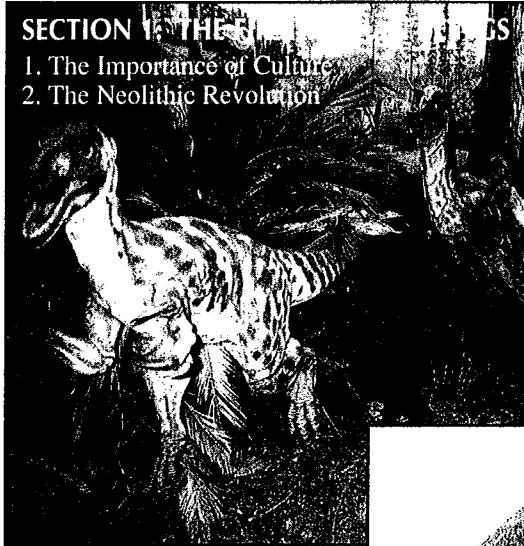


CHAPTER 4

THE DAWN OF CIVILIZATION 3500 B.C. – 500 B.C.

SECTION 1: THE PREHISTORIC WORLD

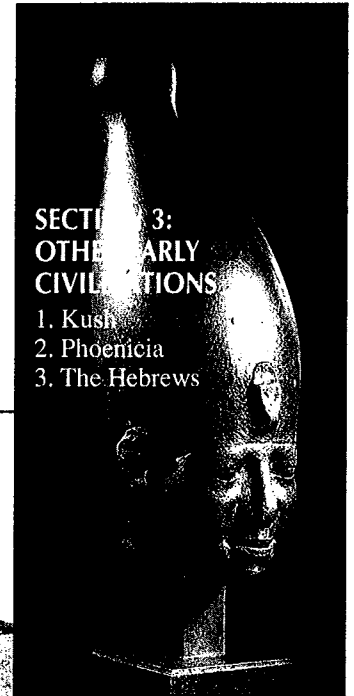
1. The Importance of Culture
2. The Neolithic Revolution



About 100 million years ago, dinosaurs stalked the earth.

SECTION 3: OTHER EARLY CIVILIZATIONS

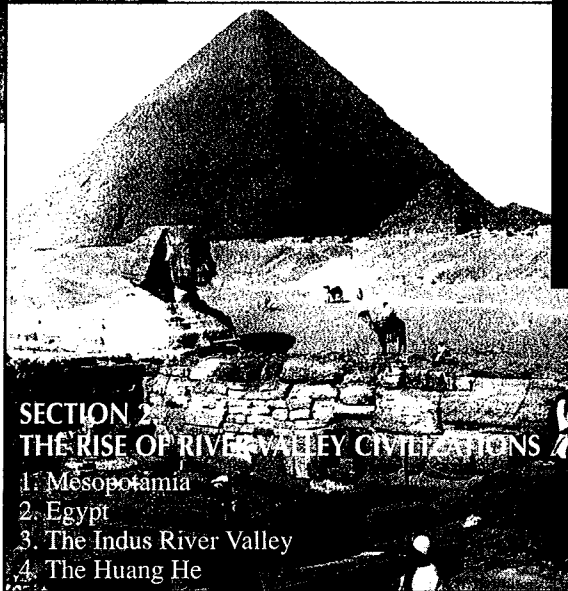
1. Kush
2. Phoenicia
3. The Hebrews



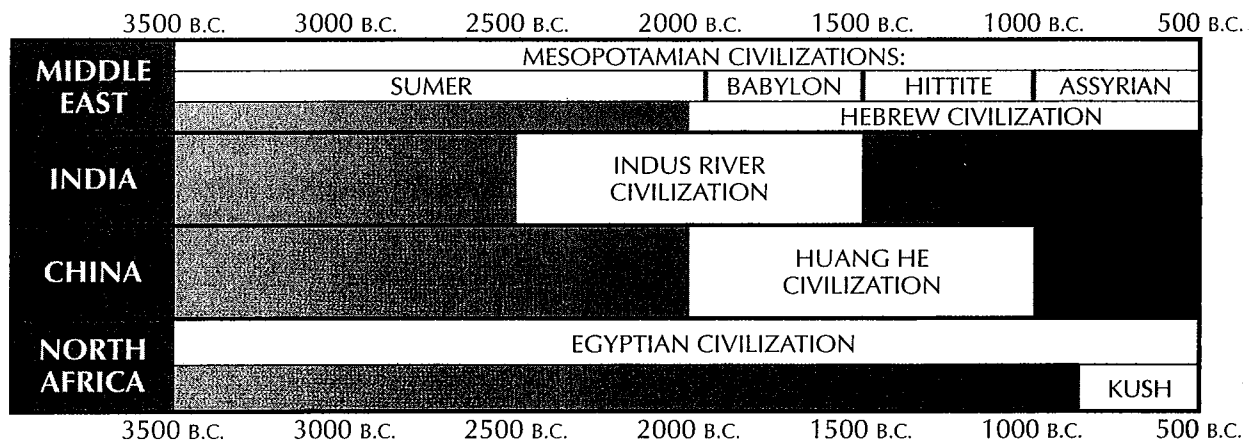
Head of a Kushite king, c. 690 B.C.

SECTION 2: THE RISE OF RIVER VALLEY CIVILIZATIONS

1. Mesopotamia
2. Egypt
3. The Indus River Valley
4. The Huang He



The Sphinx and Great Pyramid at Giza, Egypt



WHAT YOU SHOULD FOCUS ON

In this chapter, you will learn how human beings first emerged many thousands of years ago. Gradually, the first humans spread around the world. Some groups developed farming and built permanent settlements. Eventually, settlements in the river valleys of Africa and Asia developed the world's first civilizations.

Studying this era enables you to appreciate the common past we all share. The study of human origins and ancient civilizations helps us to understand the basic problems that all societies face — how to organize to meet human needs.

By studying the civilizations of the past, we also develop a greater awareness of the tremendous debt we owe to those who came before us. You may even be surprised by how much of modern society is patterned after what was introduced in ancient times.



Iron tools have been in use in Africa since ancient times.

Writing. The ancient invention of writing allowed vast amounts of human knowledge to be recorded and passed down from one generation to the next.

Food and Clothing. Even today, many of our foods and clothing styles are affected by the legacy of ancient cultures.

OUR DEBT TO THE FIRST CIVILIZATIONS

Forms of Expression. Much of modern language, literature, and art closely follows what was done in ancient times.

Math and Science. Our knowledge of science and mathematics is built upon the foundations laid by ancient discoveries and inventions.

Knowing more about ancient civilizations can help us to uncover the factors that promote prosperity, stability, and innovation in our own day much as they did in the past. In studying this era, you should focus on the following questions:

- What were the consequences of the Neolithic Revolution?
- What factors led to the rise of the first civilizations?
- What were the most important contributions of early civilizations?

LOOKING AT GEOGRAPHY



In this chapter, you will learn how human beings first developed agriculture and how the first great civilizations arose. Geographical factors played a central role in these events. This introductory section takes a special look at the subject of geography so that you will better understand the connection between the geographic features of a place and its historical development.

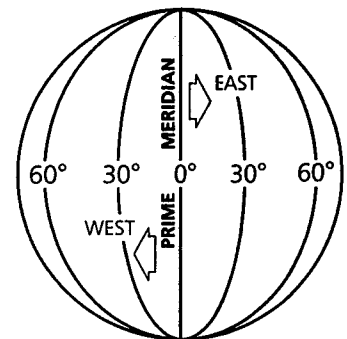
THE FIVE THEMES OF GEOGRAPHY

Modern geographers have identified five major themes in the study of geography.

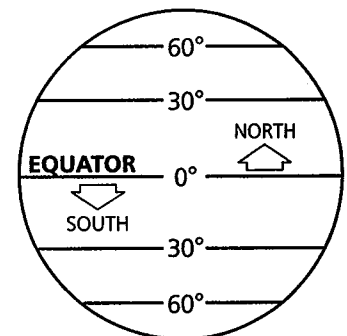
LOCATION

Location deals with where something is located in relation to other things. For example, where was Mesopotamia in relation to Egypt? To allow us to find the absolute location of any fixed point on the Earth's surface, geographers use the concepts of longitude and latitude.

- ◆ **Longitudes** are imaginary lines running up and down the Earth from the North to the South Pole. The middle longitude line is at zero degrees (0°) and is called the **Prime Meridian**. This line divides the world into the Western and Eastern Hemispheres. Every other longitude line is assigned a number in degrees to measure its distance east or west of the Prime Meridian.
- ◆ **Latitudes** are imaginary lines running horizontally across the Earth. The middle latitude line, known as the **equator**, is at zero degrees (0°). This line divides the world into the Northern and Southern Hemispheres. Every other latitude line is assigned a number in degrees to measure its distance north or south of the equator.



LONGITUDE



LATITUDE

PLACE

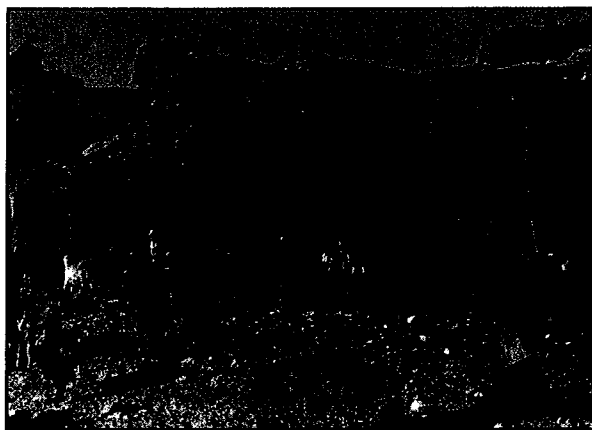
"Place" refers to the special features of a location, distinguishing it from other locations. For example, what was Egypt like in ancient times? Was it hot or cool? Mountainous or flat? Geographers use special terms to describe the physical characteristics of a place. They look at its **topography** (*land surface features*) and **climate** (*weather conditions over a long period*). They also examine its **natural resources** (*such as minerals, fertile soil, or fresh water*).

REGIONS

A region is an area that shares common features and whose people have more contacts with others within the area than outside it. The concept of region in geography, like that of a time period in history, is flexible. Different regions, like that of ancient Egypt, may expand and contract over time. In studying any new region in global history, ask yourself: What makes this area a region? What are its common features?

HUMAN-ENVIRONMENT INTERACTIONS

This theme describes the ways in which the physical setting of a place interacts with the people who live there. Since ancient times, people have affected their environment in many ways: planting fields, irrigating the land, and building cities. You should also think how the environment helps shape what people do. How is the kind of society that develops in a desert different from a culture that emerges in a tropical rain forest?



Bedouin women herd goats in Jordan. The environment often influences how people live.

MOVEMENT

Throughout history, some areas have had surpluses of certain goods, while other areas have experienced shortages of the same goods. These differences have stimulated trade and other contacts among peoples. Understanding the movement of goods, services, ideas, and peoples from one place to another is a final important theme of geography.

ANSWERING TEST QUESTIONS ON GEOGRAPHY

Test questions on geography often focus on how the physical setting of an area affects the development of its people. To help answer these types of questions, keep in mind that location is often crucial in determining interactions with peoples of other areas. The kind of place an area is — its topography, climate, and resources — is usually crucial to the number of people who live in the area, where they live, and how they make their livelihoods. Population density is usually greatest along coasts, in river valleys, and on fertile plains. A culture is often shaped by the resources available to its people and how they make their living. Culture, in turn, affects the development of technologies that allow people to alter their environment.

MAJOR HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENTS

SECTION 1: THE FIRST HUMAN BEINGS

In this section you will read about the earliest human societies and how some humans began to change from hunter-gatherers to farmers who could grow their own food.



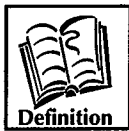
THINK ABOUT IT

The dictionary defines a *revolution* as a rapid change. What was the radical change that occurred during the “Neolithic Revolution”?

Most social scientists believe that human beings first appeared in East Africa sometime between 200,000 and 400,000 years ago.

THE IMPORTANCE OF CULTURE

Early human beings had several important advantages over other animals: superior intellect, the use of hands to make tools, and the ability to communicate through speech. As a result, human beings were able to pass on their way of doing things to others. In this way, the first human cultures developed.



Culture refers to a people’s way of a life. It includes such things as their language, clothes, shelter, family organization, system of government, and methods of obtaining food.

The primary activity of early humans was food gathering. They relied on hunting, fishing, and gathering wild plants for food. The search for food led the first humans to migrate from Africa to other parts of the world — Asia, Europe, the Americas, and Australia.

NEOLITHIC REVOLUTION

Wherever people went, they showed great ingenuity in adapting to local conditions. About 10,000 years ago, people in some areas first began to change from hunters and gatherers to producers of



Herds of mammoths were an important source of food for early human hunters.

food. Most social scientists believe this change first occurred in the Middle East, where wild wheat and barley were plentiful. People noticed they could spread the seeds of these grains to grow crops. They also learned how to herd farm animals such as goats, sheep, and cattle. These advances are now referred to as the **Neolithic Revolution**.

With the introduction of agriculture, people no longer had to wander in search of food. They could now build permanent homes and villages and establish a fixed way of life. Populations grew. The Neolithic Revolution allowed people to grow more food than they had been able to gather or hunt; however, they were also more vulnerable to attack by other groups because they were settled in one location. The introduction of agriculture and villages led to the emergence of two new social classes: warriors and priests. Warriors defended the village, while priests conducted religious rituals to protect the village from danger.



ANSWERING THE FOCUS QUESTION

The main change that occurred during the “Neolithic Revolution” was



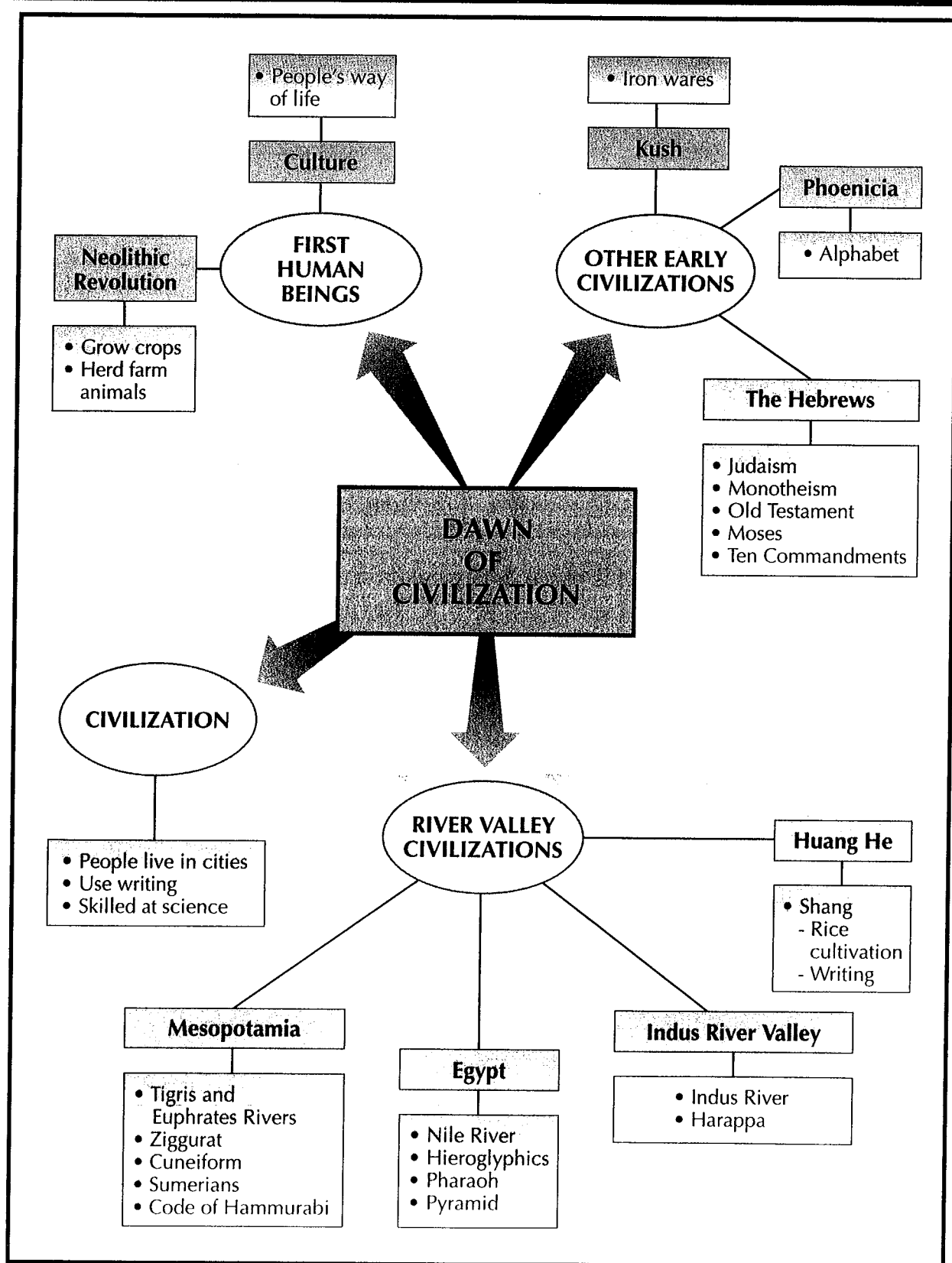
Directions: Complete each of the following vocabulary cards. Then answer the multiple-choice questions that follow.

