INTRODUCTION

Revolutions\(^1\) are movements which bring about complete or drastic altering of economic, political, and/or social life change. The better known revolutions, in places such as the Britain’s Atlantic Coast colonies in North America, France, Russia, Iran, and China, were political. However, many revolutions do not involve violence or political change. Revolutions have occurred in fields such as science, philosophy, and methods of production. Political revolutions are more likely to involve violence, but some political change has been brought about by coup d’états\(^2\). Napoleon Bonaparte of France achieved power through a coup d’état in 1799.

\(^1\) revolution (overthrow of one government and its replacement with another)
\(^2\) coup d’états (sudden, often bloodless overthrow of a government by a usually small group of persons in or previously in positions of authority)

THE SCIENTIFIC REVOLUTION

DEVELOPMENT OF SCIENTIFIC METHODS

Beginning as early as the age of Copernicus\(^3\), some Western scientists began to question the ideas of the ancient Greeks and Romans. They began to observe and experiment and to base their conclusions on their findings. These procedures became known as the scientific method. Many scientists also adopted the inductive approach — working from many specific examples to develop more generalized conclusions. For example, they would examine many different varieties of leaves to come to a conclusion about what a leaf was. Not surprisingly, many scientific developments occurred during the Renaissance when the prevailing outlook favored questioning and progress.

Changes in thinking that occurred during the Scientific Revolution led to changes in other

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scientist</th>
<th>Work</th>
<th>Main Contributions</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nicolaus Copernicus</td>
<td>On the Revolutions of Heavenly Orbs (1543)</td>
<td>Heliocentric Theory — believed that the Earth and other planets revolved around the Sun — used mathematical calculations, not observation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Galileo Galilei</td>
<td>Dialogues on the Two New Sciences (1632)</td>
<td>Used telescope to prove planets revolved around Sun; laws of motion on Earth; observed sunspots; mountains on Moon.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isaac Newton</td>
<td>Principia (The Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy (1687) )</td>
<td>Universal Law of Gravitation — explained movement on Earth and in solar system; co-developed calculus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rene Descartes</td>
<td>Discourse on Method (1637)</td>
<td>Used reason (“I think, therefore I am”) to arrive at truth; Invented coordinate geometry; believed science should be applied to practical arts.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
fields. French philosopher-mathematician Rene Descartes (1596-1650) held the belief that science could have practical application. This is seen in the inventions of the Agricultural and Industrial Revolutions. In addition, changes developed in philosophy. Thinkers sought natural laws that governed the actions of people, just as England's Sir Isaac Newton (1643-1727) and others sought the laws that governed nature. Scientific groups such as England's Royal Society and France's Academy of Science circulated new ideas and made change and progress easier.

THE IMPACT OF ENLIGHTENMENT ON NATIONALISM AND DEMOCRACY

Enlightenment writers used nature or natural laws to justify their ideas of how people should live together and what their form of government should be. Most liberal Enlightenment thinkers believed that nature grouped people together in nations which had different characteristics. People became more conscious of themselves as a national group, and this led to national pride and often to reactionary feelings against those regarded as foreign.

The philosophes were not a unified group, and often disagreed. Voltaire believed that rulers should have the power which would be used to benefit the people; Rousseau and Locke believed that power should rest with the people.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author &amp; Work</th>
<th>Main Ideas</th>
<th>Impact</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>John Locke (1632-1704)</td>
<td>Locke believed all men have natural rights of life, liberty, property; men have a right of revolution if government fails to protect rights</td>
<td>Influenced ideas of Jefferson and Declaration of independence; used many times to justify revolution against unjust governments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two Treatises of Government (1690)</td>
<td>Voltaire admired relative freedom of religion and press in England; believed enlightened despots should use power to benefit people</td>
<td>Increased English pride in freedoms resulted in rise of enlightened despots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Francois Marie Arouet, 1694-1778</td>
<td>Rousseau believed &quot;man is born free, yet everywhere he is in chains&quot;; &quot;wanted men to give power to government (General Will) which would act for common good with consent of people</td>
<td>Influenced development of democracy - government &quot;of the people, by the people, for the people&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Letters on the English (1728)</td>
<td>Baron de Montesquieu believed in separation of powers (legislative / executive / judicial); wanted balance of power among various elements in government</td>
<td>Influenced structure of the U.S. Constitution and other constitutions based on it</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Jean Jacques Rousseau (1712-1778) Social Contract (1761) | | |

Montesquieu (Charles Louis de Secondat, 1689-1755) | | |

The Spirit of the Laws (1748) | | |
As a consequence, very different forms of government could be justified using the ideas of the philosophes.

