national political leaders carefully watched its development. One such figure was Lyndon Baines Johnson, a larger-than-life Texan who had served as a congressman, Senate majority leader, and vice-president. Elevated to the presidency following the assassination of John F. Kennedy in Dallas on November 22, 1963, Johnson sought to use the publicity generated by the March on Washington and the martyrdom of JFK (who, like Eisenhower, had initially been lukewarm on the civil rights movement) to push through Congress the Civil Rights Act of 1964 that struck down segregation in large areas of public life - parks, restaurants, movie theaters, stores, libraries and public transportation. For his tireless support of civil rights, King received the Nobel Peace Prize in October 1964.

Having won substantial victories in the field of public accommodations, civil rights leaders now turned to the issue of voting rights. Since Reconstruction, officials who controlled southern elections used a variety of illegal tactics - poll taxes, literacy tests, intimidation, etc. - to prevent African Americans from registering to vote. In the summer of 1964, civil rights activists,

many of whom were college students, fanned out across Mississippi to set up “freedom schools” that helped local African Americans register to vote. On June 21, 1964, Ku Klux Klan members aided by local police officers murdered three activists - James Chaney (1943-1964), Andrew Goodman (1943-1964), and Michael Schwerner (1939-1964) - in Neshoba County. At the 1964 Democratic National Convention in Atlantic City, New Jersey, Fannie Lou Hamer (1917-1977) led efforts to create the Mississippi Freedom Democratic Party as an alternative to the state’s all-white delegation.

The events of Freedom Summer inspired Martin Luther King Jr. and his SCLC followers to plan a Voting Rights March from Selma to Montgomery, Alabama. On Sunday, March 7, 1965, in what the national media later referred to as “Bloody Sunday,” Alabama state troopers brutally beat demonstrators on the Edmund Pettus Bridge. Two days later, James Bevel (1936-2008) and another group of demonstrators were arrested for trying to cross the bridge. President Lyndon Baines Johnson federalized the Alabama National Guard and ordered them to protect the demonstrators. He also successfully leveraged the images of armed police officers accosting peaceful demonstrators on national television to secure passage of the Voting Rights Act of 1965 which allowed the federal government to monitor local elections and guard polling places to prevent voter suppression and intimidation. On March 21, King and his followers peacefully crossed Edmund Pettus Bridge and marched to Montgomery, attracting an estimated 25,000 demonstrators. On the steps of the Alabama State Capital, King delivered his seminal “How Long, Not Long” speech.

Following the Voting Rights March, Martin Luther King Jr. and the SCLC began to take strong stands against the war in Vietnam and in support of economic justice for Americans living below the poverty line. In 1968, King launched his “Poor People’s Campaign” to march on Washington DC. On April 4, 1968, embittered white supremacist James Earl Ray assassinated Martin Luther King at the Lorraine Motel in Memphis, Tennessee. Following King’s assassination, riots broke out in Baltimore, Chicago, Los Angeles, Washington DC and other cities across America resulting in 43 deaths, 3,000 people injured, and 20,000 arrested.

Although Martin Luther King Jr.’s calls for nonviolence attracted millions of supporters, he was not the only



Born in 1921 in Peoria, Illinois, Betty Friedan graduated from Smith College. Finding work as a journalist, Friedan published the bestselling *Feminine Mystique* in 1963. The book described the feelings of isolation and a lack of fulfillment faced by many American women in the postwar period. She co-founded the National Organization for Women in 1966 and served as its first president. A tireless advocate for women's rights, she died in Washington DC in 2006.

Betty Friedan

Artist: Lynn Gilbert
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voice in the civil rights movement. In the 1950s former small-time criminal, Malcolm Little (1925-1965) went through a religious awakening in prison. Becoming a devout member of the African American led Nation of Islam, Little adopted the name "Malcolm X." Giving speeches across the nation to sold-out stadiums, Malcolm X urged African Americans to stand up for themselves and to take pride in their African heritage. After a falling out with the Honorable Elijah Muhammad (1897-1975), leader of the Nation of Islam, Malcolm X went on a hajj to Mecca. Although moderating his racial beliefs and showing a new willingness to work with other civil rights groups, Malcolm X differed sharply from King in his insistence that "[w]e declare our right on this earth to be a man, to be a human being, to be respected as a human being, to be given the rights of a human being in this society, on this earth, in this day, which we intend to bring into existence by any means necessary." However, on February 21, 1965, three gunmen, possibly rival Nation of Islam members, assassinated Malcolm X at an Organization of Afro-American Unity held at the Audubon Ballroom in Manhattan.