CULTURE
<i>What is culture?</i>
<i>Provide an example:</i>

NEOLITHIC REVOLUTION
<i>Define Neolithic Revolution:</i>
<i>What changes occurred because of the Neolithic Revolution?</i>

- 1 In its broadest sense, the term “culture” refers to
 - 1 art museums and symphony orchestras
 - 2 the complex languages found in developing societies
 - 3 a centralized form of government
 - 4 the way of living of the members of a society
- 2 Most social scientists believe that
 - 1 the earliest humans first evolved in East Africa
 - 2 farming societies developed before hunting and gathering societies
 - 3 all the continents were settled at the same time
 - 4 the wheel was used by all ancient societies
- 3 The Neolithic Revolution marked a radical change because humans
 - 1 started to inhabit the continents of Europe and Asia
 - 3 developed the ability to speak
 - 2 learned to herd animals and grow crops
 - 4 formed large economic associations

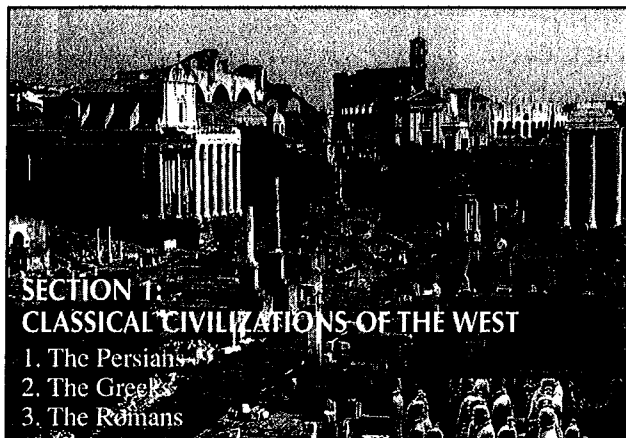
KEY TERMS, CONCEPTS, AND PEOPLE



CHAPTER 5

THE CLASSICAL CIVILIZATIONS

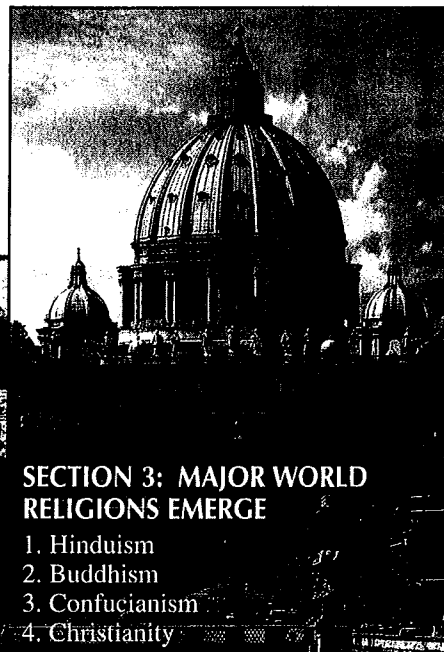
500 B.C. – 500 A.D.



SECTION 1: CLASSICAL CIVILIZATIONS OF THE WEST

1. The Persians
2. The Greeks
3. The Romans

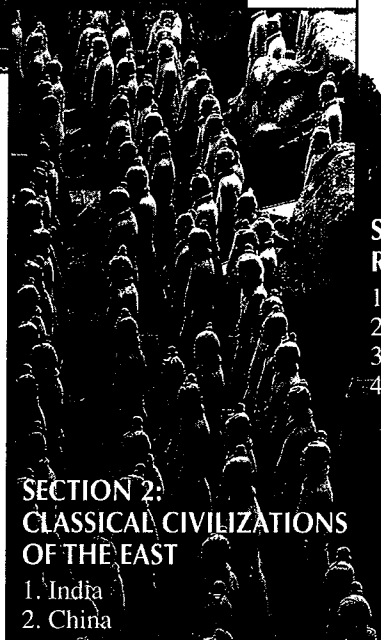
Roman Forum — the center of political and commercial life in ancient Rome.



SECTION 3: MAJOR WORLD RELIGIONS EMERGE

1. Hinduism
2. Buddhism
3. Confucianism
4. Christianity

St. Peter's Basilica in the Vatican — the very heart of the Catholic religion today.



SECTION 2: CLASSICAL CIVILIZATIONS OF THE EAST

1. India
2. China

Some of the 7,000 life-sized clay soldiers found in Shih Huang-ti's tomb.

	500 B.C.	300 B.C.	100 B.C.	100 A.D.	300 A.D.	500 A.D.
GREECE	CITY-STATES	HELLENISTIC PERIOD				
ROME		ROMAN REPUBLIC		ROMAN EMPIRE		
ASIA		PERSIAN EMPIRE				
		ZHOU DYNASTY	QIN	HAN DYNASTY		
		ARYAN KINGDOMS	MAURYAN EMPIRE		GUPTA EMPIRE	
RELIGIONS AND BELIEF SYSTEMS				CHRISTIANITY		
				CONFUCIANISM		
				HINDUISM		
				BUDDHISM		

WHAT YOU SHOULD FOCUS ON

In this chapter, you will learn about the world's classical civilizations. During this era, civilizations spread beyond river valleys. Some societies achieved the military power needed to conquer their neighbors and create giant empires. As civilizations matured, their members began to reflect more on morality and the purpose of life. As a result, some of the world's major religions emerged in this era.

These same civilizations developed new institutions, systems of thought, and cultural styles that still influence us today. Their arts and literature set the standards against which later works have often been judged. For these reasons, we refer to these societies as *classical civilizations*, meaning of the highest class or rank.



A bronze statue from China shows the influence of the Buddhist religion on China.

The **Persian** empire was the first to unite many civilizations, establishing a pattern for future empires.

The **Greeks** used human reason to inquire about nature and the human condition, laying the foundation for much of Western culture.

OVERVIEW OF CLASSICAL CIVILIZATIONS

The **Romans** spread Greek culture throughout Western Europe and left a legacy of language, laws, engineering, and Christianity.

India witnessed a flowering of Hindu and Buddhist culture, which spread throughout much of South and Southeast Asia.

China saw the emergence of great philosophers, who set the tone for much of East Asian thought and tradition.

In studying this era, focus on the following questions:

- What was the importance of military power, technology, law, and transportation in the development of large empires like Persia, China and Rome?
- What were the major cultural accomplishments of these civilizations?
- How were classical civilizations affected by their religions and belief systems?

LOOKING AT THE WORLD'S RELIGIONS



In this chapter, you will learn about the development of some of the world's major religions. Your focus should be on the way each religion relates to its society.

WHAT IS RELIGION?

All societies have some forms of religious belief. Because these beliefs touch on what people think about life itself, religion has had a great impact on the way people behave. Religion has been one of the most powerful influences on human history.

You may be surprised to learn that there is no precise definition of "religion." Nonetheless, most definitions of religion list three common elements:

CHARACTERISTICS OF A RELIGION

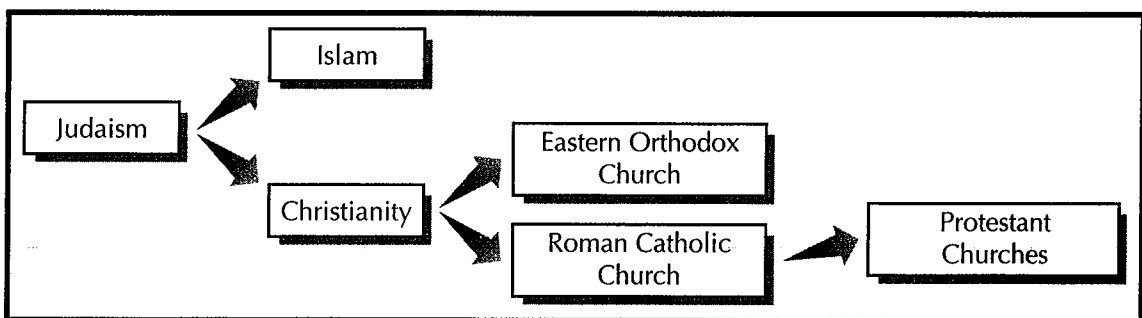
A set of **beliefs** about the nature of the universe, the existence of one God or several gods, the meaning of life, and what happens after death.

A set of **customs and practices** that relate to the worship of one God or several gods, and a set of rules for proper conduct.

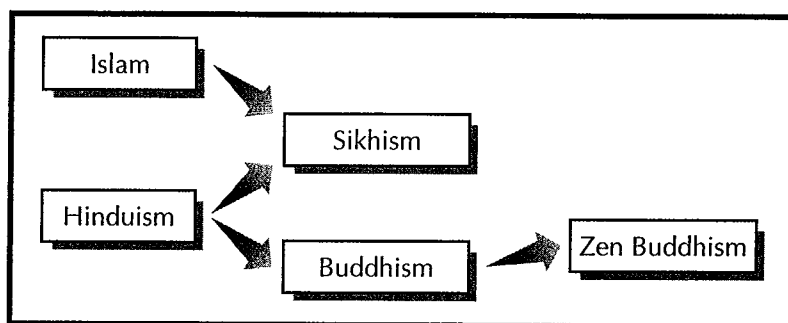
An **organization**, such as a church or synagogue, that oversees the conduct of religious practices.

CLASSIFYING THE WORLD'S MAJOR RELIGIONS

One way to look at the world's major religions is to organize them according to their historical development. For example, Christianity and Islam both developed out of Judaism. Christianity later divided into Eastern Orthodox Christianity and Roman Catholicism. Finally, during the Protestant Reformation of the 16th century, Western Europe divided into Roman Catholicism and Protestantism. If we were to chart these relationships, they would appear as:



Another family of religions developed in India. Buddhism grew out of Hinduism. Sikhism brought together the beliefs of Hindus and Muslims. Zen Buddhism is a form of Buddhism that developed in Japan:



This way of grouping religions is useful because new religions often borrow ideas and practices from the religions they grow out of.

RELIGION AND THE ARTS

A knowledge of religion is necessary to understand many of the world's greatest cultural achievements. Because religion is tied to people's deepest feelings, much of the world's art, music, and literature has been religious in nature. Early cave paintings were related to a belief in spirits. The masks and dance rituals of traditional tribal groups in Africa, the Pacific islands, and the Americas were attempts to appease the spirits. The temples of ancient Greece and Rome were built to honor their gods. Medieval cathedrals were meant to represent God's kingdom on Earth. Much of the art of the Renaissance was inspired by religion.



Dance and masks are used by this African tribe in conjunction with a young man's initiation rites.

ANSWERING QUESTIONS ABOUT RELIGION

Many test questions on global history examinations will focus on religious concerns. Usually such questions will focus on two aspects about religion:

- ◆ major beliefs of a religion and how they influenced history or culture; and
- ◆ the social conflicts that often arise out of religious differences. These social conflicts will be explored in later chapters of this book.

HINDUISM

Hinduism is largely based on the beliefs of the **Aryans**, invaders who came to the Indus River Valley from the Caucasus region. Like many religions, Hinduism serves as a guide, explaining everything a person should do from birth to death. Hinduism has no single holy book, but Hindu writings like the **Upanishads** and the **Bhagavad-Gita** provide guidance and inspiration. Hinduism remains the most popular religion of modern India. There are more than 700 million Hindus in the world today.

Gods. Hindus believe that there are many gods and goddesses. Each of these gods, however, is a manifestation (*form*) of one Supreme Being.

Reincarnation. Hindus believe that at death, a person's soul is reborn as another living thing. This creates an endless cycle of rebirth for each soul.

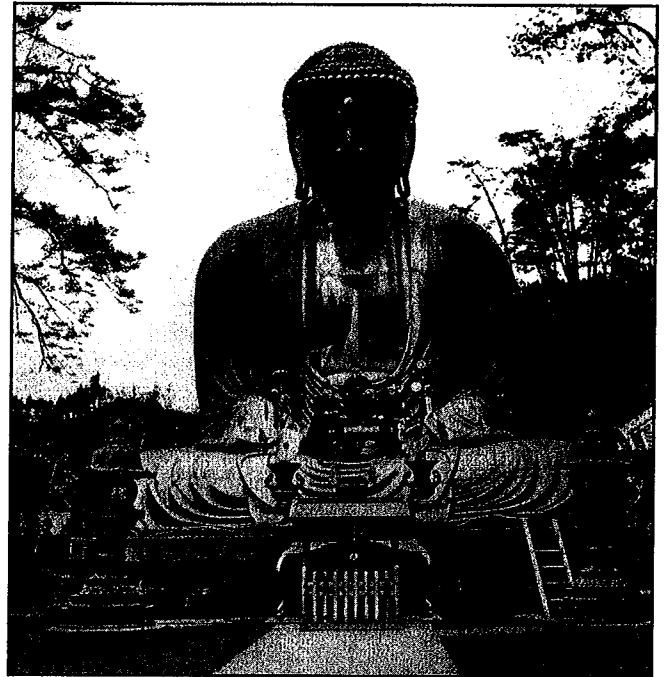
MAJOR BELIEFS OF HINDUISM

Karma. Karma refers to a person's behavior in life which Hindus believe determines that person's form in the next life. People who live a good life will be reborn in a higher caste. Those who do not are reborn in a lower caste.

Sacred Objects. Hindus believe the Ganges River is sacred and has the power to wash away sin and evil. The cow is also considered sacred, and religious Hindus do not eat beef.

BUDDHISM

The Buddhist religion began in India around 500 B.C. Prince **Siddhartha Gautama** (563–487 B.C.) lived a life of comfort and luxury. One day, he looked beyond the palace walls and was shocked by all the human suffering he saw. This prompted him to leave his wealth and family behind and to set out in search of truth. After six years, he concluded that all human suffering was caused by excessive desire. To end suffering, a person must come to accept the world as it is and block out selfish desires. Gautama became known as the **Buddha** or "Enlightened One." Missionaries carried his ideas throughout India and then on to China, Korea, and Japan.



A bronze statue of Buddha in Japan

Basic Philosophy. Buddhism is based on a philosophy of self-denial and meditation. Buddhists also believe in reincarnation.

Gods and Holy Books. Buddhists do not believe in a single Supreme Being (*God*). They also do not have a primary holy book. Their basic beliefs are found in books called **Sutras**.

MAJOR BELIEFS OF BUDDHISM

Four Noble Truths. These truths explain life's meaning. They explain that pain and suffering is caused by human desires such as for material wealth or selfish pleasures. Only by giving up these desires can a person find peace and harmony.

Eightfold Path. To give up human desires, Buddhists believe one should follow this path: give up wealth, act in a worthy manner, speak truthfully, live righteously, respect all living things, and meditate.

Nirvana. By following the Eightfold Path, an individual can escape the soul's endless reincarnations and achieve **nirvana** — a state of eternal bliss.

CONFUCIANISM

You have already learned that Confucianism is named after its founder, **Confucius** (551 – 479 B.C.). Confucius established a philosophy based on what he saw as the basic order of the universe. He urged people to follow traditional ways, which had worked well in the past. He believed these traditions could help maintain social peace and harmony. He further believed that the ruler must set an example for his subjects. Although Confucius did not write any books, his followers collected his sayings and later published them in the **Analects**.

Natural Order. There is a natural order to the universe and to human relationships. Each person has a role in society, which reflects his or her position in the universe.

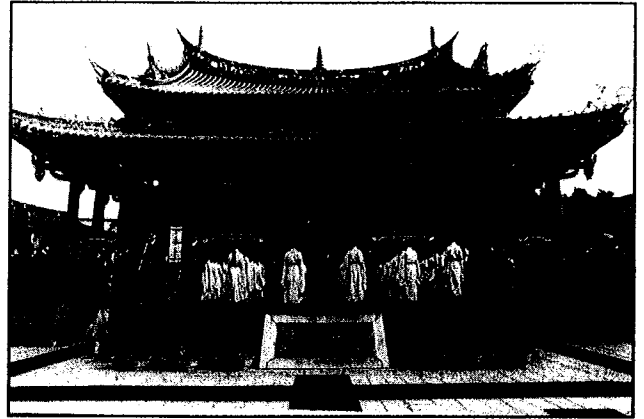
Role of Each Person. Each person's social role brings a number of obligations. If everyone fulfills these roles by meeting their obligations, people and society will be in harmony.

MAJOR BELIEFS OF CONFUCIANISM

Relationships. In each relationship, there is a superior and an inferior. The superior must show love and responsibility, while the inferior must show loyalty and obedience.

Mandate of Heaven. If the ruler benefits his people and provides them with food and protection, then the people will obey their ruler, who will continue to hold the Mandate of Heaven (*the right to rule*).

For thousands of years, Confucianism was the official philosophy of the Chinese empire. Its emphasis on traditional values helped preserve Chinese civilization. Hopeful government candidates had to pass a demanding test based on the ideas of Confucius in order to be appointed to the emperor's service. Confucian ideals thus united all government officials and the Chinese upper classes as a whole. Confucianism also increased the importance of the family in Chinese life. The family served as a model for society, emphasizing performance of one's duties and good deeds.



One of many ceremonies held in China each year on September 28th in honor of Confucius.

CHRISTIANITY

Christianity began about 2,000 years ago in the Middle East. It is based on the beliefs and life of **Jesus Christ**. Jesus was born in Bethlehem, near Jerusalem. He preached forgiveness, mercy, and sympathy for the poor and helpless. However, the Romans regarded him as a troublemaker. Jesus was crucified by the Romans for claiming he was the Messiah or savior. After the death of Jesus, a band of his followers, known as the **Apostles**, helped to spread the new Christian religion. Many were attracted to the belief in an afterlife in which the poor and humble would be rewarded. Eventually, Christianity became the dominant religion of the Roman Empire. Today, it is the religion with the most followers in Europe, North America and Latin America.



The crucifixion of Jesus

MAJOR BELIEFS OF CHRISTIANITY

Role of Jesus. Christians believe Jesus was the son of God, and sacrificed himself to save humankind from punishment for their sins. Christians also believe that after his death, Jesus was resurrected and rose to Heaven.

Christian Conduct. Christians believe they will be saved and will go to Heaven after death if they have faith in Christ as their savior and treat others with love and respect.

The Christian Bible. The sacred book of Christianity consists of the **Old Testament** (the Jewish Bible), and the **New Testament**, which describes the life of Christ and the works of the Apostles.