**ENLIGHTENED DESPOTS**

Enlightened despotism is a term associated with 18th century monarchs who, while denying democratic rights, used their absolute power to reform legal, social, and educational institutions and improve conditions for their subjects. Enlightened despotism owes much to the writings of Voltaire. He spent time at the court of Frederick the Great of Prussia and corresponded with Catherine the Great of Russia. Voltaire believed that a ruler could justify his/her power by improving society. Common actions taken by enlightened despots included: codification of laws, limitation of church power, construction of hospitals and elementary schools, development of a centralized bureaucracy, and modification of serfdom. They took similar actions, yet tailored their actions to conditions within their particular realms.

**Mini Assessment**

1. Voltaire believed that complete power should be given to an enlightened despot and Locke believed that power should rest with the people. Which is a correct conclusion based on these statements and your knowledge of the Intellectual Revolution?
   1. All philosophes believed in democracy.
   2. Philosophes had widely differing views on government.
   3. French philosophes believed only in absolutism while English philosophes supported democracy.
   4. The nature of government was the only concern of philosophes.

2. A major contribution of the Scientific Revolution was the
   1. emphasis it placed on practical application of scientific theory
   2. increased reluctance to employ the inductive method
   3. refusal to question ideas of the ancient Greeks
   4. continued reliance on the geocentric theory

3. Which were likely actions of enlightened despots?
   1. sharing power with an elected legislature and increasing rights for women
   2. abolishing censorship and rights of assembly
   3. codifying laws and establishing a government bureaucracy
   4. establishing a state religion and church control of education

**Constructed Response:**

“When any number of men have so consented to make one community or government, they are thereby presenty incorporated and ... the majority have a right to act and conclude [include] the rest.”

— John Locke, Second Treatise of Civil Government (1690)

1. Which form of government does Locke support in this quotation?
2. How might Locke’s ideas (this one and others) be applied in the French Revolution?
rated. In Russia, the revolution of a serf (Pugachev) threatened the reign of Catherine the Great and resulted in a slowing of the reform process. Nevertheless, conditions for the common people in countries ruled by enlightened despots were better than those in nearby countries.

**POLITICAL REVOLUTIONS**

**THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION**

The Enlightenment\(^1\) had considerable impact on the decade of turmoil that swept Britain's Atlantic Coast colonies from 1764-1775 and resulted in the American Revolution (1776-1783). Such revolutionary leaders as Benjamin Franklin (1706-1790), Thomas Paine (1737-1809), and Thomas Jefferson (1743-1826) were influenced by the philosophes.

Benjamin Franklin was the main author of the *Albany Plan of Union* (1754) which urged the colonies to unite against the threat of French power in Canada. Later, he favored a system of Parliamentary representation for the colonists. After the Revolution, he lobbied for giving the U.S. Congress the power to tax. From 1775 to 1783, while serving as the Americans' representative in France, Franklin wore the common man's homespun clothing and tied his hair back in a simple queue (pigtail). To many Frenchmen, he seemed to be reflecting Rousseau's idea that man should return to as near the state of nature as possible.

Thomas Paine's *Common Sense* (1776) held the injustice of the British monarchy to blame for American dissatisfaction. Paine also found it unnatural for a small nation such as Britain to rule a large area such as America.

Thomas Jefferson's ideas in the *Declaration of Independence* (1776) blamed the British monarchy for violation of Americans' natural rights to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. Jefferson also indicated that these violations gave Americans the right of revolution. Thus, his ideas clearly include those of John Locke and some of the other Enlightenment writers. The *United States Constitution* (1789) includes the ideas of Montesquieu on the separation of powers and a check and balance system.