Throughout the 1950s and 1960s, the civil rights movement and women's rights movements often worked together to achieve similar objectives. From the beginning, women played a leading role in the civil rights movement. Ella Baker (1903-1986) not only helped to organize the SCLC but was also a founding member of Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC). Gloria Richardson (1922-2021) led the Cambridge Movement in Maryland whose sit-ins and protests led

to widespread desegregation across the Old-Line State. As a civil rights attorney, Pauli Murray (1910-1985) helped to organize the defense for *Brown v. Board* and drafted portions of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. She also helped to find the National Organization for Women (NOW) in 1966.

Many women's rights activists gained inspiration from not only the civil rights movement but also the publication of Betty Friedan's seminal *The Feminine Mystique* (1963). Throughout her work, Friedan articulated the feelings of repressed anger and disillusionment which many middle and working-class women felt in an American society that was rapidly progressing in terms of technology, education and employment opportunities, yet which still consigned them to the traditional women's roles of mother, teacher, secretary and nurse. The *Feminine Mystique* encouraged women to organize and join organizations such as NOW which pushed for equal pay, employment rights and educational opportunities in law, business and medical schools. In the late 1960s women's rights activists pushed for an Equal Rights Amendment that would forbid discrimination based on gender. Approved by Congress in 1972, the ERA failed to gain the necessary ratification of 2/3rds of the states to become official. However, the following year women earned a substantial victory in the field of reproductive rights. In the landmark U.S. Supreme Court case of *Roe v. Wade* (1973), the High Court upheld the right of a woman to an abortion during the first trimester of pregnancy.



Cesar Chavez and Brown Berets at Peace Rally

Artist: Los Angeles Times, photo published by the University of California, Los Angeles
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The struggles of African Americans and women to gain equality inspired other marginalized social groups to stand up for their rights. For instance, in 1962 Mexican-American migrant worker and social activist Cesar Chavez (1927-1993) mobilized poor agricultural laborers to form the United Farm Workers (UFW). Drawing from King's nonviolence

philosophy, in 1965, Chavez launched a widely publicized strike on behalf of poor, Filipino employees of several vineyards in Delano, California. Forced to the bargaining table, several large agribusinesses signed agreements with the UFW, promising to improve working conditions, pay and more opportunities for professional advancement. In 1975, Chavez and his followers successfully lobbied the California legislature to pass the California Agricultural Labor Relations Act which allowed workers to collectively bargain and go on strike.



The success of the civil rights movement also inspired Native American activism. In 1968, Dennis Banks (1937-2017), George Mitchell (1936-2015), Russell Means (1939-2012) and other activists founded the American Indian Movement (AIM) in Minneapolis, Minnesota. AIM soon gained national recognition for carrying out a series of well-publicized occupations at the Bureau of Indian Affairs in Washington DC, and Wounded Knee, South Dakota, the site of a massacre of Native Americans by federal troops in 1890. By holding on to the Wounded Knee battlefield for 71

Tatanka Banks, Dennis Banks being honored

Artist: Neeta Lind
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President Ronald Reagan and Sandra Day O'Connor

Artist: White House
Collection: White House Photographic
Collection, 1/20/1981 - 1/20/1989
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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days, AIM brought public attention to centuries of Native American abuse and exploitation at the hands of whites.

Of all the social movements of the mid-twentieth century, the LGBTQ+ remains one of the most complex. Although individuals who identified as queer could be found across all social classes and ethnic groups, they often lived double lives on the margins of “polite society.” However, the social forces unleashed by the 1960s served to unify and politicize the growing LGBTQ+ community. On the early morning of June 28, 1968, New York City police raided the Stonewall Bar in Greenwich Village, an establishment that catered to a largely



Sandra Day
O'Connor,
Official Portrait

Author: Library of Congress
Source: Wikimedia Commons
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gay clientele. When patrons resisted arrest, thousands of demonstrators spontaneously came to their aid. Over the next several days, activists and their allies held demonstrations across the United States. The Stonewall Riots represented the first large-scale outpouring of LGBTQ+ activism on a national level and helped inspire the creation of the Gay Liberation Front a year later. On June 28, 1970, the first Gay Pride March occurred in New York City. Three years later the National Gay and Lesbian Taskforce began to lobby Congress and the White House for the advancement of LGBTQ+ rights. In 1977, Harvey Milk (1930-1978) became the first openly gay man to win an election, becoming a member of the San Francisco Board of Supervisors. However, Milk's tragic assassination by disgruntled former Board of Supervisors member Dan White (1946-1985) in 1978 revealed the ongoing dangers LGBTQ+ Americans still faced in American society.