THE RISE OF ISLAM

Warfare between the Byzantine and Persian empires interrupted overland trade routes from East Asia. Trade in spices, Chinese silks, and Indian cottons shifted to sea routes connecting India with Arabia and the Red Sea. Overland caravans carried goods up the western coast of the Arabian peninsula. Towns developed at oases along these caravan routes. **Mecca** emerged as one of the most important of these towns. In the 600s, a new religion — Islam — made its appearance on the Arabian Peninsula.

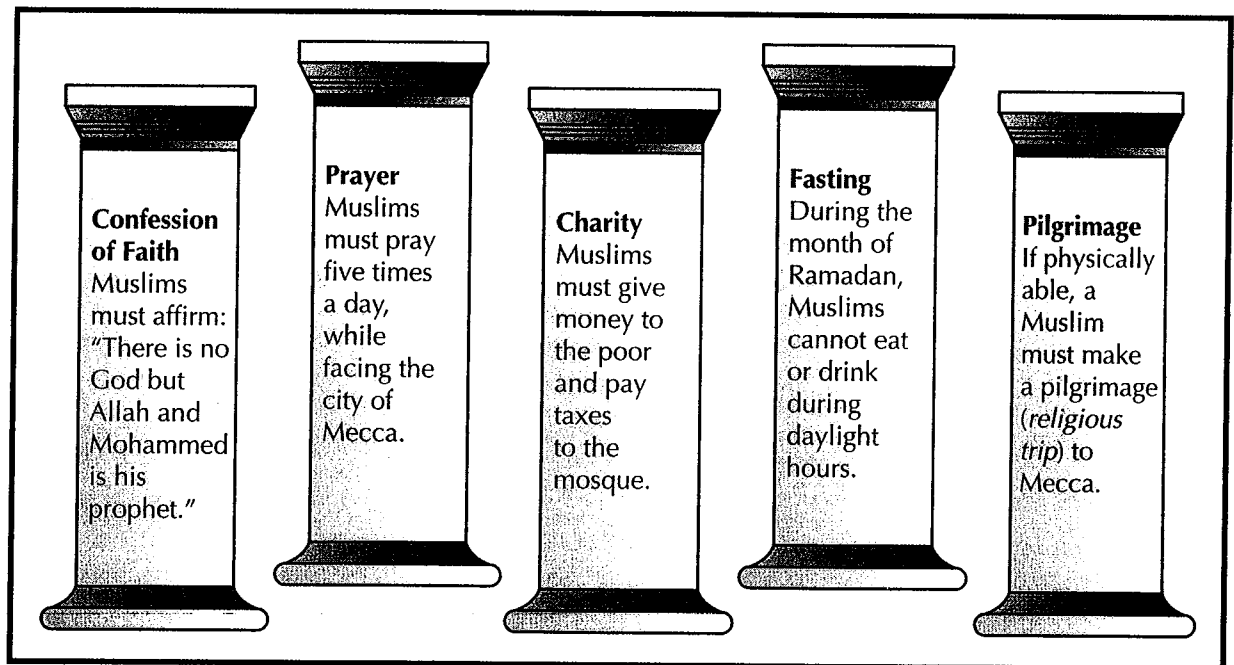
MOHAMMED: THE PROPHET OF ISLAM

The Islamic religion was founded by an Arab merchant named **Mohammed**. He had a vision that commanded him to convert the Arab tribes to believe in a single God, known in Arabic as "**Allah**." This was the same God worshiped by Jews and Christians. Mohammed started to preach his beliefs, and soon developed a large following.

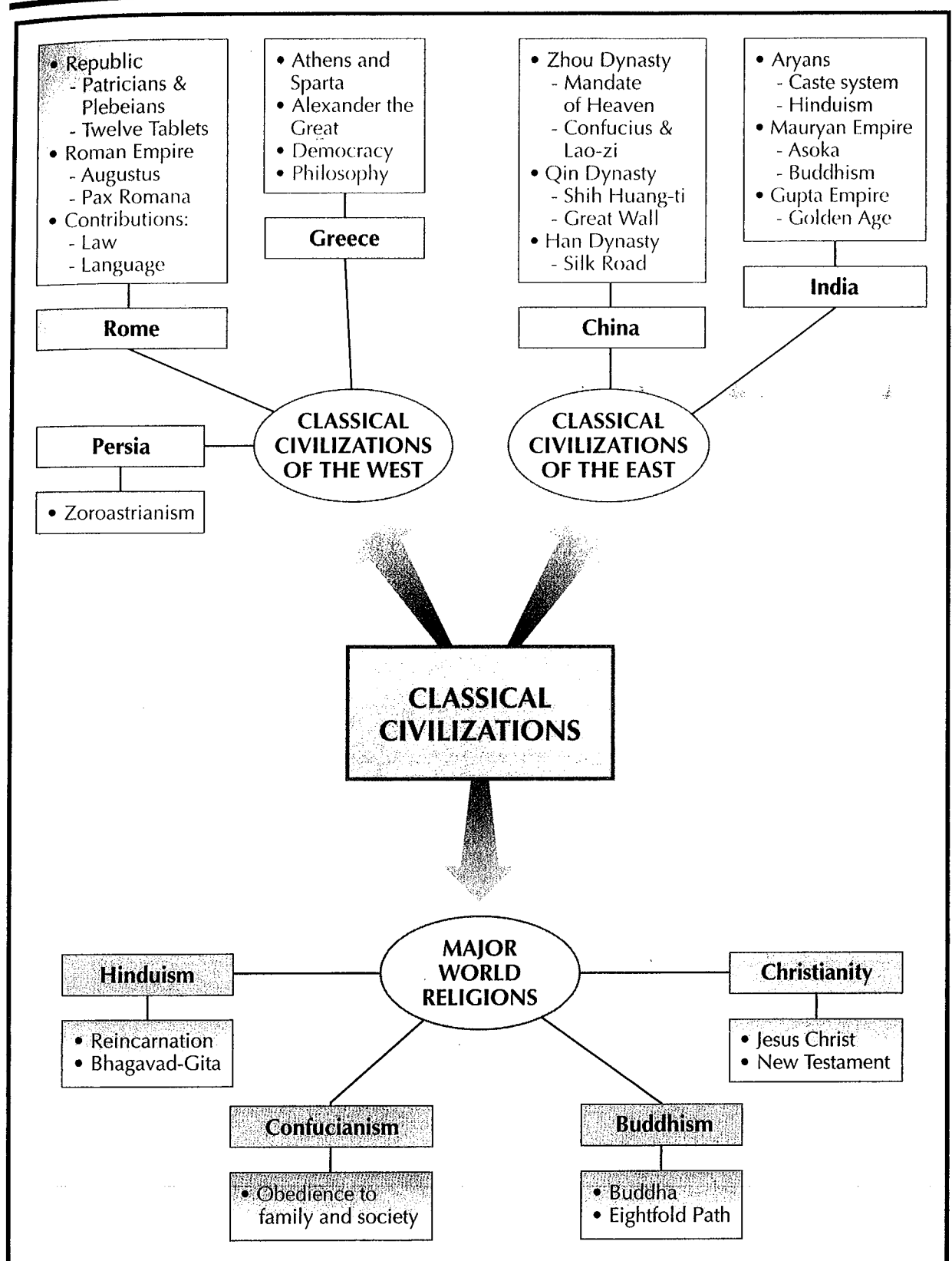
Merchants in Mecca were jealous of Mohammed's growing influence. Fearing for his life, Mohammed fled from Mecca to the city of Medina in 622. This event, known as the **Hegira**, is the starting point of the Muslim calendar. In Medina, Mohammed became a popular religious leader. He gathered an army to retake Mecca in a **jihad** or "holy war." In 632, two years after recapturing Mecca, Mohammed died. His teachings were recorded by his followers in the **Qu'ran** (*Koran*), Islam's holiest book.

THE FIVE PILLARS OF FAITH

The Five Pillars of Faith are the basic religious duties that all followers of Islam, (*called Muslims*), must fulfill:



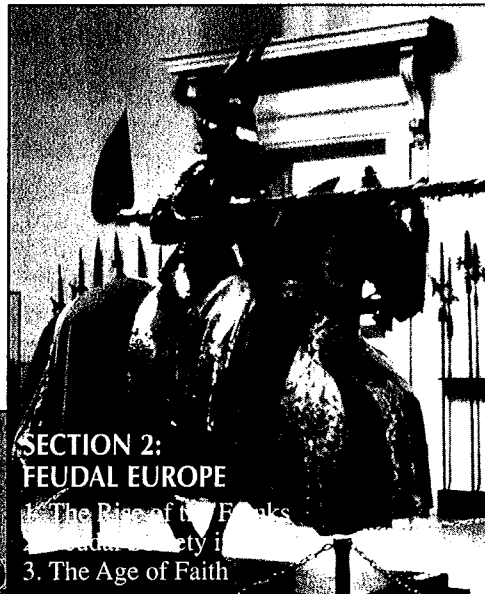
KEY TERMS, CONCEPTS, AND PEOPLE



CHAPTER 6

NEW CENTERS OF CULTURE IN AN AGE OF TURMOIL, 500 TO 1200 A.D.

*A feudal knight in full armor
— mounted on a horse.*



*Dome of the Rock in Jerusalem
— one of Islam's holiest sites.*



SECTION 2: FEUDAL EUROPE

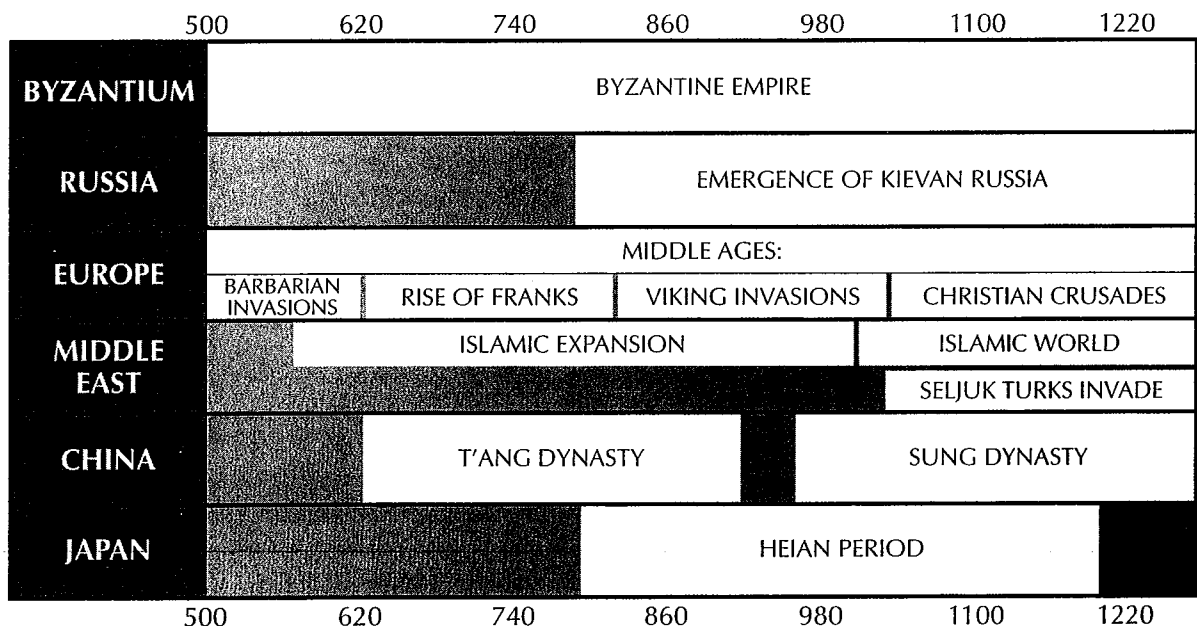
1. The Rise of the Franks
2. The Age of Faith
3. The Age of Faith

SECTION 1: NEW CULTURES EMERGE

1. The Byzantine Empire, 330-1453
2. The Rise of Islam, 600-1500

*A silk scroll from the
Sung Dynasty's
Golden Age*

1. China
2. Japan



WHAT YOU SHOULD FOCUS ON

In the late 400s, much of the world entered a period of great turmoil. In the West, the Roman empire collapsed. In the East, civil war followed the fall of the Han Dynasty in China. The following centuries were spent re-establishing law and order and preserving the cultural heritage of the ancient world in the face of constant warfare and invasion. The following four regions of the world experienced great changes:

Byzantium. The eastern part of the Roman empire continued for another 1,000 years under the name of the Byzantine empire. It preserved much of Roman and Greek culture, while it developed its own form of Christianity.

Middle East. A new religion, Islam, appeared in the 7th century. Arab nomads swept across Southwest Asia and North Africa, establishing a new Islamic empire.

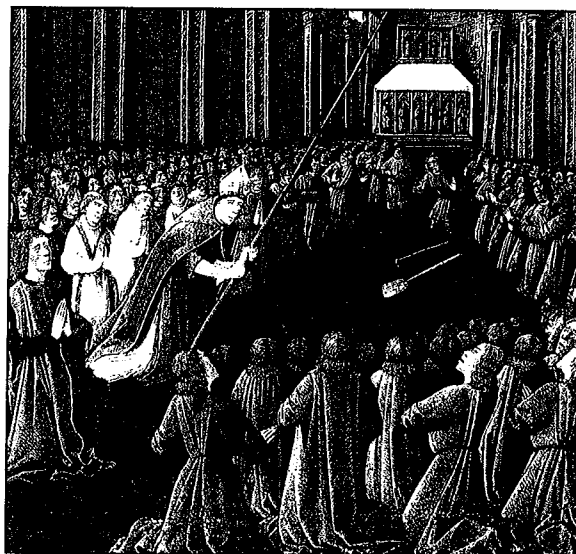
CHANGES AFTER THE FALL OF ROME AND THE COLLAPSE OF THE HAN DYNASTY

Western Europe. Much of the Greek and Roman heritage was lost. Christianity became the main binding force. A new method of social and political organization emerged, known as feudalism.

China. Basic patterns of Chinese culture re-emerged after a period of civil war. China was also affected by the introduction of Buddhism from India. Meanwhile, Chinese culture spread to Japan.

In contrast to Western Europe, the civilizations of Byzantium, the Islamic world, and China each experienced a “Golden Age” in which arts and technology flourished. By the end of this era, the Crusades brought Europeans into greater contact with these other cultures. In studying this era, focus on the following questions:

- What were the main cultural achievements of this era?
- What role did the major religions — Christianity, Islam, Confucianism and Buddhism — play in the events of this period?
- What was feudalism, and how did it operate?



Crusaders pray in a cathedral before leaving to battle Muslims in the Holy land.

LOOKING AT GOVERNMENT



he Greek philosopher Aristotle once wrote that people are social beings who cannot live in isolation. People depend on one another and must live in groups or communities to survive, resulting in the need for government.

WHAT IS GOVERNMENT?

Our need to be with others has important consequences. All communities need to make rules to decide disputes among members and to protect themselves from others who may be hostile. The body given the authority to carry out these functions is known as the **government**. The word “govern” comes from the ancient Greek word for steering a ship. Just as a pilot guides a ship, a government guides the conduct and behavior of the members of a community in their dealings with themselves and outsiders.

WHAT FORMS DOES GOVERNMENT TAKE?

Throughout global history, governments have taken many forms. The following presents a chronological survey of some of the more important ones.

TRIBAL GOVERNMENTS

In primitive societies, people were often governed by a chief or tribal elders. Most often the chief or tribal elders were respected members of the tribe who had skills in warfare or were considered to have great wisdom. Because there were no written laws, people relied on oral traditions, customs, and the decisions of their leaders.

ANCIENT MONARCHIES

In the ancient civilizations of Mesopotamia, Egypt, India, China, and the Americas, one leader eventually emerged as an all-powerful king. Usually, the king claimed to act as a god, combining political and religious powers. The king extended his power over others when his armies conquered neighboring states.

DEMOCRACY

The ancient Athenians were the first to develop **democracy** — rule by the people. Citizens elected their leaders and made decisions directly by voting in a large assembly. For a democracy to work, citizens must have basic rights such as freedom of speech, freedom from unjustified imprisonment, and the right to a fair trial.



Egyptian Pharaoh and his queen (2520 B.C.)

FEUDALISM

Feudalism was a social and political system that often emerged in areas where central government was weak, such as in medieval Europe. The king relied on the services of his nobles, who were given nearly absolute power over their own local areas.

DIVINE RIGHT MONARCHY OR ABSOLUTISM

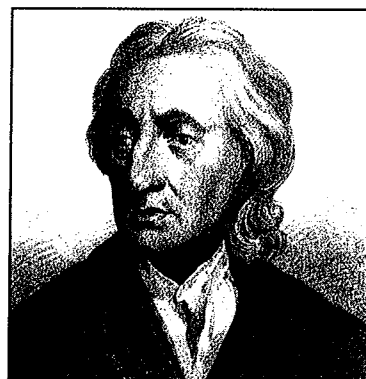


Louis XIV, absolute ruler of France, once remarked, "I am the state."

Under divine right monarchy, also known as **absolutism**, European rulers controlled their subjects by claiming to derive their authority from God. Writers like **Niccolo Machiavelli** and **Thomas Hobbes** believed human nature was essentially bad. A strong ruler was therefore needed to maintain order in society. In East Asia, similar traditions developed. Chinese emperors claimed to rule with the Mandate of Heaven. Emperor Shih-Huang-ti argued that because people were naturally bad, they needed a strong, absolute ruler to control them.

THE SOCIAL CONTRACT AND CONSTITUTIONAL MONARCHY

In the late 17th Century, **John Locke** proposed the **social contract** theory of government. According to Locke, a king ruled with the consent of his subjects. The subjects entered into a contract with the king, promising to obey him as long as he protected their rights. This system, in which the king governs according to a constitution, is known as a **constitutional monarchy**. If the king violated his subjects' rights, Locke argued, the people had a right to overthrow him.