The first ten amendments to the *U.S. Constitution*, the *Bill of Rights* (1791), enumerate the rights of American citizens to such privileges as freedom of speech, press, religion, private property, and trial by jury. Again they reflect the ideals of the Enlightenment thinkers.

The American Revolution of 1776 clearly inspired the *French Revolution* of 1789 and most of the other world revolutions which followed. The reforms of the French Revolution included the idea that a constitution was necessary to limit the power of the government. The French *Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen* (1789) included many of the ideas of the philosophes and the American revolutionaries. Later phases of the French Revolution led to the adoption of a republic. The American example had shown such a government system could work in a modern nation.

The revolutions in Latin America in the early 19th century were clearly inspired by those in the United States and France. Latin American revolutionary leader, Simon Bolivar, modeled his union of Gran Colombia on the United States experience. Worldwide, other revolutionaries took up the cries of natural rights and government by the consent of the governed. Such cries continue to be heard in modern times.

**THE FRENCH REVOLUTION**

The French Revolution was caused by a variety of economic, social, and political factors. Economically, the French government was virtually bankrupt. The early 18th century wars of Louis XIV and Louis XV were costly. The monarchs found it difficult to increase taxation. Within the *Estates*\(^2\) in France – the clergy and the nobility – were largely tax exempt. They refused to accept taxation without an increase in power. The *Third Estate*\(^3\) paid most of the taxes. With the exception of some of the bourgeoisie, the Third Estate was least able to pay. In addition, poor harvests plagued the nation in the latter half of the 18th century. The government was unable to provide much relief.

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\(^{1}\) Enlightenment (philosophical movement of the 17th-18th centuries that emphasized the use of reason to scrutinize previously accepted doctrines and traditions and that brought about many humanitarian reforms)

\(^{2}\) Estates (social class or rank, especially of high order: 1st estate — major social class, such as the nobility, the commons; 2nd estate — clergy, formerly possessing distinct political rights; 3rd estate — common people)

\(^{3}\) Third Estate (the common people – bourgeoisie, proletariat, and peasantry)
The social and political structures of France were rigid and blocked advancement to a better life. The first two Estates had special privileges. The First Estate, the Roman Catholic Church, controlled education. Top Church officials often held high government positions. The Second Estate, the nobility, also held high positions in the government and the military. They also had the right to wear certain expensive fabrics and be driven in larger carriages with more horses. Both these Estates were able to tax the common people of the Third Estate.

Politically, the clergy and nobility controlled and profited from their hold on the government administration and revenues. From the days of Louis XIV, the old regime (ancien régime) structure allowed the king to wield absolute power over a tight-knit social hierarchy. A generation later, King Louis XVI thought that he could restore control by exerting the old regime's style of absolute power. He was encouraged in this idea by his wife, Marie Antoinette. The royal couple failed to see the times had changed.

Prior to 1789, the Estates General (the French legislative body), had not met for 175 years. The imminent bankruptcy of the nation forced Louis XVI to call the Estates General into session. The ensuing election campaign further spread the ideas of the philosophes. Their ideas were popularized by the writing of Abbe Sieyes in What is the Third Estate? Many other pamphlets were published amid the turmoil of the era. In the spring of 1789, the Third Estate declared the right of the people to alter the government — Locke’s idea — and demanded the Estates General meet as a unified group. When

### EVENTS OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Event or Reform</th>
<th>Significance</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tennis Court Oath (1789)</td>
<td>Delegates to Estates General formed a National Assembly and pledged to meet until France had a constitution</td>
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<tr>
<td>Storming of the Bastille (1789)</td>
<td>Proletariat led an attack on the Bastille prison, a symbol of the Old Regime; found few weapons for defense of Paris, but did kill 6 and freed a few prisoners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abolition of special privileges (1789)</td>
<td>In a night session, nobles agreed to give up feudal dues, tax exemption, and hunting rights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen (1789)</td>
<td>Document reflecting ideas of philosophes: included rights of life, liberty, property, security, and resistance of oppression; taxation only by consent of people and equality of all before law</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil Constitution of the Clergy (1790)</td>
<td>Placed Church under government control; Church officials to be elected by all and paid by the State; caused a major split in support for the Revolution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reign of Terror (1793-1794)</td>
<td>Led by radicals such as Danton, Marat, and Robespierre, it resulted from concerns about traitors after war began; the Terror led to executions of Louis XVI, Marie Antoinette, and about 40,000 others on the guillotine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thermidorian Reaction (1794)</td>
<td>Reaction against excesses of Reign of Terror; led to formation of the Directory, a more conservative, but corrupt, oligarchy</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
the other two estates refused, the Third Estate declared itself a National Assembly. The Estates General disintegrated. This unleashed peasant uprisings and the French Revolution began.