By the early 1970s, a growing percentage of Americans had become frustrated by the rapid pace of social change and the breakout of so many social justice movements. President Richard M. Nixon (1913-1994) dubbed this group the “silent majority.” They primarily represented working- and middle-class whites who were religiously conservative. Angered by the social upheavals of the period and worried by inflation, rising gas prices and a weak economy, white conservatives began to borrow from the tactics used by civil rights demonstrators including holding sit-ins and marches to protest the expansion of government.

Enjoying a commanding lead in the presidential election of 1980, Ronald Reagan (1911-2004) and his Republican supporters took control of the U.S. Senate and made sizable inroads in the House of Representatives and governor's mansions across the country. Seeking to reduce the size of the federal government and roll back many New Deal and Great Society reforms, the Reagan administration did little to advance civil rights other than by appointing African American Samuel Pierce (1922-2000) as the Secretary of Housing and Urban Development, and Sandra Day O'Connor (b. 1930) as the first female justice of the U.S. Supreme Court. The early 1980s witnessed the first outbreak of AIDS (Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome) in the U.S. A deadly, blood-based disease that attacked the immune system, the Reagan administration did not publicly acknowledge AIDS until 1986 and only committed funding to fight it in 1987.

When Ronald Reagan stepped down from the presidency in 1988, he threw his support to Vice President George H.W. Bush (b. 1946). A New England-born World War II hero who made a fortune in the Texas oil industry, Bush was a loyal Republican. He served as head of the CIA, ambassador to the UN, chairman of the Republican National Committee, and a special envoy to China before becoming vice president. Known primarily for conducting a brief war to oust Iraqi forces from Kuwait, on a domestic level Bush sought to merge Ronald Reagan's small government ideals with a greater sensitivity for social issues.

However, in spring 1992 the Bush administration faced the largest racial riots since those that occurred in the

wake of Martin Luther King's assassination nearly a quarter century before. On April 29, 1992, four police officers used excessive force on an African American named Rodney King (1965-2012) after an extensive car chase. Caught on tape by a local resident, videos of the beating soon appeared on media outlets across the world. When a jury acquitted the four police officers, riots exploded across Los Angeles. Over the next six days, 53 people died and 2,383 were injured in the fighting. Demonstrators set more than 7,000 fires and caused over \$1 billion in property damage.

President Bush's slow response to the situation proved a factor in his defeat in the 1992 presidential election to moderate Democrat William Jefferson "Bill" Clinton (b. 1946). Although Clinton supported initiatives such as the Civil Rights Act of 1991, Voting Rights Act of 1993, and Hates Crimes Prevention Act of 1994, he also adopted a "tough on crime" stance, curtailed social spending, and signed the 1996 Defense of Marriage Act that defined marriage under federal law as between one man and one woman. The Clinton administration also offered qualified support for the Million Man March, a demonstration in Washington DC on October 16, 1995, led by Nation of Islam leader Louis Farrakhan (b. 1933) and SCLC activist James Bevel. Two years later, the first Million Woman March occurred in Philadelphia.

Following the election of George W. Bush in 2000, conservatives and progressives alike applauded his appointment of Colin Powell (1937-2021) as the first African American secretary of state. Eight years later, Barack Obama became the first African American

Born on August 4, 1961 in Honolulu, Hawaii, Barack Obama was the son of a Kenyan math professor and an anthropologist. Raised in Indonesia and Hawaii by his grandparents, Obama attended Occidental College, Columbia University and Harvard Law School. Finding work as a constitutional law professor and community organizer in Chicago, Obama began accumulating the skills and contacts to become a national political figure. Elected to the U.S. Senate in 2004, he received the Democratic nomination for President in 2008. After defeating Republican nominee John McCain (1936-2018), Obama became the first African American U.S. President. As President, he oversaw the creation of the Affordable Care Act and the killing of Osama Bin Laden (1957-2011). In 2009, he received the Nobel Peace Prize.