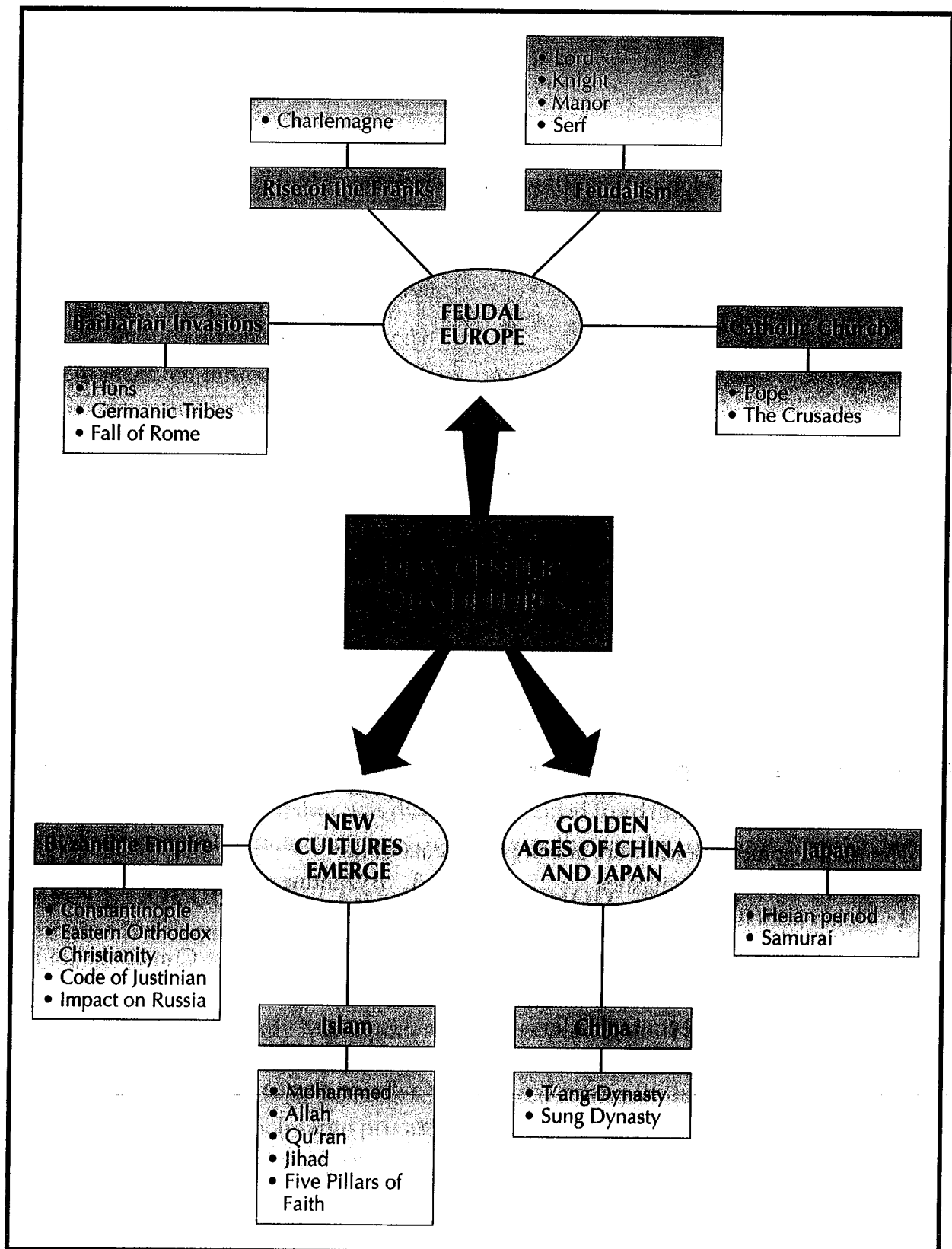


John Locke's ideas greatly influenced America's ideas on government.

TOTALITARIANISM

Totalitarianism is a 20th century system similar in some ways to earlier absolutism. A single dictator claims to rule in the name of the people. Individual citizens have no real rights. The government controls all aspects of public and private life. Modern technology has made totalitarianism far more ruthless than royal absolutism ever was. Hitler's Germany, Stalin's Soviet Union, and Mao's China were examples of totalitarian states.

KEY TERMS, CONCEPTS, AND PEOPLE

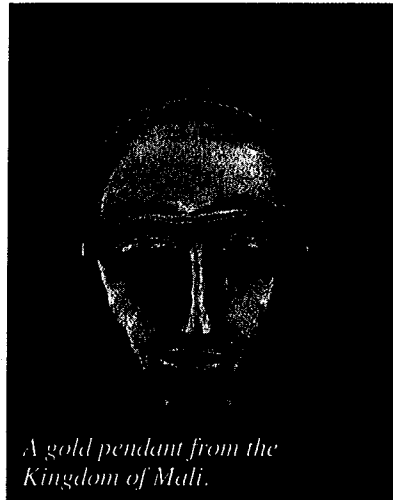




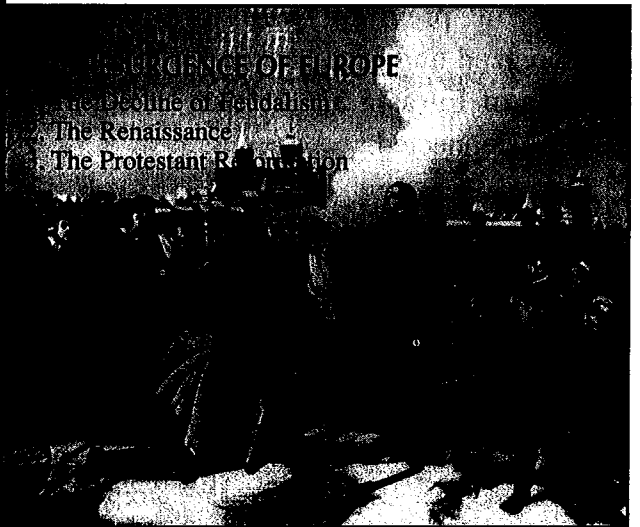
WARRIORS ON HORSEBACK AND THE REVIVAL OF EUROPE, 1200 TO 1500

SECTION 1: THE KINGDOMS OF AFRICA

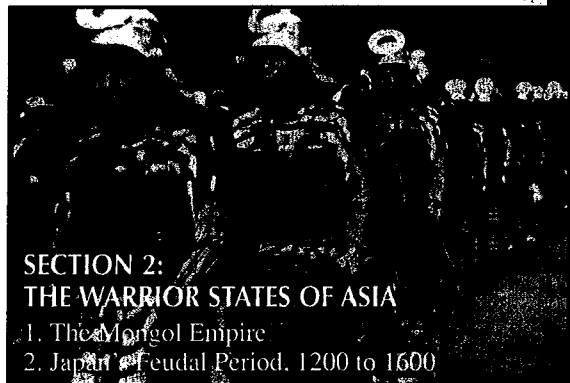
1. Geographical Setting
2. The West African Kingdoms
3. Other African States



A gold pendant from the Kingdom of Mali.



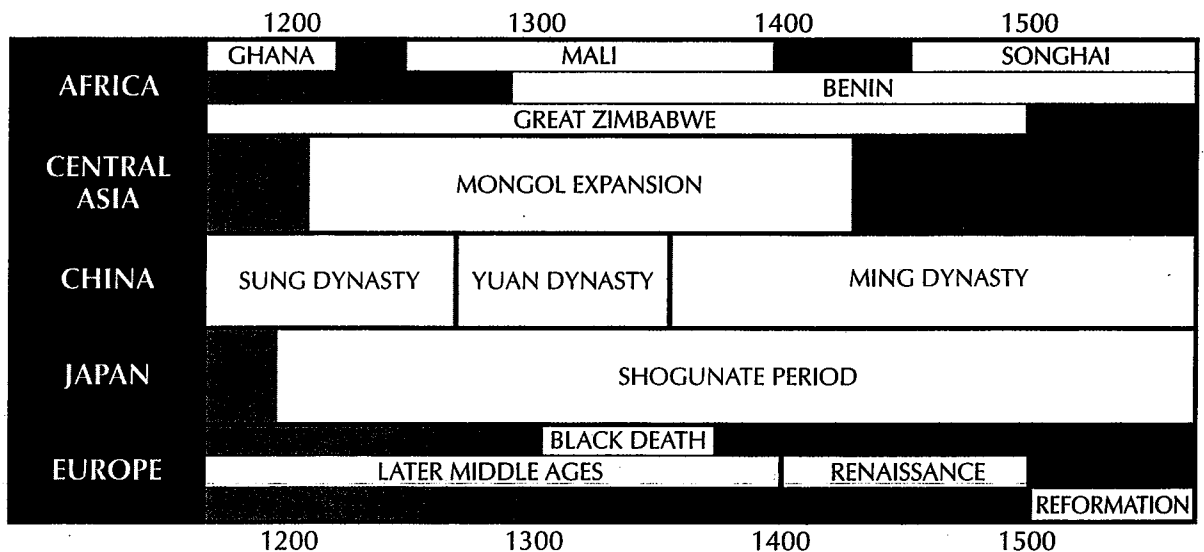
Martin Luther burns a decree of the Pope.



SECTION 2: THE WARRIOR STATES OF ASIA

1. The Mongol Empire
2. Japan's Feudal Period, 1200 to 1600

Modern-day warriors dressed as samurai.



WHAT YOU SHOULD FOCUS ON

This chapter explores the period from 1200 to 1500. During this era, different civilizations continued to follow separate paths of development but began to influence each other more than in previous eras. As trade increased and ideas spread, the cultures of Eurasia and Africa became more connected.

These were times of great stress. Nomadic invaders from Central Asia were greatly feared by neighboring civilizations. The Bubonic Plague, a deadly disease from Central Asia, brought equal devastation in the 1300s.



Nomads from Central Asia were feared warriors.

West Africa. Important empires prospered on the basis of the gold and salt trades.

Asia. Mongol warriors swept across the Asian mainland, uniting much of Asia under their rule.

OVERVIEW OF THE PERIOD, 1200 TO 1500

Japan. Japan developed a political and social system similar to the system of feudalism in Europe.

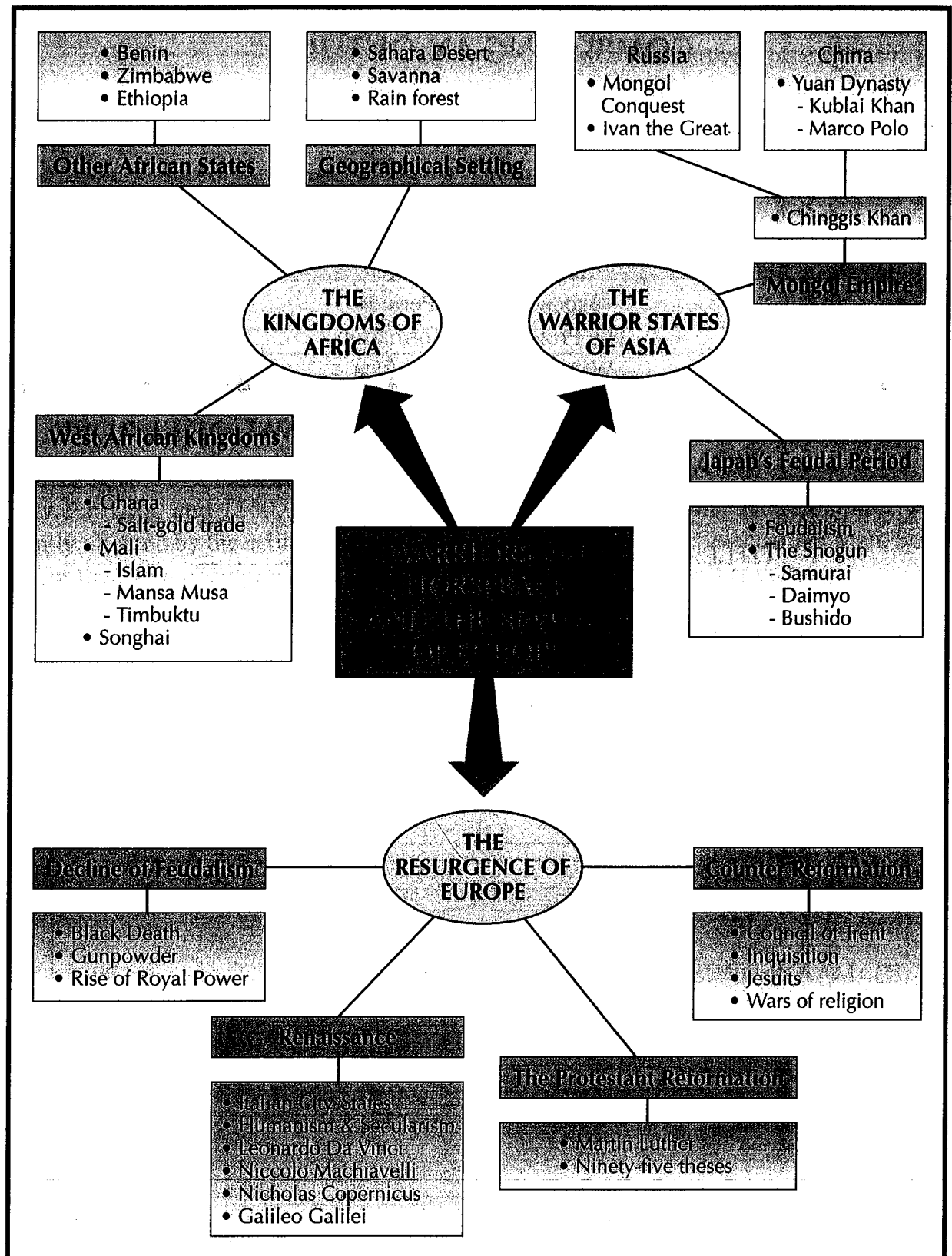
Europe. Western Europe experienced a rebirth of trade and learning, contributing to the decline of feudalism and the achievements of the Renaissance.

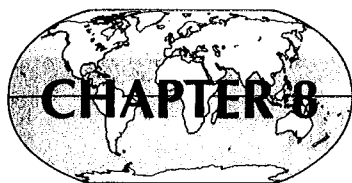
During these same centuries, Islamic civilization continued to grow and began to penetrate India. The remaining territories of the Byzantine empire fell to Turkish invaders. New civilizations arose in Southeast Asia. Important empires flourished in the Western Hemisphere, which are discussed in the next chapter.

In learning about this era, you should focus on the following:

- What led to the rise of the West African kingdoms?
- What were the effects of the Mongol conquests?
- What factors contributed to the decline of feudalism in Western Europe?
- What were the achievements of the European Renaissance?

KEY TERMS, CONCEPTS, AND PEOPLE





THE BIRTH OF THE MODERN WORLD, 1500 TO 1770



Columbus plants the flag of Spain in the New World

SECTION 1: THE ENCOUNTER BETWEEN EUROPE AND THE AMERICAS

1. The First Americans
2. The European Age of Discovery
3. European Conquest of the Americas
4. Effects of the Encounter



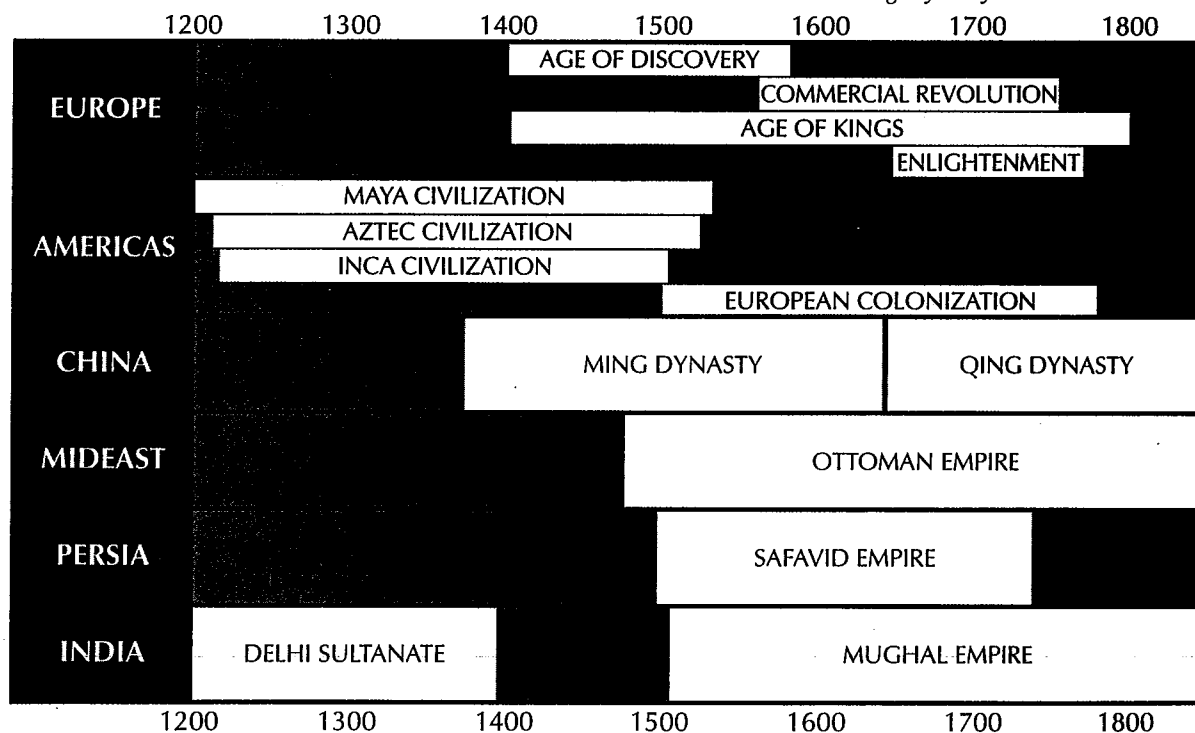
Francis I of France — one of Europe's absolute monarchs



A fine porcelain figure from the Ming Dynasty

SECTION 2: EUROPE IN THE AGE OF KINGS, 1600–1770

1. Commercial Revolution
2. Rise of Royal Power
3. Scientific Revolution
4. Enlightenment

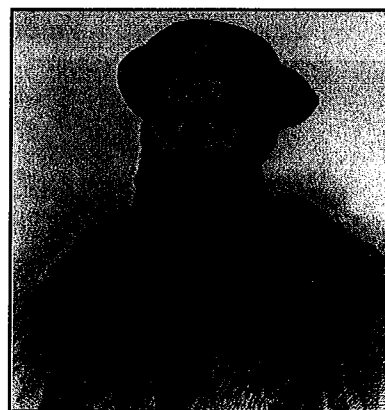


WHAT YOU SHOULD FOCUS ON

The centuries from 1500 to 1770 witnessed the birth of the “modern world,” with the following important developments:

- a greater awareness of other cultures
- creation of a global economy
- the rise of powerful nation-states
- major technological advances
- a deepening reliance on science

In this chapter, you will read about the impact of these developments on three major areas of the world:



Europe in the 1500s was on the brink of the modern era, as explorers like Magellan linked Europe with the rest of the world.