The course of the French Revolution is very complicated. Control of the Revolution passed from the moderate bourgeoisie to the more radical proletariat only to return to a moderate stance in its later phases. The country moved from an absolute monarchy, to a constitutional monarchy, and finally to a republic before succumbing to Napoleon. However, all groups were involved in the key events and the reforms that determined the impact of the French Revolution on history.

Confiscation of the Church’s and the nobles’ property led many nobles to become émigrés. Nobles fled to various courts in other areas of Europe. They worked to encourage foreign countries to intervene on behalf of the Old Regime. After the attempted flight of Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette and their capture at Varennes (June 1791), Austria and Prussia threatened to act to protect the monarchy.

Despite France’s institution of levée en masse (drafting civilians into the military), the foreign armies were early victors. The loss of noble officers (many were émigrés) made possible the rise of young generals such as Napoleon Bonaparte (1769-1821) from Corsica. Napoleon’s victories in Italy led to command in Egypt. He won on land, but lost on the seas to British Admiral Nelson in the Battle of the Nile (1798). With resources strained, Napoleon pushed an exhausted army to continue military actions in the Middle East for a year. He returned to France in 1799 to seize power in a coup d’état from the corrupt Directory (oligarchy). The National Convention sent Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette to the guillotine on 21 January 1793.

Napoleon viewed himself as a “son of the revolution.” He believed himself to be a liberal reformer and spread many of the ideals of the Revolution to areas he conquered. However, oth-
ers saw him as the last of the enlightened despot. He had a considerable amount of power which he confirmed through plebiscites. The 1799-1804 Consulate was an oligarchy of three rulers that Bonaparte dominated by reducing the second and third consuls to insignificance. In 1802, he staged a plebiscite to make himself First-Consul-for-Life, and yet another plebiscite established him as emperor of the French Empire (1804-1814).

Autocratic as he seemed, Napoleon carried out a number of reforms for the benefit of the French people, many of which are still in effect in France today.

- **Napoleonic Code of Laws (1807)** – established equality before law, supremacy of male head of household, religious freedom, and business laws
- **Concordat of 1801** – agreed with Roman Catholic Church to recognize Catholicism as the religion of the majority, Church gave up right to tithes, Pope regained some control over Church officials
- **University of France (1802)** – established a national system of education in France
- **Legion of Honor (1802)** – established to honor those who served France, civilian or military

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1. émigré (one who has left a native country, especially for political reasons)
2. Old Regime (government dominated by an absolute ruler and privileged nobles and clergy)
3. plebiscites (allowing voters to express their will on an issue directly at the polls, instead of through elected representatives)
With the aid of the English, peasants turned to guerrilla warfare. The Spanish peasants launched a rebellion in 1808. They harassed large French armies of Joseph Bonaparte (who had been established as King of Spain by his brother) and made it impossible to consolidate French control.

After Tsar Alexander I of Russia withdrew his country from the Continental System, Napoleon undertook an invasion of Russia. In 1812, he assembled the Grand Army of about 600,000 soldiers from France and its allied countries. Expecting a quick victory, Napoleon sent in his army with only summer clothing and supply lines stretching across hostile countries back to France. The Russians successfully employed a "scorched earth tactic" (burning and destroying anything of use to the enemy). They withdrew into the interior, destroying everything behind them. When Napoleon reached Moscow in September, he found the city in flames. An early arrival of winter convinced Napoleon to withdraw. Only about 100,000 soldiers survived the Russian Campaign and the rigors of the retreat.

Napoleon's defeat in Russia re-energized his opposition. A coalition defeated him at the Battle of Nations (Leipzig, 1814). He was sent into exile to the island of Elba.