Barack Obama Family Portrait 2011

Artist: Pete Souza
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presidential nominee of a major political party and, following the 2008 presidential election, the first African American president. During his victory night speech on November 8, Obama remarked “If there is anyone out there who still doubts that America is a place where all things are possible; who still wonders if the dream of our founders is alive in our time; who still questions the power of our democracy, tonight is your answer.”

Although Obama’s election certainly represented a milestone in the advancement of civil rights across America, his tenure in the White House was frequently beset by racial and ethnic tensions. In 2013, George Zimmerman’s (b. 1983) killing of 17-year-old unarmed African American student Trayvon Martin (1995-2012) sparked protests across the nation. The following year riots broke out in Ferguson, Missouri when police officers shot Michael Brown (1996-2014). The subsequent killing of Eric Garner (1971-2014) after being locked in a chokehold by a New York City police officer sparked additional protests and the rise of the Black Lives Matter movement. In May 2020, when Minneapolis Police Officer Derek Chauvin (b. 1976) killed George Floyd (1973-2020) by kneeling on his neck, Black Lives Matter protests broke out across the nation. Although civil rights leaders and movements have been extremely influential and important, the issues of poverty, oppression, inequality and racism continue.

GLOBAL INTEGRATIONS

The fall of the Soviet Union in 1991 created a power vacuum, raising profound questions about the future of Europe and the world in general. American officials envisioned a peaceful world united by free trade and democratic values in which the U.S. would play a leadership role. As early as 1948, the United States supported the creation of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT). The GATT encouraged countries to eliminate tariffs and standardize their trade relations to promote free trade across the world. In 1995, over a hundred nations contributed to the creation of a new institution, the World Trade Organization. As of 2000, only China, Cuba, Laos, North Korea and Vietnam clung to centrally planned economies.

The political and economic opening of Eastern European countries created tremendous risks and opportunities for the future. As early as 1951, France, Italy, West

Germany and the Benelux countries (Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg) joined the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) to coordinate the buying and selling of heavy industrial materials. Among its provisions, the ECSC charter called for the creation of a European Parliament. Consisting of members elected in each member state, the Parliament initially started as a think tank and consulting body, but over the years accumulated political power and began to function as a sovereign government.