The Encounter Between Europe and the Americas. This encounter brought together the major centers of civilization and created a truly global economy. By creating colonial empires in the Americas and transporting slaves from Africa, Europeans exerted a greater influence on the world than ever before.

Europe in the Age of Kings. European kings formed large armies and created absolute monarchies by taxing new wealth. New challenges to traditional thinking emerged with the Scientific Revolution and the Enlightenment.

The Territorial Empires of Asia. Great territorial empires flourished in the Middle East, Persia, India, and China. Nevertheless, the pace of technological change in this part of the world fell behind that of Europe.

In studying this era, you should focus on the following questions:

- What were the principal achievements of the pre-Columbian civilizations?
- What were the main causes and effects of the European encounter with the Native Americans?
- How did the Scientific Revolution and the Enlightenment affect European society and thought?
- What were the basic characteristics of the great territorial empires that dominated Asia from the 16th to the 18th centuries?

THE START OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

The Industrial Revolution began in Great Britain in the 1750s. It quickly spread to other parts of Europe, the United States, and later to the rest of the world. Several factors help explain why the Industrial Revolution first began in Great Britain:

Geographical Advantages. Great Britain had many harbors and rivers, and plentiful coal. As an island, it was well protected from invasion. It was close to European markets and well-located for trade with other parts of the world.

Transportation and Communications. Great Britain had a well-developed coastal trade, canals, port towns, an excellent postal service, daily newspapers, and the most powerful navy in the world.

PRE-CONDITIONS FOR INDUSTRIALIZATION

Large Colonial Empire. Britain's far-flung colonial empire brought valuable raw materials to her ports. The experience of running a colonial empire contributed to the development of sophisticated financial and commercial skills.

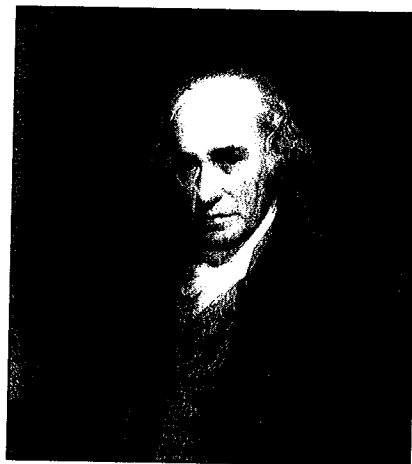
Powerful Middle Class. A large and powerful middle class participated in government and promoted free enterprise and economic improvement. They were able to bring together capital, labor, and new industrial inventions.

Agricultural Improvements. British farmers introduced scientific methods to agriculture to boost productivity, such as rotating crops and careful animal breeding. Fewer people were needed to work on farms and more were available to work in industry.

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION BRINGS CHANGE

Before the Industrial Revolution, weavers and craftsmen worked at home, spinning cotton and linen by hand into finished cloth. This was known as the **domestic system**.

Two important British inventions helped trigger the Industrial Revolution. The **spinning jenny** (1764) allowed one person to spin six or seven threads at once. Later, refinements in the spinning jenny increased this number to over eighty. This permitted weavers to make fabric quickly and inexpensively. As the factory system spread, a need arose for more power than horses or water could provide. **James Watt's** improved **steam engine** (1769) made steam power available for mechanical purposes. Steam power could be used to drive many machines at once. The steam engine led in turn to the construction of large factories, the invention of the steamboat, and the development of railroad trains.



James Watt

CHARACTERISTICS OF 19TH-CENTURY CAPITALISM

Role of the Entrepreneur

The means of production (factories) were owned by people known as entrepreneurs. Entrepreneurs organize, manage and assume responsibility for a business in hopes of making a profit.

Role of the Worker

Former farm workers left their homes in the countryside for jobs in more populated and industrialized areas. These workers provided their labor, for which they received wages.

Role of the Government

Nineteenth-century governments followed a policy of *laissez-faire*. This meant that the government did not interfere in relations between workers and business owners.

REFORM MOVEMENT

The problems created by the Industrial Revolution led to a call for social and political reform. By the late 19th century, the misery of the working classes and the injustices of capitalism disturbed the consciences of many of the new middle class. There was also a fear of working-class violence. Workers organized into **unions** and threatened to strike if they did not obtain better conditions. Eventually, laws limiting child and female labor, shorter working hours, and safer working conditions were introduced in Britain and other European countries.

MARX AND COMMUNISM

Two leading critics of the capitalist system were **Karl Marx** (1818–1883) and **Friedrich Engels**. Their ideas were published in *The Communist Manifesto* (1848). Marx later wrote *Das Kapital* (1867). Marx's ideas became the basis of **Communism** (also known as *Marxism*):

Class Struggle. Every society is divided into conflicting social classes. Modern industrial society is divided into two such classes: the **bourgeoisie** (*who own the means of production like factories*) and the **proletariat** (*workers*).

Exploitation of the Workers. The wealthy bourgeoisie live off the labor of their workers. Owners cheat their workers by taking most of the wealth they produce, leaving them with only the bare minimum needed for survival.

THE MAIN IDEAS OF COMMUNISM

Communist Revolution. Communists believed the bourgeoisie would never give up their wealth and power peacefully. As capitalists pushed their workers to produce even more, the plight of workers would become so desperate that they would unite in a violent revolution.

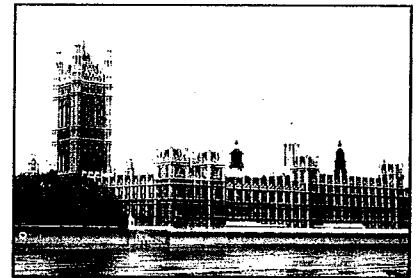
Dictatorship of the Proletariat. After overthrowing the bourgeoisie, workers would establish a society in which they jointly owned the means of production. All citizens would be equal, sharing the fruits of their labor. Class struggles would end. Government would become unnecessary and "wither away."

STEPS IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF CONSTITUTIONAL MONARCHY

Magna Carta. In 1215, English nobles forced King John to sign the Magna Carta. This guaranteed that Englishmen could not be fined or imprisoned except according to the laws of the land.

Rise of Parliament. Parliament was established as a legislative body made up of nobles in the House of Lords and elected representatives in the House of Commons. Parliament claimed the right to approve taxes.

The Puritan Revolution (1642–1660) and the Glorious Revolution (1688). During these two revolutions, Parliament established its supremacy over the king. The **Bill of Rights of 1689** confirmed that English monarchs could not collect new taxes or raise an army without Parliament's consent.



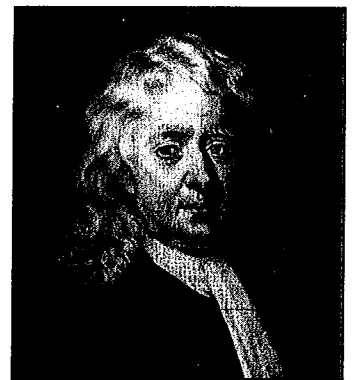
Parliament building

One of the most influential writers to emerge during this period was **John Locke**. Locke believed that governments obtain their power from the people they govern, not from God as divine right theory supposed. According to Locke, the main purpose of government was to protect a people's rights to life, liberty, and property. Locke defended people's right to rebel when the government abused its power. His ideas were influential beyond the times in which he wrote. A century later, Locke's writings greatly influenced the leaders of the American and French Revolutions.

NEW WAYS OF LOOKING AT THE WORLD

THE SCIENTIFIC REVOLUTION

The Scientific Revolution began during the Renaissance and continued through the 17th and 18th centuries. It rejected traditional authority and church teachings in favor of a new **scientific method**, in which scientists observed nature, made **hypotheses** (*educated guesses*) about relationships, and tested their hypotheses through experiments. Galileo, for example, tested the movements of falling objects. However, the most influential thinker of the Scientific Revolution was **Sir Isaac Newton**.



Sir Isaac Newton

In his book, *Principia Mathematica*, Newton developed a theory to explain both the movements of planets and how objects fall on earth. Newton reduced all these patterns to a single formula: the law of gravity. Newton's discovery raised hopes that all of the universe acted according to certain fixed and fundamental laws. It seemed that all scientists had to do was to apply observation, experimentation, and mathematics to understand and predict the natural world.

THE INFLUENCE OF THE ENLIGHTENMENT

The **Enlightenment** refers to an important movement in Europe during the 18th century. Leading Enlightenment thinkers believed that by applying reason and scientific laws, people could better understand both nature and society. They also hoped to apply these principles to improve society. Enlightenment thinkers questioned the divine right of kings and the power of the Catholic Church.



Adam Smith, one of the key thinkers of the Enlightenment

Voltaire (1694–1778) poked fun at traditional authority in society, government, and the church. His views on religious toleration and intellectual freedom influenced the leaders of the American and French Revolutions.

Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1712–1778) believed a government should express the “general will” of the people. His book, *The Social Contract*, helped to inspire the democratic ideals of the French Revolution.

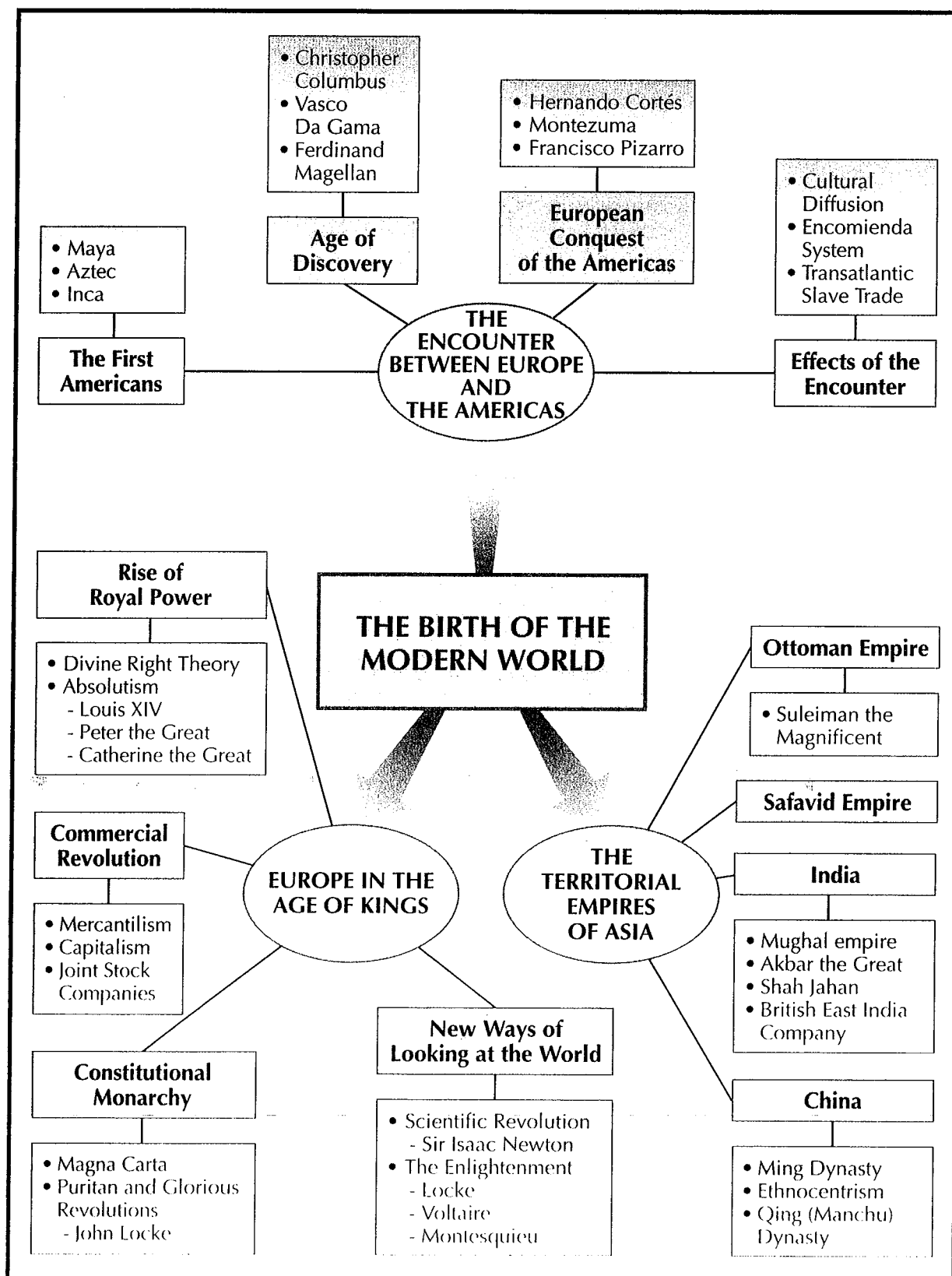
KEY THINKERS OF THE ENLIGHTENMENT

Montesquieu (1689–1755) argued for separation of powers in government as a check against tyranny. His book, *The Spirit of Laws*, encouraged the development of a system of checks and balances later in the U.S. Constitution.

Adam Smith (1723–1790) described capitalism in his book, *The Wealth of Nations*. Smith explained how competition and the division of labor help to guide a free-market economic system based on self-interest.

Enlightenment ideas were adopted by American colonists in 1776 in their Declaration of Independence from England. The Declaration recognized the existence of “natural rights” such as the right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. The Declaration further stated, like Locke, that the purpose of government was to protect these rights. Enlightenment ideas also influenced absolute rulers such as Catherine the Great, who attempted to reform their societies from above. They attempted to use some of the ideas of the Enlightenment, such as encouraging education and trade, while at the same time maintaining their traditional royal powers. Such rulers were called **Enlightened Despots**.

KEY TERMS, CONCEPTS, AND PEOPLE

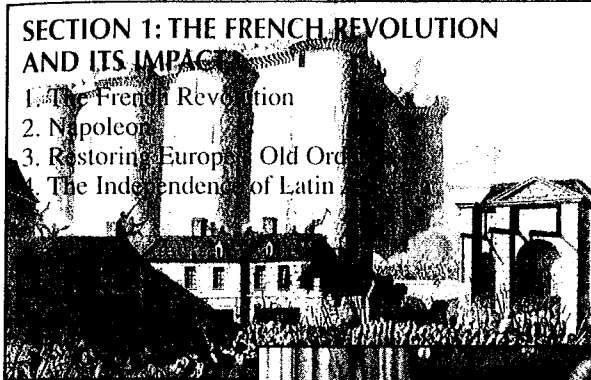


CHAPTER 9

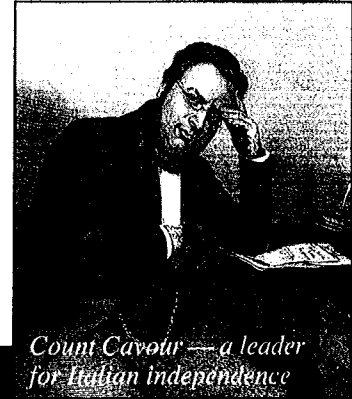
REVOLUTION, INDUSTRY, AND NATIONALISM 1770 TO 1900

SECTION 1: THE FRENCH REVOLUTION AND ITS IMPACT

1. The French Revolution
2. Napoleon
3. Restoring Europe's Old Order
4. The Independence of Latin America



*Storming of the
Bastille — July
14, 1789*



*Count Cavour — a leader
for Italian independence*

SECTION 2: THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION


1. Start of the Industrial Revolution
2. Industrial Revolution Brings Change
3. Marx and Communism



*During the Industrial
Revolution, many
children worked in
factories.*

SECTION 3: NATIONALISM AND IMPERIALISM

1. Unification of Italy and Germany
2. Nationalism in Russia and Turkey
3. Imperialism in India and Africa
4. Opening of China and Japan

	1750	1770	1790	1810	1830	1850	1880	1910
JAPAN	TOKUGAWA SHOGUNATE						JAPAN OPENED TO TRADE	MEIJI RESTORATION
EUROPE	OLD REGIME IN FRANCE	FRENCH REVOLU- TION/NAPOLEON		METTERNICH ERA	REVO- LU- TIONS	GERMAN, ITALIAN UNIFIC.	SCRAMBLE FOR COLONIES	
	INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION							
MIDEAST	OTTOMAN EMPIRE							
LATIN AMERICA	COLONIAL RULE			INDEPENDENCE MOVEMENTS		AGE OF CAUDILLOS		
AFRICA				END OF SLAVE TRADE			EUROPEAN IMPERIALISM	
INDIA	MUGHAL RULE WEAKENS			EXPANSION OF EAST INDIA COMPANY		BRITISH EMPIRE		
CHINA	QING (MANCHU) DYNASTY							
	1750	1770	1790	1810	1830	1850	1880	1910

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WHAT YOU SHOULD FOCUS ON

The period you are about to study is one in which large-scale changes began to take place with increasing speed. A person born in France during the Middle Ages would probably not have felt too out of place 300 years later during the Renaissance. But someone born in France before the French Revolution who returned a century later would have found the dramatic changes that had taken place in those one hundred years almost incomprehensible.

It is easiest to group the changes that occurred during this era into four main areas:



Napoleon poses in his coronation robes, 1804.

The French Revolution was a political event that challenged the way people thought about traditional political authority and social divisions.

The Industrial Revolution used new sources of power to replace human and animal power, bringing about the greatest changes in lifestyles and technology since the dawn of civilization.

NEW CURRENTS EMERGING IN THE WORLD, 1770–1900

Nationalism caused problems for rulers with several nationalities under their control, when each national group attempted to acquire its own unified national state.

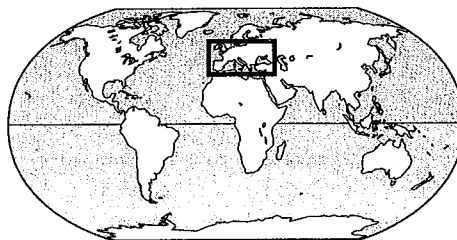
Imperialism changed the map of the world. The changes brought by the Industrial Revolution and nationalism caused the leading European powers to seek to acquire areas in Asia, Africa, and the Pacific.

In studying this era, you should focus on the following questions:

- What were the causes and effects of the French Revolution?
- What were the causes and effects of the Industrial Revolution?
- How did nationalism affect Europe?
- What were the benefits and drawbacks of imperialism in Africa and Asia?

SECTION 3: NATIONALISM AND IMPERIALISM

The Industrial Revolution helped strengthen the influence of the middle classes throughout Europe. In this section, you will learn how the Industrial Revolution helped stimulate nationalism in Europe and led to a rebirth of European imperialism in Africa and Asia.



THINK ABOUT IT

What effect did nationalism and imperialism have on the countries of Europe?

THE UNIFICATION OF ITALY AND GERMANY

You have already learned that nationalism is the belief that each ethnic group should have its own national state and government. Following the failure of the revolutions of 1848 in Italy and Germany, statesmen like Cavour and Bismarck managed to unify the Italians and Germans through skillful diplomacy and force.

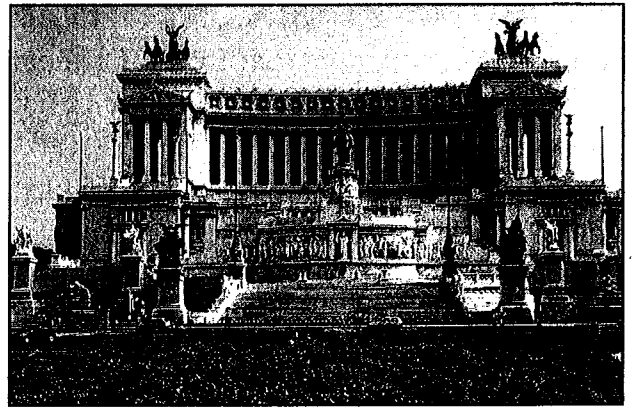
ITALY (1859–1860)

For centuries, Italy had consisted of a number of separate, smaller states. Middle-class nationalists called for unification of Italy into a single country. In 1852, **Count Cavour** became Prime Minister of the Kingdom of Piedmont (also known as *Sardinia*.) With French help, Cavour drove the Austrians out of northern Italy after a war in 1859. Cavour then annexed (*took over*) most of the other states of northern and central Italy. To the south, the nationalist leader **Giuseppe Garibaldi** overthrew the king of Naples. He then joined Naples (*also known as the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies*) to Cavour's enlarged Piedmont. By 1860, Italy had become a united kingdom.



Many problems faced the new Italian kingdom. National unification failed to end the cultural and economic divisions that separated the north and south. The south was poor and agricultural, but the north had begun to industrialize.

*Monument in Rome to King Victor Emmanuel II,
to celebrate Italian independence*

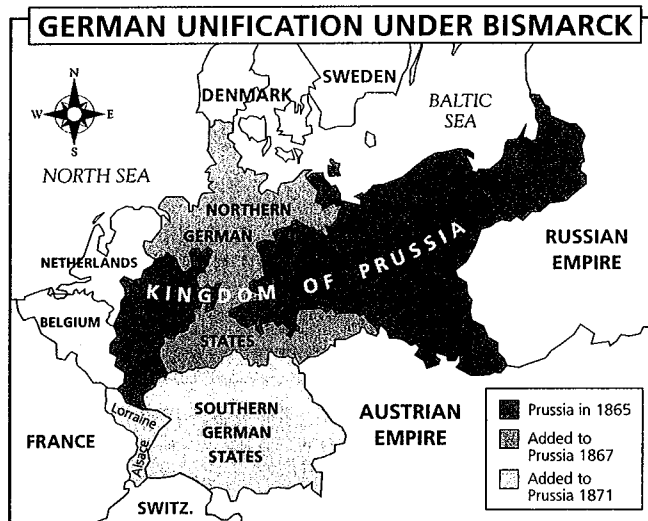


GERMANY (1863–1871)

Like Italy, Germany consisted of a number of smaller states. German liberals, like Italian liberals, had failed to unite their nation in the revolutions of 1848. Now **Prussia**, one of the largest German states, took the lead in uniting Germany. Its Prime Minister, **Otto von Bismarck**, followed a policy of “**blood and iron**,” in which he combined skillful diplomacy and Prussian military power to achieve German unification.



Otto von Bismarck



After a rapid series of successful wars, Germany was finally unified in 1871. The Prussian king became the Kaiser (*emperor*) of all Germany. The newly united German nation drafted a constitution. Although there was a national assembly, it was controlled by conservative Prussian landowners. Real power lay in the hands of the Kaiser and his Chancellor.

NATIONALISM IN RUSSIA AND TURKEY

The French Revolution and the rise of nationalism in Europe made the Russian Tsars fearful of reform. Although the middle classes were gaining power in Western Europe, the Tsars of Russia continued to rule as **autocrats** (*absolute rulers*). Through the use of the secret police and censorship, they repressed new ideas and attempts at political or social reform. Most Russians remained illiterate serfs, living in poverty. These serfs remained bound to the land, long after serfdom had been abolished in Western Europe.

THE RISE OF RUSSIAN NATIONALISM

After Russia was defeated in the Crimean War (1854–1856) by Britain and France, **Tsar Alexander II** listened to reformers and **emancipated** (*liberated*) the serfs in 1861. He was assassinated shortly afterwards, bringing hopes of further reforms to an end. Later Tsars opposed all change and used repression to maintain the existing social order.



*Tsar Alexander II
of Russia*



Russia contained many nationalities. Under Russification, all these nationalities were forced to adopt Russian customs.

The new spirit of nationalism did have some effect on Russian rulers. The

government acted as the protector of new Slav states in the Balkans (*countries north of Greece*). The Russian Government also adopted the policy of **Russification**. Under this policy, non-Russian peoples in the Russian empire, such as the Finns, Poles, and the peoples of Central Asia — were forced to adopt the Russian language, Russian culture, and the Russian Orthodox Church. Jews in Russia faced state organized riots known as **pogroms**.

OTTOMAN TURKEY, THE “SICK MAN OF EUROPE”

The forces of nationalism also accelerated the decline of the Ottoman empire, which began to weaken in the 1700s. Historians cite a number of reasons for the Ottoman decline.

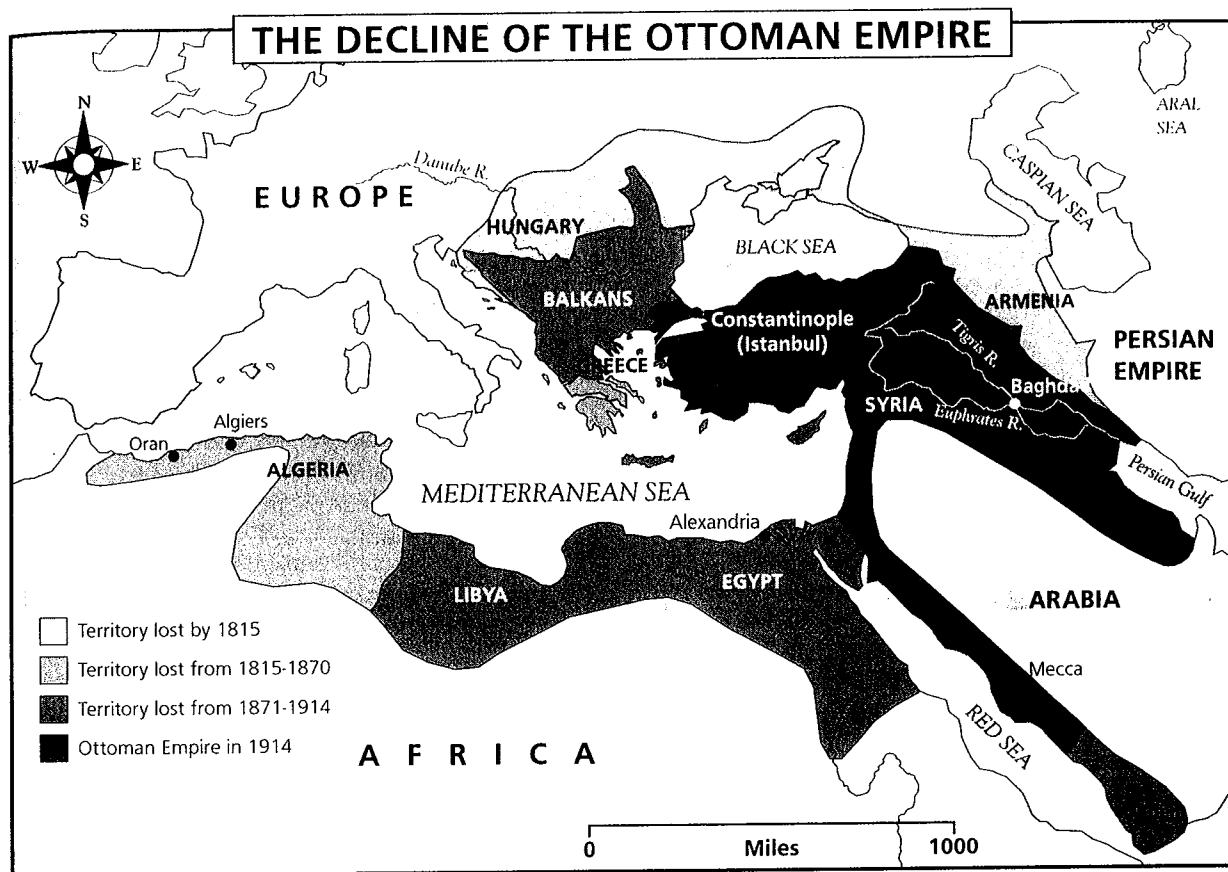
Disunity. Because of its vast size, the empire was never highly centralized. The Sultan relied on provincial officials to control his vast empire.

Failure to modernize. The Ottoman Turks failed to keep pace with Western technology and science. Muslim religious leaders often opposed change.

REASONS FOR THE DECLINE OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE

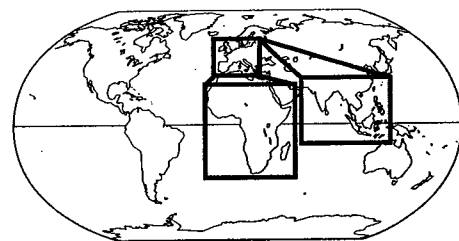
Warfare. The Ottomans lost important territories to Austria and Russia in the 1700s. Russia, as the protector of Orthodox Christians, waged a series of wars against the Ottoman Turks in the 1800s.

Nationalism. As nationalism became more widespread, the difficulties of governing different nationalities grew. Serbs, Greeks, and Romanians gained independence from the Ottomans in the early 19th century. In the 1870s, rebellions in the Balkans led to the independence of several other Slavic groups.



IMPERIALISM IN ASIA AND AFRICA

Imperialism refers to the political and economic control of one area or country by another. The triumph of nationalism in Europe led to a renewed expansion of European imperialism in Asia and Africa between 1870 and 1900.



You have already learned how, beginning in the late 1400s, European nations had developed vast overseas empires. Despite the independence of the United States and Latin America, European imperialism never fully died out. European rule continued in India, South Africa, the East Indies, and other places. In the 1880s, interest in imperialism renewed when new European countries like Belgium, Germany, and Italy sought colonial empires of their own. Even the older colonial powers like Britain and France joined in the mad scramble for new colonies.

A political cartoon from 1875, critical of European imperialism in Africa.



Technology. New technology — such as steamships, rifles, telegraphs, and better medicines — made it possible to penetrate deeply into Africa, Asia, and the Pacific nations for the first time.

Economic Motives. European industries needed raw materials to keep their factories busy. Industrialists sought new markets in which to sell their manufactured goods.

REASONS FOR RENEWED INTEREST IN IMPERIALISM

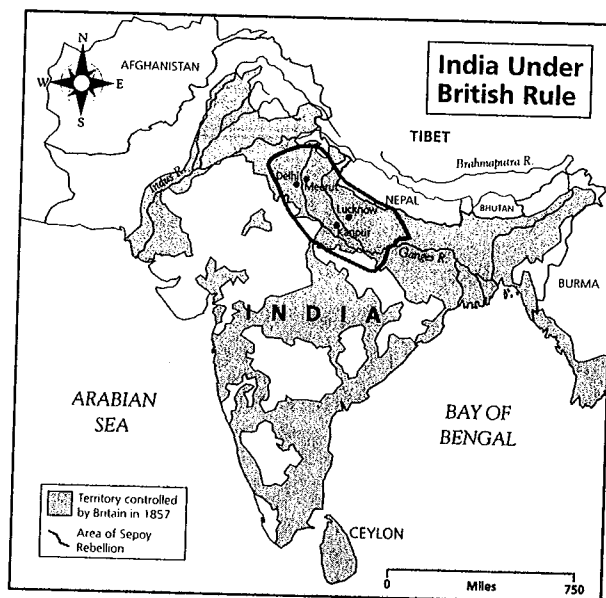
Nationalism and the Balance of Power. Europeans wished to acquire colonies to demonstrate their power. European countries also sought to preserve the balance of power among themselves. When one country obtained a new colony, other powers felt it was necessary to do the same.

Other Motives. Many Europeans believed in **Social Darwinism** — the theory that some societies were more successful because their cultures were superior. Other Europeans wanted to spread Christianity.

THE BRITISH EMPIRE IN INDIA

In the 1830s, the East India Company came under the control of the British government. British rule in India brought many changes. The British built railways, schools, and colleges. English became the language of the government. Despite these improvements, many Indians resented British rule.

In 1857, a large number of British-trained Indian soldiers, known as **sepoys**, rebelled against their British officers. The mutiny began when the sepoy had to bite off bullet cartridges which they thought were greased with pork or beef fat. Muslim and Hindu soldiers believed they were being forced to violate their religion.



Fighting during the Sepoy Mutiny

The angry sepoy rose up against their British officers. The Sepoy rebellion quickly spread to cities across northern and central India. One effect of the mutiny was that the British government took over formal rule of India and abolished the East India Company. As a result, the mutiny was put down and India now became a British possession.

THE BRITISH RULE OF INDIA

During two centuries of British rule, many aspects of Indian life changed:

Government. The British provided a single system of law and government, unifying India. They provided jobs, increased educational opportunities, and introduced English as a unifying language.

Economic. The British built roads, bridges, and railroads and set up telegraph wires. However, India's **cottage industries**, in which products were made by people in their homes, were hurt by competition with British manufactured goods.

IMPACT OF BRITISH RULE IN INDIA

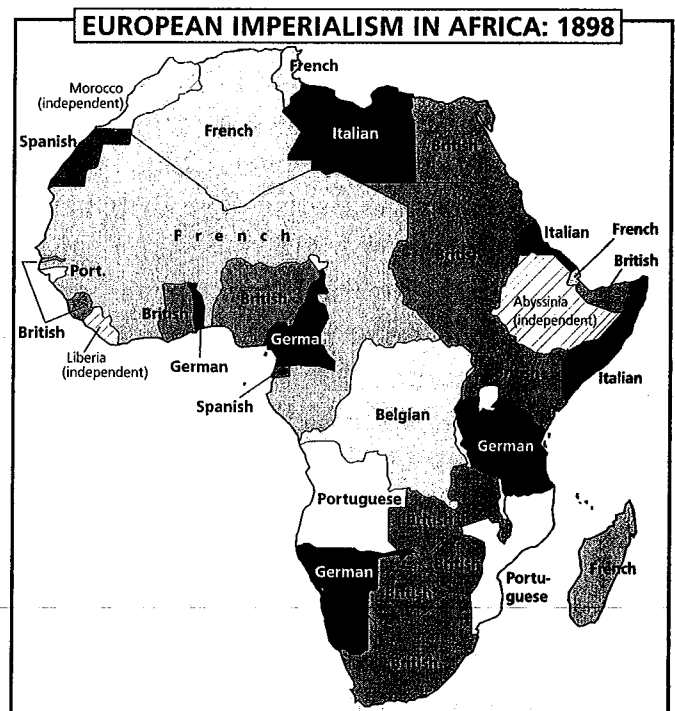
Health. The British built hospitals, introduced new medicines, and provided famine relief. At the same time, health care improvements led to a population explosion without a similar increase in economic opportunities.

Social. Indians were looked down upon by the British and their culture was treated as inferior to European culture. Indian workers provided the British with inexpensive labor — for long hours, often under terrible working conditions.

EUROPEAN IMPERIALISM IN AFRICA, 1870–1898

As late as 1870, Europeans controlled very little actual territory in Africa except along the coasts. But in the following twenty years, due to the renewed interest in imperialism, this picture changed dramatically. European powers engaged in a “**Scramble for Africa**,” during which most of Africa came under their direct control. By 1890, only Ethiopia and Liberia remained independent. The discovery of resources like gold and diamonds sharpened European interests in Africa.