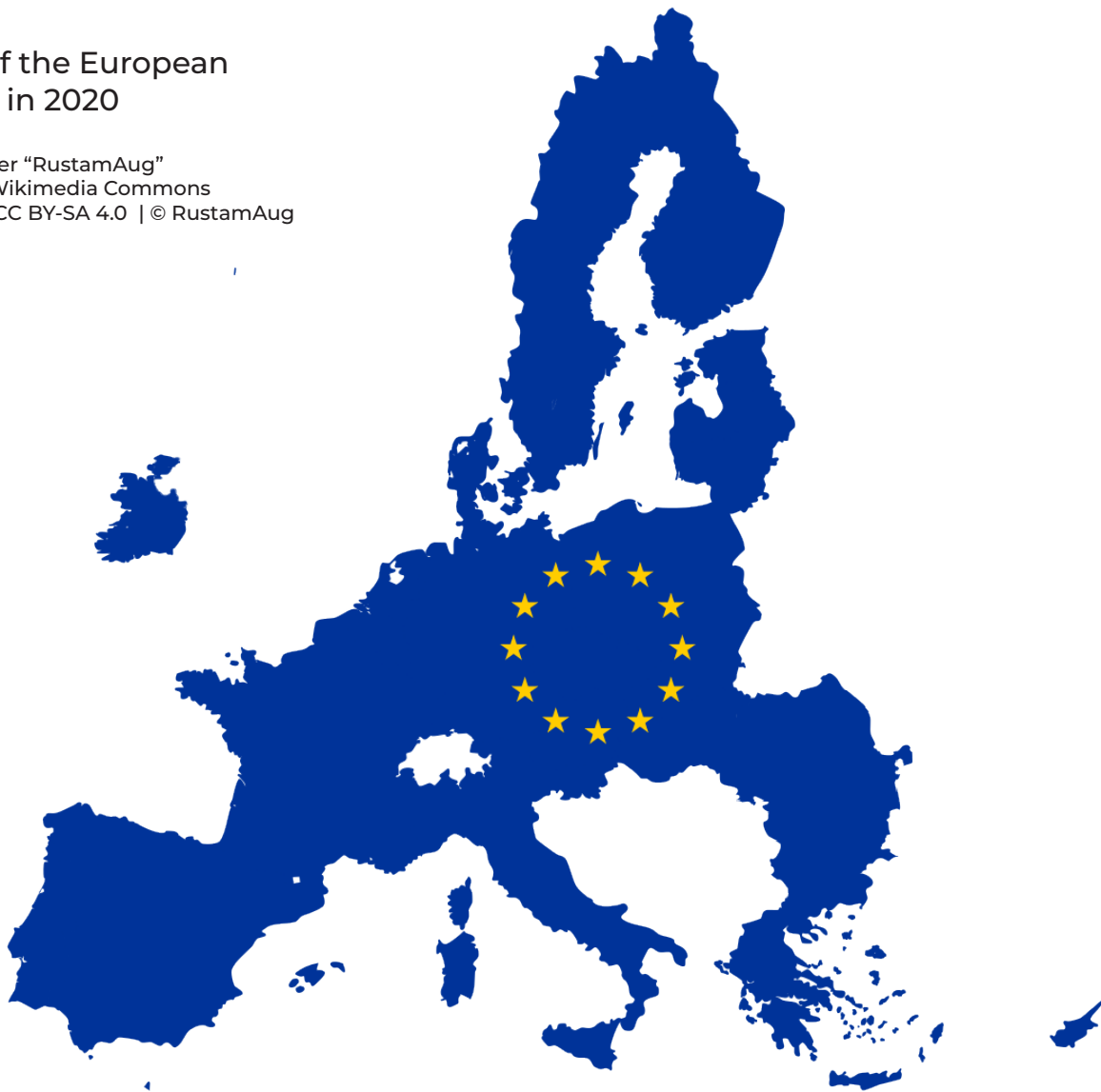
The ECSC proved so successful that just six years later the founding members signed the Treaty of Rome. The treaty established the European Economic Community (EEC or EC), an organization that struck down tariffs, synchronized commercial laws and promoted the free flow of people, ideas, food, fuel, products and money between member nations. The treaty also established the European Atomic Energy Community (EURATOM) that urged the peaceful development of nuclear energy. In 1986 the Benelux countries, Britain, Denmark, France, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Portugal and Spain signed the Single European Act (SEA), committing themselves to the creation of a common European economy by 1992. The SEA also granted more power to the European Parliament, allowing the EC to pass legislation based on majority rule rather than unanimous consent of member states.

On March 7, 1992, the leaders of 12 European nations - Belgium, Britain, Denmark, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Portugal and Spain - gathered in the Dutch town of Maastricht. They signed the Treaty of Maastricht that formalized the creation of the European Union as a common government that wielded a large degree of control over foreign policy and economics. The treaty also established the Euro as the official currency of the EU, set the powers for the European Parliament and Court of Justice, and established EU citizenship rights. Over the next 30 years, many Eastern European nations such as Poland, the Czech Republic, Slovakia, Romania, Bulgaria and the Baltic States would join the European Union. Great Britain withdrew from the EU in 2020 in a process popularly called “Brexit.”

As the USSR began to decline in the late 1980s, Mikhail Gorbachev began recalling Soviet troops from Eastern Europe, Afghanistan and Central Asia. Concerned about Russia’s still formidable armed

Flag of the European Union in 2020

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forces and weapons stockpiles, NATO began to expand eastward. Designed in 1949 as a defensive block to Soviet expansion, in 1998 the Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland all joined NATO. Six years later, Bulgaria, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia and the Balkan States joined the military alliance. Such actions brought about severe protests from Russian officials who argued that NATO was an obsolete relic of the Cold War and that such an expansion of Western military power served to destabilize the balance of power in Europe.

The end of the Cold War also brought about an increase in nuclear proliferation around the world. During the conflict, only the U.S., Soviet Union, Britain, China and France possessed nuclear weapons. All powers likewise signed the 1968 Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty. Under the terms of this treaty, nuclear powers would not share their technology or weapons with non-nuclear powers. However in the 1990s, India, Israel, North Korea, Pakistan and South Africa also developed nuclear arsenals.