The major European powers to acquire African territories were Great Britain, France, Germany, Belgium, Portugal, and Italy. The French acquired much of northwestern Africa above the Sahara, as well as Central Africa. The king of Belgium ruled the Congo like a private estate. The British established colonies in West Africa and along the length of most of East Africa from Egypt to South Africa. Germany acquired territories in East and West Africa. Disputes among the imperial powers were worked out at the **Berlin Conference of 1884–1885**, where the remainder of Africa was divided up.



THE BALANCE SHEET OF EUROPEAN IMPERIALISM IN AFRICA

European colonization had both positive and negative effects on Africa:

POSITIVE EFFECTS	NEGATIVE EFFECTS
European medicine and improved nutrition increased the life-span of Africans. This led to an expansion of population.	European domination led to an erosion of traditional African values and destroyed many existing social relationships.
Europeans introduced modern transportation and communications, such as telegraphs, railroads, and telephones.	African peoples were treated as inferior to Europeans. Native peoples were forced to work long hours for low pay.
A small minority of Africans received improved education and greater economic opportunities. Some served as administrators or in the army.	Europeans divided Africa artificially, ignoring tribal, ethnic, and cultural boundaries. This has led to continuing tribal conflicts in many African nations.

THE OPENING OF CHINA AND JAPAN

EUROPEAN IMPERIALISM IN CHINA

Western nations were interested in China because its huge population offered a giant market for European manufactured goods. In the early 1800s, the Chinese imperial government tried to stop the British practice of selling opium from India in China. By this time, however, China lacked the military technology to defy the British. The British easily defeated China in the **Opium War (1839–1842)**. British leaders then forced China to open several “treaty ports,” giving the British new trading privileges. In this way, the British established several **spheres of influence** — areas of China under British economic control. Other European countries followed the British example and obtained their own spheres of influence in China.

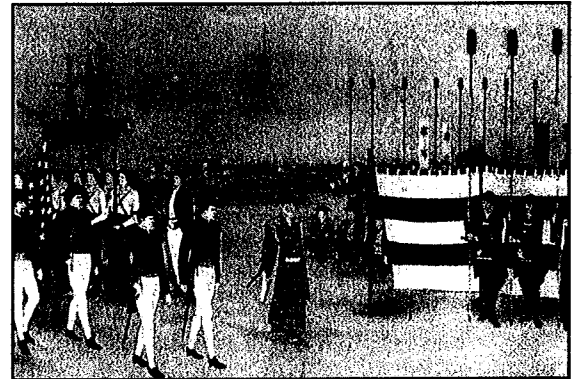
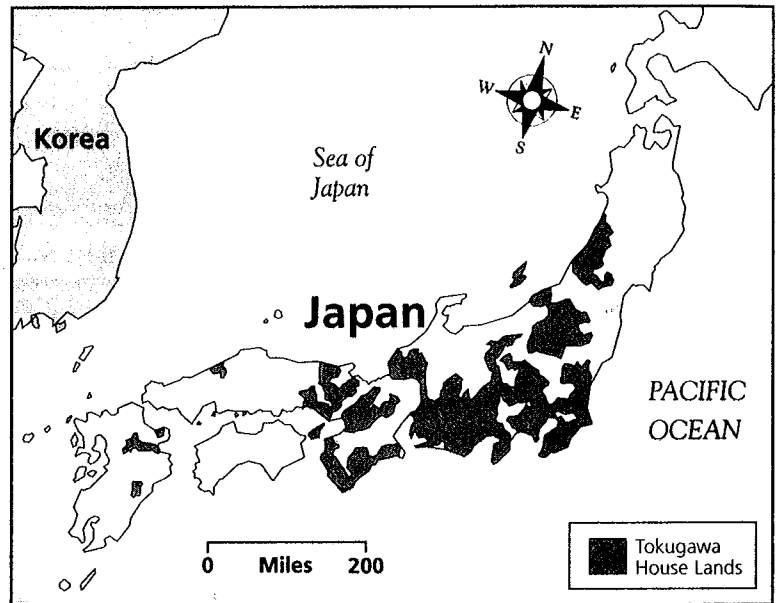


THE OPENING OF JAPAN

Another Asian country to encounter Western influence in the late 19th century was Japan. Two hundred years earlier, the rulers of Japan — the **Tokugawa Shoguns** — had almost completely cut off Japan from European trade. The Japanese were forbidden to travel to other countries and foreigners were banned from Japan.

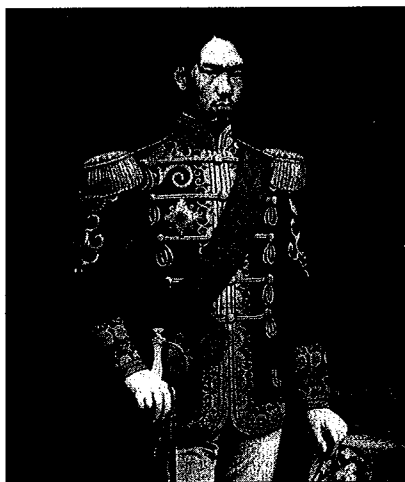
Although Japan was isolated from the West, the Tokugawa Shogunate was a period of peace and economic growth. Agricultural production doubled between 1600 and 1850. Merchants and craftspeople crowded into large cities like Tokyo. Although the samurai remained powerful, warfare was infrequent.

In 1853, the United States government sent Commodore **Matthew Perry** with a naval squadron to Japan to halt the mistreatment of shipwrecked American sailors. The United States also sought to develop new markets and to establish a port where American ships could obtain supplies on their way to China. Fearing what had happened to China, Japanese leaders opened their ports to American trade. Within a few years, the British, Russians, and Dutch negotiated similarly favorable trade treaties.



Commodore Perry lands in Japan.

THE MEIJI RESTORATION, 1868–1912

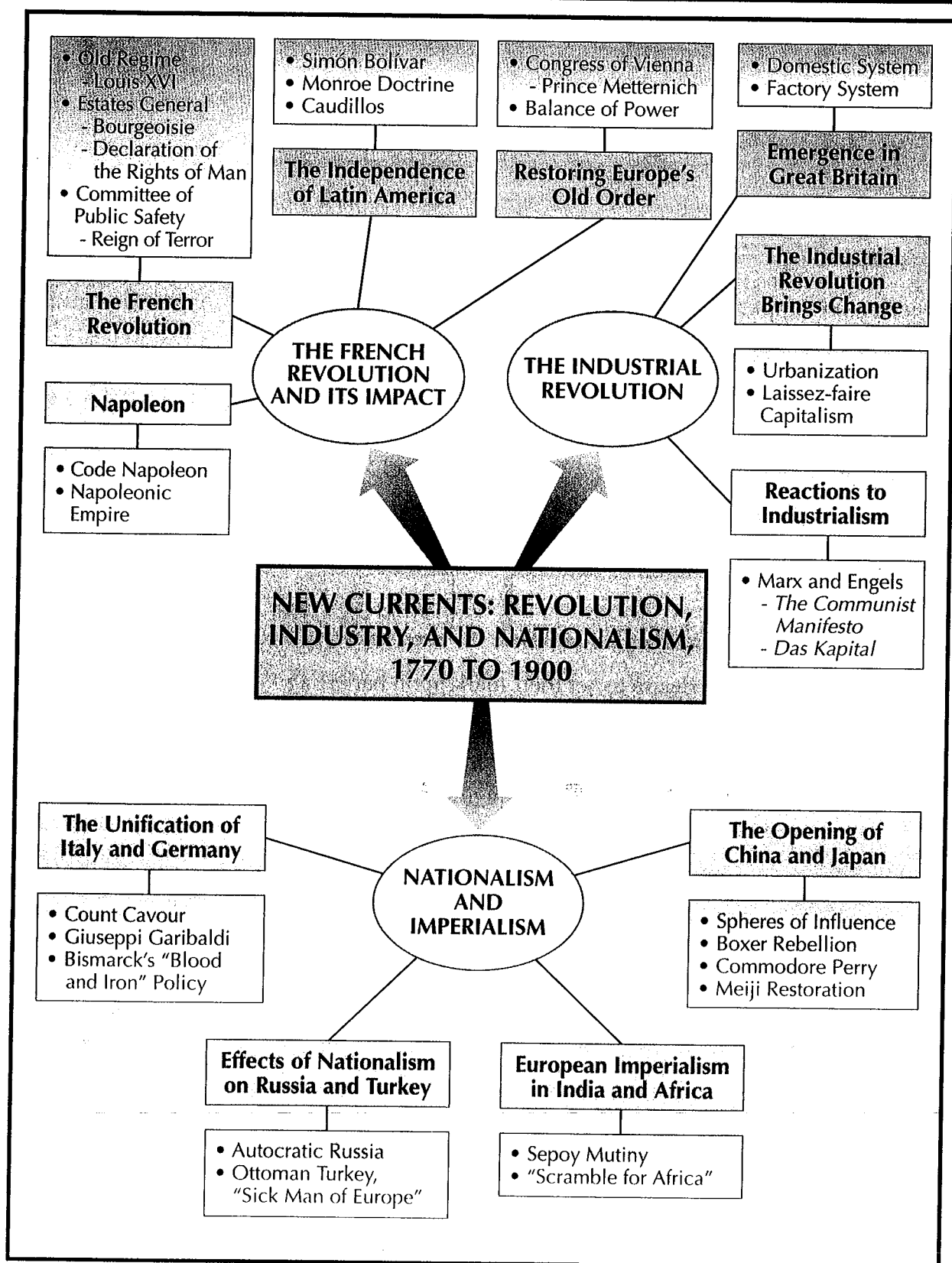


Mutsuhito — the Meiji Emperor

The Shogun was severely criticized for opening Japan to the West. A group of lower samurai overthrew him and suddenly “restored” to power the young emperor, whose ancestors had been mere puppets for over a thousand years.

Emperor Meiji, the new ruler, became convinced that Japan had to adopt Western ways if it was to escape future domination by Western powers. Foreigners were invited to Japan to modernize its military, establish factories, build railroads, and reform schools. Under Emperor Meiji, Japan successfully imitated and adapted to Western ways.

KEY, TERMS, CONCEPTS, AND PEOPLE



CHAPTER 10

THE WORLD AT WAR, 1900 TO 1945



SECTION 1: THE CRISIS OF THE EARLY 20TH CENTURY

1. Reform through Revolution
2. World War I
3. The Russian Revolution of 1917

SECTION 2: THE WORLD BETWEEN THE WARS

1. The Soviet Union
2. Prosperity and Depression
3. The Rise of Fascism
4. The Nazi Dictatorship



The effects of the depression — mother and child in front of their “home.”

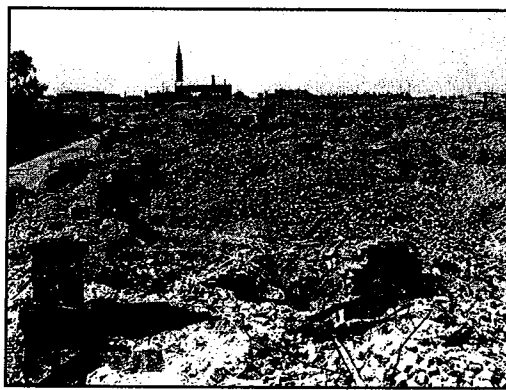
SECTION 3: WORLD WAR II AND ITS AFTERMATH

1. World War II, 1939–1945
2. Global Impact of World War II
3. Decolonization of Asia and Africa

	1905	1915	1925	1935	1945	
EUROPE		WORLD WAR I	RISE OF FASCISM		WORLD WAR II	COLD WAR
RUSSIA	TSAR NICHOLAS II		REVOLUTION: LENIN	STALIN		
AFRICA	EUROPEAN CONTROL					INDEPENDENCE MOVEMENTS
TURKEY	SULTANATE	YOUNG TURK GOVT.		MODERN TURKEY		
MIDEAST	OTTOMAN EMPIRE		EUROPEAN PROTECTORATES			INDEPENDENCE MOVEMENTS
MEXICO	RULE OF DIAZ	REVOLUTION	REPUBLIC OF MEXICO			
CHINA	MANCHU DYNASTY	REPUBLIC OF CHINA				
JAPAN	JAPAN'S RISE TO POWER				WORLD WAR II	U.S. OCCUPATION
INDIA	INDIAN NATIONALIST MOVEMENT DURING BRITISH RULE					INDEPENDENCE
S.E. ASIA	EUROPEAN COLONIZATION					INDEPENDENCE MOVEMENTS
	1905	1915	1925	1935	1945	

WHAT YOU SHOULD FOCUS ON

In this chapter, you will learn how the forces of industrialization and nationalism led to the rise of new political systems like Communism and Fascism. You will also see how humankind experienced two world wars, causing greater devastation than at any other time in human history. As a result, European rule over much of the world was shattered, and the United States and the Soviet Union emerged as superpowers. The developments of this era occurred in four main stages:



Warsaw in 1943: World War II brought death and destruction to much of Europe.

PRE-WAR YEARS (1900–1914)

Around the world, educated elites, frustrated by their nation's problems, often sought change through revolution. Meanwhile, European governments armed themselves for war. In Asia and Africa, European powers controlled vast colonial empires.

WORLD WAR I (1914–1918)

A crisis between Austria-Hungary and Serbia led to a major European war. In 1917, a Communist revolution took Russia out of the war. After World War I, imperial governments in Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Turkey were toppled.

FOUR KEY STAGES FROM 1900 TO 1945

THE INTER-WAR YEARS (1919–1939)

The mid-1920s saw general prosperity, followed by the world-wide Great Depression of the 1930s. Economic crisis gave rise to Fascist dictators like Hitler in Germany. Meanwhile, Stalin ruled the Soviet Union as a Communist dictator.

WORLD WAR II (1939–1945)

German and Japanese aggression plunged the world into another war. The war led to the atomic bomb, the United Nations, and the end of imperialism in Africa and Asia. The United States and Soviet Union became global superpowers.

In studying this era, you should focus on the following questions:

- What conditions led to revolutionary changes in Turkey, Mexico, China, and Russia in the early 20th century?
- What were the main causes and effects of World War I?
- What changes did Lenin and Stalin introduce into the Soviet Union?
- What factors led to Fascism in Europe and militarism in Japan?
- What were the main causes and effects of World War II?

KEY LEADERS AND THINKERS IN GLOBAL HISTORY

Asian Political Leaders

Asoka the Great (273–238 B.C.)
Kublai Khan (1215–1294)
Akbar the Great (1542–1605)
Sun Yat-sen (1866–1925)

Mao Zedong (1893–1976)
Mohandas Gandhi (1869–1948)
Deng Xiaoping (1904–1996)
Indira Gandhi (1917–1984)

African Political Leaders

Mansa Musa (1270–1332)
Jomo Kenyatta (1894–1978)

Kwame Nkrumah (1909–1972)
Nelson Mandela (1918–present)

European Political Leaders

Alexander the Great (356–323 B.C.)
Charlemagne (742–814)
Elizabeth I (1553–1603)
Peter the Great (1672–1725)
Catherine the Great (1729–1796)

Napoleon Bonaparte (1769–1821)
Otto von Bismarck (1815–1898)
Vladimir Ilyich Lenin (1870–1924)
Joseph Stalin (1879–1953)
Adolf Hitler (1889–1945)

Middle Eastern Political Leaders

Suleiman the Magnificent (1490–1566)

Anwar el-Sadat (1918–1981)

Latin American Political Leaders

Simon Bolivar (1783–1830)

Fidel Castro (1927–present)

Religious Leaders

Siddharta Gautama (563–483 B.C.)
Confucius (551–479 B.C.)
Mencius (372–289 B.C.)
Jesus (1–30 A.D.)

Mohammed (570–632)
Martin Luther (1483–1546)
Ignatius Loyola (1491–1556)
Ayatollah Khomeini (1900–1996)

Thinkers and Writers

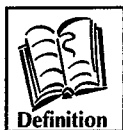
Socrates (469–399 B.C.)
Plato (427–347 B.C.)
Niccolo Machiavelli (1469–1527)
John Locke (1632–1704)

Voltaire (1694–1778)
Adam Smith (1723–1790)
Karl Marx (1818–1883)
Thomas Malthus (1766–1834)

Scientists and Inventors

Johann Gutenberg (1398–1468)
Nicolas Copernicus (1473–1543)
Charles Darwin (1809–1882)

Isaac Newton (1642–1727)
James Watt (1736–1819)
Albert Einstein (1879–1955)



Totalitarianism is a political system in which a one-party government controls all aspects of individual life. Citizens are denied the rights of free speech and dissent. Secret police, censorship, and terror are used to enforce government control.

Reign of Terror. In so-called “purges,” Stalin’s secret police arrested and executed potential rival leaders. Stalin built enormous slave labor camps in Siberia, known as **gulags**. Tens of millions of people died, victims of his reign of terror.

Control of Cultural Life. Stalin used the government to control Soviet education, ideas, the economy, and even music and the arts. In movies, theatres, and schools, Soviet citizens heard only about Communist ideals and successes.

CHANGES UNDER STALIN

Collectivization. Private land was taken from the peasants, who were forced to work on farms owned by the government (*called collectives*). In the Ukraine, the peasants rejected collectivization. Stalin sealed off the entire region after seizing food supplies, so that millions of Ukrainians starved to death.

Five-Year Plans. Stalin sought to turn his country from an agricultural land into an industrialized nation. He introduced a series of **Five-Year Plans** in which national goals were set and all aspects of the economy were controlled. Heavy industry was developed, while consumer needs were ignored. These Five-Year Plans were considered great successes.

Glorification of Stalin. Stalin glorified his part in building the nation, portraying himself as Russia’s greatest leader. Streets and cities were named after him; his picture appeared everywhere in public. Statues portrayed him as a gentle, fatherly ruler. Children memorized his sayings in school. Artists and writers boasted of Stalin’s accomplishments.