The end of the Cold War left the United States not only the sole remaining political and military superpower, but the nation with the world's largest and most powerful economy. The rise of the internet greatly facilitated the trend toward globalism. Developed by the U.S. military in the 1980s as a way for military officials to remain in contact in the wake of a nuclear strike, the internet proved extremely popular when repurposed for civilian purposes, making communications, record keeping and information instantaneous and free.

Other countries were quick to join the drive toward globalization. By the turn of the 21st century India, Japan, Brazil and China emerged as powerful challengers to America's economic power. Beginning in 1978 with the normalization of diplomatic relations with the United States, the People's Republic of China began to private key sectors of the economy. As Chinese Premier Deng Xiaoping remarked about capitalism, "It doesn't matter whether it is a yellow cat or a black cat, as long

as it catches mice, it is a good cat.” Not even the bloody crackdown of protesters in Tiananmen Square could blunt China’s growing role in the world economy.

U.S. POWER POST-SOVIET UNION

By the end of the Cold War, the United States remained by far the most diplomatically, economically and militarily powerful country in the world. Many Americans contemplated a future global world order in which the nations of the world, having learned from the mistakes of fascism and communism, would embrace free trade, democracy and a new world order dominated by the United States. They also looked forward to a “peace dividend,” the reduction of U.S. military forces, decreasing in military spending, and reinvestment in the civilian economy.

However, the 1990s and early 21st century would prove to be some of the most difficult and conflict-ridden in American history. In August 1990, Iraqi leader Saddam Hussein (1937-2006) invaded the neighboring country of Kuwait, seizing its extensive oil fields. The United Nations condemned the invasion and authorized the use of force in ousting the Iraqis. U.S. President George H.W. Bush cobbled together a coalition of 34 nations, including several Arab states, and announced plans to liberate Kuwait. After several weeks of air strikes on Iraq, UN forces entered Kuwait on February 16, 1991. In less than four days, Iraqi forces had been pushed back across the border. Believing that Hussein would soon be overthrown by his people, the Bush administration and coalition forces opted not to invade Iraq itself.

As coalition forces fought to liberate Kuwait, the ethnic minorities of Yugoslavia began clamoring for independence. Created by the victorious Entente Powers at the end of World War I to maintain order in the region and prevent the outbreak of another world war, Yugoslav officials had constantly struggled to keep the peace between the nation’s rival ethnic factions. In 1991, Croatia, Slovenia, Slovakia and Bosnia all declared their independence and were quickly extended diplomatic recognition by the European Union. Serbian forces quickly surrounded the city of Vukovar. After a siege that lasted several months, Serbia gained control of the city. The following year Serbian forces laid siege to Sarajevo, the capital of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Over

three years, more than 10,000 soldiers and civilians were killed in what constituted the longest siege in modern military history. As the war progressed, both sides used increasingly brutal tactics. For instance, in 1995 Bosnian Serbs executed over 8,000 Bosnian Muslims in the town of Srebrenica.

When news of the Srebrenica Massacre broke out, public outcry around the world prompted NATO to intervene in the conflict. Declaring a No-Fly Zone over Bosnia and Herzegovina, NATO provided logistical support to Bosnian forces and bombed Serb military positions. While the fighting continued, American, Canadian, Serbian, Croatian and Bosnian representatives met in Dayton, Ohio under the leadership of U.S. Assistant Secretary of State Richard Holbrook. On November 21, 1995, they signed the Dayton Accords which ended the conflict. Three years later Albanian rebels launched a war of independence in the Serbian province of Kosovo. When Serbia began to put down the uprising by force, NATO launched another bombing campaign in March 1999. After 78 days of bombing, Serbia agreed to withdraw its forces from Kosovo. The United Nations established a protectorate over the province, which continues to this day.

Any hopes for a long-term peace following the end of the Persian Gulf and Bosnian Wars ended on September 11, 2001, when 19 members of the Islamic militant group Al-Qaeda, acting on the orders of Osama Bin Laden, hijacked four American airliners and crashed them into the World Trade Towers in New York City and the Pentagon in Washington DC. In response, U.S. President George W. Bush launched a “War on Terror.” Originally designed to root out and destroy Al-Qaeda cells, the conflict quickly expanded into two larger conflicts.

On October 7, 2001, the United States initiated Operation Enduring Freedom to topple the Taliban government of Afghanistan which had throughout the 1990s provided a haven for Al-Qaeda. Working with the Northern Alliance, a group of Afghani warlords, U.S. forces captured Mazar-i-Sharif on November 9, and Kabul four days later. In December, American and British troops scoured the Tora Bora mountains to capture Osama Bin Laden. Although the Al-Qaeda leader evaded capture, America and its allies solidified their control over Afghanistan. In December Hamid Karzai (b. 1957) created a new Afghani government



Plumes of smoke billow from the World Trade Center towers in Lower Manhattan, New York City, after a Boeing 767 hits each tower during the September 11 attacks.

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that worked closely with American forces in defeating Taliban forces in eastern Afghanistan. On May 1, 2003, President Bush announced the end of hostilities in Afghanistan and promised to help rebuild the country.

However, while Karzai's government could maintain control over large cities like Kabul, the Taliban continued to control large stretches of the countryside. Over the next 15 years, the United States would carry out military operations against Al-Queda and the Taliban throughout Afghanistan. Yet attempts to train Afghan soldiers provided mixed results. Bit by bit, the Taliban regained control of key provinces and cities. On April 21, 2021, newly inaugurated U.S. President Joe Biden (b. 1942) announced the withdrawal of all American forces from Afghanistan. From May to August Taliban forces retook most of Afghanistan including Kabul. On August 17, 2021, the Taliban declared the creation of a new government. Although victorious, Taliban officials

inherited a country suffering from sectarian violence, a devastated infrastructure and a chronic shortage of food, medicine and other crucial supplies.

Although victory in Afghanistan remained a key American priority, most of the nation's military resources went to overthrowing Saddam Hussein's regime in Iraq. Following the defeat of Iraq in the Persian Gulf War, many American policy experts predicted that the Iraqi people would topple Hussein. However, throughout the 1990s Saddam Hussein ruthlessly crushed all internal opposition and solidified his hold over Iraqi society. In 2002, the Bush administration accused Iraq of developing nuclear and chemical weapons of mass destruction and planning to use them against the United States and its allies. American officials attempted to secure a resolution from the United Nations to invade Iraq. When the UN refused to do so, President Bush announced he would lead a "coalition of the willing" to overthrow Hussein.

After building a coalition of over 40 countries, the Bush Administration launched an air and ground invasion of Iraq on March 20, 2003. With overwhelming military force, Allied troops captured Baghdad by April 9. President Bush appointed diplomat Paul Bremer (b. 1941) as head of an interim government. Although U.S. forces captured Saddam Hussein in December, American officials and troops could do little to quell the outbreak of violence between Iraqi Sunni and Shia Muslims. Such infighting led to a massive humanitarian and refugee crisis. In 2007 the Bush administration

committed an additional 20,000 American troops to stabilize the situation in Iraq.

The chronic instability of the Iraqi government and mounting U.S. casualties due to ambushes and suicide bombings caused many Americans to turn against the war effort. In 2008, Barack Obama had articulated his desire to end the war. By 2011, all remaining American troops were evacuated, leaving Iraq an intact but still deeply divided country.

SUMMARY

The 30 years since the end of the Cold War brought about unprecedented change throughout the world. The fall of the Soviet Union ushered in the political and economic unification of Europe and the expansion of NATO. As the last remaining superpower, the United States enjoyed a preeminent position of power and influence in world affairs. However, trends toward globalism and a “new world order” soon ran into trouble. The Persian Gulf War, Balkan conflict, 9-11 attacks, Afghanistan War, and Iraq War proved that the post-Cold War world was anything but a peaceful place. Although the United States and Western Europe remained key players in world affairs, they faced new challenges in an increasingly powerful China, a resurgent Russia, and the outbreak of conflict in places such as Georgia and Ukraine.

A satellite view of Earth from space, showing the Western Hemisphere. The Americas are visible on the left, with North America at the top and South America below it. The surrounding oceans are a deep blue, and the landmasses are green with some brownish areas indicating arid regions. The image is taken from a high angle, showing the curvature of the planet.

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