THE WORLD IN PROSPERITY AND DEPRESSION

RECONSTRUCTION AND PROSPERITY IN THE 1920s

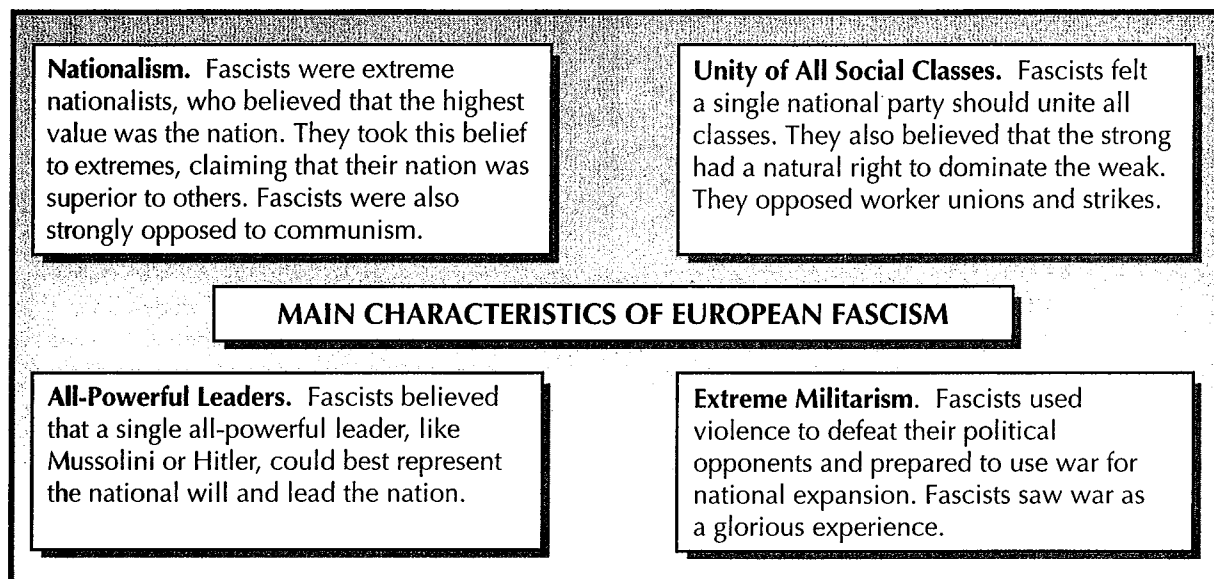
Life in 1919 differed in many significant ways from before the war. The former imperial governments of Germany, Russia, Austria-Hungary, and Ottoman Turkey were gone. New states like Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Yugoslavia, and the Baltic states had emerged.

In Europe, the first years after World War I were not easy ones. Central European peoples suffered from famine. Farms, cities, and railroad lines had been torn up in the fighting. Europeans spent the next five years rebuilding and recovering from the war.



German soldiers fighting in World War I. After the war many faced unemployment.

Most varieties of European Fascism shared the following basic characteristics:



THE ROOTS OF FASCISM

Some long-held beliefs helped prepare the way for the rise of Fascism. **Anti-Semitism**, a hatred of Jews, was an established trend among many Europeans. Jews often faced persecution because their beliefs made them easy targets in times of social unrest and economic difficulty. **Racism** is a contempt for other races. This, too, was an established trend in European culture. European racism was strengthened by the experiences of overseas imperialism and by the spirit of nationalism. **Social Darwinism** made racism and anti-Semitism respectable. Social Darwinists, using the ideas of Charles Darwin about evolution in nature, believed that all human groups competed for survival. Social Darwinists claimed that stronger groups had the right to succeed and that weaker groups deserved to die out.

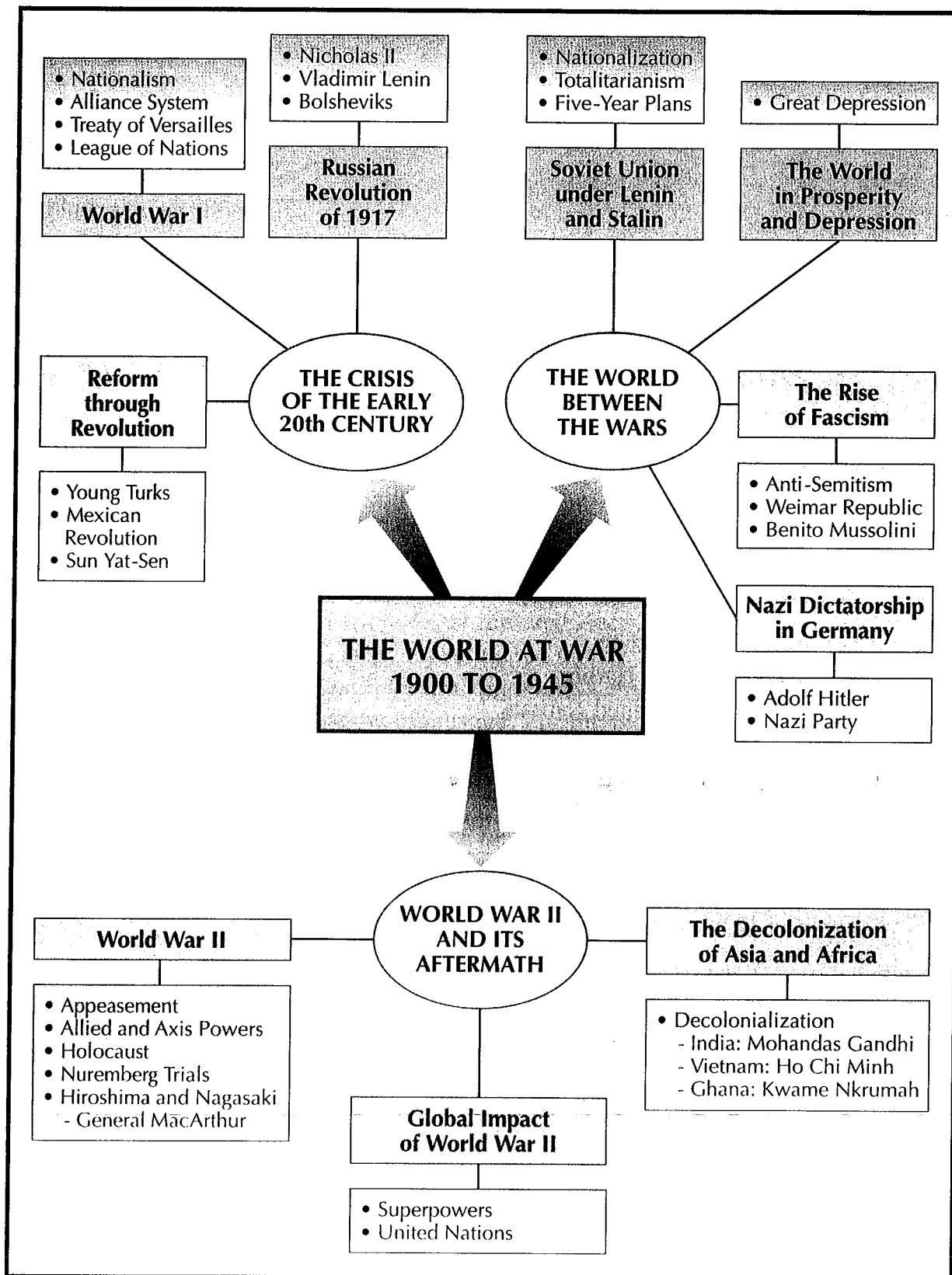


In Germany during the 1930s, scenes like this were common. The sign says, "Germans! Defend yourselves! Do not buy from Jews."

THE OLD ORDER COLLAPSES

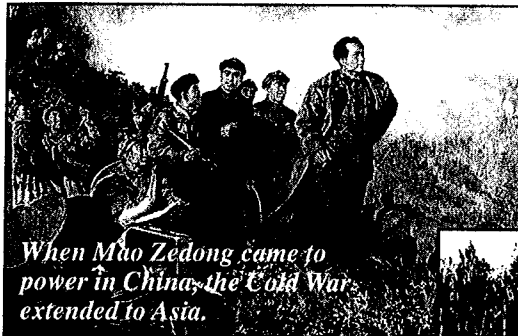
Europe had been shaken to its core by World War I. In the aftermath of World War I, most people sought to return to life as it had been prior to 1914. However, important political changes had taken place. New countries had been created, and old ruling families had been overthrown.

KEY TERMS, CONCEPTS, AND PEOPLE



CHAPTER 11

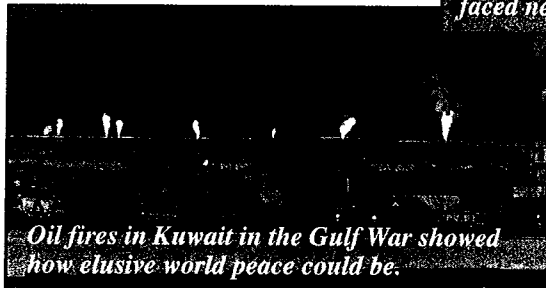
FROM THE COLD WAR TO GLOBAL INTERDEPENDENCE, 1945 TO THE PRESENT



When Mao Zedong came to power in China, the Cold War extended to Asia.



Nations achieving independence in Africa, Asia and the Middle East faced new problems.



Oil fires in Kuwait in the Gulf War showed how elusive world peace could be.

SECTION 1: THE COLD WAR, 1945–1970S

1. Superpower Rivalry and the Birth of the Cold War
2. The Cold War from the 1950s to the 1970s

SECTION 2: PROBLEMS OF THE DEVELOPING WORLD

1. Africa
2. The Middle East
3. South Asia
4. Latin America
5. New Democracies Emerge

SECTION 3: THE POST-COLD WAR WORLD

1. Collapse of the Soviet Union
2. China's Economic Reform
3. Resolution of Old Disputes and Emergence of New Ones
4. New Economic Realities

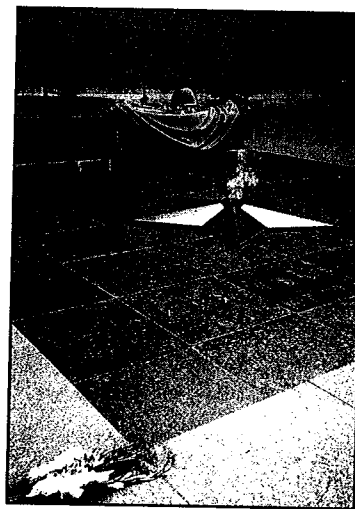
	1945	1959	1973	1987	2001
RUSSIA	STALIN	KHRUSHCHEV	BREZHNEV	GORBACHEV	C.I.S. YELTSIN
W. EUROPE	MARSHALL PLAN	COMMON MARKET; NATO; RESISTANCE TO COMMUNISM			EUROPEAN UNION
E. EUROPE	SATELLITES OF THE SOVIET UNION				INDEPENDENCE
CHINA		MAO ZEDONG	DENG XIAOPING		JIANG ZEMIN
JAPAN	REBUILDING AFTER WORLD WAR II			ECONOMIC SUPERPOWER	
VIETNAM	FRENCH RULE	DIV. INTO N. & S. VIETNAM	VIETNAM WAR	COMMUNISTS RULE VIETNAM	
S. AFRICA		APARTHEID POLICY			APARTHEID ENDS
ISRAEL		WARS BETWEEN ISRAEL AND ARABS			UNEASY PEACE
IRAN	RULE OF THE SHAH			ISLAMIC STATE	
	1945	1959	1973	1987	2001

WHAT YOU SHOULD FOCUS ON

At the end of World War II, two Superpowers emerged. The Soviet Union had the world's largest army and occupied all of Eastern Europe. The United States possessed unparalleled economic strength and the atomic bomb. Their rivalry unleashed a "Cold War" that affected nearly every part of the globe. The collapse of Soviet Communism forty years later has led to equally monumental changes.

Against this background of Superpower rivalry, developing nations have struggled to improve their economies, Western Europe and Japan have gradually recovered from the destruction of World War II, and ethnic rivalries have turned some areas into global "hot spots."

In reviewing this chapter, keep in mind the following developments in the half-century since World War II:



Tomb of the Unknown Soldier (Moscow). Although suffering severe losses, Russia emerged from the war as a Superpower.

The Cold War. The Cold War started almost as soon as World War II ended. Eastern Europe, North Korea, and China became Communist. From the 1950s to the 1970s, the United States and Soviet Union avoided head-on confrontation but engaged in a world-wide competition for influence and in regional conflicts like the Vietnam War.

KEY DEVELOPMENTS AFTER WORLD WAR II

Problems of the Developing World. While the Superpowers engaged in the Cold War, the nations of Latin America, Africa, and Asia struggled to overcome poverty, illiteracy, ethnic conflicts, and political instability.


The Post-Cold War World. Between 1989 and 1991, Communism collapsed in the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe. In China, Communists introduced limited free-market measures. New economic realities emerged, as people depended more than ever on goods, services, and ideas from other countries.

In studying this era, you should focus on the following questions:

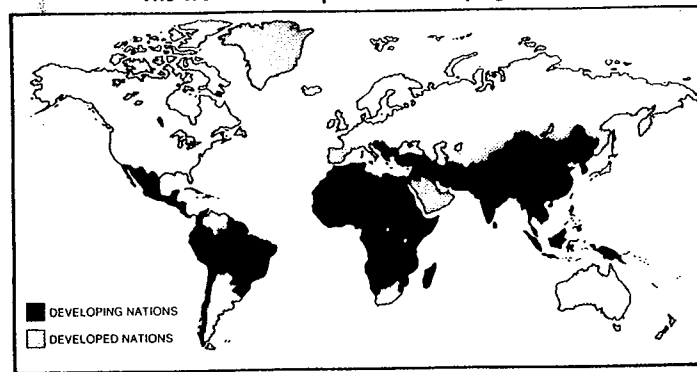
- What were the causes and consequences of the Cold War?
- What problems do developing nations continue to face?
- What factors led to the collapse of Communism?
- What challenges are faced by the post-Cold War world?

LOOKING AT THE PROBLEMS OF DEVELOPING NATIONS

WHAT IS A DEVELOPING NATION?

 One way to view a country is to measure what its total economy produces (*G.D.P. or Gross Domestic Product*) and its **per capita income** (*income per person*). Countries that have high production and incomes are often known as **developed nations**. Nations that are trying to make more effective use of their resources are called **developing nations** — or **Third World** nations. These developing nations are located in Africa, Asia, and Latin America.

The World's Developed and Developing Nations



PROBLEMS FACED BY DEVELOPING NATIONS

The major problems faced by developing nations are often similar. Most of these countries must overcome similar obstacles:

Workforce. These countries often lack a skilled workforce. A majority of the population are peasant farmers who work without modern machinery and techniques. Many are unable to read and write.

Need for Capital Investment. Developing countries often lack roads, bridges, communications systems, urban centers, and manufacturing facilities. They need capital investment to develop a modern economy.

PROBLEMS FACING DEVELOPING NATIONS

Foreign Competition. It is difficult for developing countries to compete with developed countries on world markets. They cannot manufacture goods as cheaply because they lack the workforce, technology, and capital investment.

Population Growth. In developing nations, birth rates are often high, because families traditionally had a large number of children to help with farming and housework.

STRATEGIES TO OVERCOME THESE PROBLEMS

The leaders of developing countries have historically adopted various strategies to overcome the obstacles that face them.

- ◆ **Central Planning.** Many developing countries adopted single-party states and central planning to hasten economic development. The central government nationalized industries and built dams, roads, schools, and factories.
- ◆ **Green Revolution.** In the 1960s and 1970s, developing countries improved food production by applying modern science and technology to agriculture. New fertilizers, pesticides, and better methods of irrigation were introduced.
- ◆ **Population Control.** Many developing nations began programs to limit their birth rates. In China, for example, families were encouraged to have only one child.
- ◆ **Free-Market Approach.** In the late 1980s and 1990s, many nations turned to the free-market system to improve economic development. Foreign investors were attracted to invest their capital in developing countries because labor costs were low. At the present time, attracting foreign investment appears to be the best strategy for promoting economic development.



Even as nations in Africa, the Middle East, and Asia move closer to developed status, remnants of underdevelopment die slowly.

ANSWERING AN ESSAY QUESTION ON ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Sometimes a global history examination question will ask you to discuss the problems faced by developing nations and to propose solutions. As you read this chapter you will learn more about the specific problems of the developing world. Pay particular attention to the methods used by the following areas to solve their economic problems:

Africa

Asia

Latin America

Middle East

MAJOR HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENTS

SECTION 1: THE COLD WAR, 1945–1985

During World War II, the United States and the Soviet Union were allies, even though their political, economic, and social systems were very different. In this section, you will read about how these differences led to a “Cold War” — first in Europe and then in Asia, Latin America, and Africa.



THINK ABOUT IT

What were the causes and consequences of the Cold War?

SUPERPOWER RIVALRY AND THE BIRTH OF THE COLD WAR

THE ROOTS OF THE COLD WAR

The **Cold War** was “cold” only in the sense that the two Superpowers never confronted one another directly in open warfare. But their global competition led to conflicts on every continent. The roots of the Cold War lay in the competing ideological systems of the Western democracies and Soviet Communism. While the United States and other Western nations hoped to spread democracy and capitalism, Soviet leaders promoted the spread of Communism.

	Western Democracies	Soviet Communism
Political System	Citizens elected representatives and national leaders. People had the right to form their own political parties.	The Soviet Union was a dictatorship controlled by Communist Party leaders. The Communist Party was the only political party permitted to operate.
Individual Rights	Citizens had basic rights, such as freedom of speech, freedom of the press, and freedom of religion.	Ordinary citizens had few rights. The government controlled radio, television, and newspapers. Secret police arrested all critics of the government. The practice of religion was discouraged.
Economic System	Under capitalism, people and corporations could own land and businesses. Businesses provided goods and services in order to make a profit.	Many forms of private property were abolished. With state ownership and central planning, the government controlled all production. Private farms became state-owned collective farms.

KEY TERMS, CONCEPTS, AND PEOPLE