The victorious powers met at the Congress of Vienna (1814-1815) and attempted to reestablish a balance of power and restore pre-Napoleonic dynasties where possible. While the Congress was meeting, Napoleon escaped from Elba and made one more attempt to achieve victory. However, he was defeated by the allies under the leadership of the English Duke of Wellington at the Battle of Waterloo (near Brussels, Belgium, June 1815). Napoleon was sent to his final place of exile, the island of St. Helena in the South Atlantic where he died in 1821.

The era of the French Revolution and Napoleon had a profound effect on France and the other areas of the world. Democratic reforms and a republic as a form of government achieved new popularity. Although the democratic republic in the United States of America was already achieving success, France was an old European country and seemed to be a better model for countries seeking to change from monarchy.
Initially, Napoleon won numerous land battles against Austria, Prussia, and Russia and extended the French Empire. Many areas such as modern Belgium, the Netherlands, and parts of Italy were incorporated in the French Empire. Other areas were forced to ally themselves with France. However, Napoleon could not defeat Britain. When Admiral Nelson won the Battle of Trafalgar (off the southern coast of Spain, 1805) and destroyed most of the French navy, Napoleon could not invade Britain. In an attempt to destroy Britain's economy, Napoleon enacted the Continental System (1806), a broad boycott of British trade. This backfired when the British countered with the Orders in Council (1807), a naval blockade of the European coast which effectively cut off trade to the Continent. Disenchantment with the Continental System and its hardships were factors in revolutions against Napoleon which broke out in 1808 on the Iberian Peninsula (Spain and Portugal) and in Russia in 1812.

Admiral Nelson (left) defeats Napoleon's French navy at the Battle of Trafalgar off the southern coast of Spain in 1805.
France was unable to control Spain’s colonial empire in America because of English control of the seas. After Napoleon’s forces seized Lisbon, the Portuguese royal family fled to Brazil to escape capture. This move eventually led to the colony’s independence.

Revolutionaries, inspired by the successful movements in France and the United States launched campaigns for independence. The revolutionary movements in Latin America were typically led by Creoles (Criollos – Spanish subjects born in the American colonies) who were inspired with the ideas of the Enlightenment. Creole leaders such as Simon Bolivar (Colombia), Jose de San Martin (Argentina), and Bernardo O’Higgins (Chile) all had some military experience as well as direct contact with the United States or Europe.

However, Toussaint L’Overture, the leader of the Haitian revolution (1743-1803) was an exception. He was a former slave who had educated himself. In the 1790s, France was distracted by revolution. At the same time, Haitian sugar planters wanted independence but found themselves faced by a slave revolt. In the confusion, L’Overture was able to organize the slaves into a fighting force, and by 1800 the foreigners were ousted. L’Overture then tried to bring the various groups together and start a reform program. However, during a break in the European wars in 1802, Napoleon sent a French army to regain control of the valuable island.

L’Overture was captured and died in a French prison. However, the deaths of many French soldiers from yellow fever convinced Napoleon to abandon Haiti and his dream of re-establishing French power in America. The following year, he sold the sprawling Louisiana Territory to the United States. Haiti declared its independence in 1804, but squabbles among Haitian leaders limited progress for many years.

In 1807, while Spain was under Bonaparte’s rule, Simon Bolivar (1783-1830) began the fifteen years of the Latin American wars for independence against the royalists. His early attempts were unsuccessful and resulted in his...
flight to Jamaica and Haiti. However, he won a major victory over Spain at the Battle of Boyacá (Colombia) in 1819. By 1821, Jose de San Martin (1778-1850) had defeated royalist forces in Argentina, Chile, Ecuador, and Peru with the help of Bernardo O'Higgins (1778-1842).

Between 1824 and 1830, Bolivar attempted to unify an area encompassing modern Venezuela, Colombia, Ecuador, and Peru into Gran Colombia. Although he was hailed as the “Liberator” and the “George Washington” of South America, Bolivar was unable to overcome the regional differences and saw Gran Colombia split apart by the 1830s.

After Napoleon’s downfall, European monarchs showed interest in reconquering the newly independent states of Latin America. This led the United States to issue the Monroe Doctrine in 1823. This policy statement recognized the new countries, and announced U.S. opposition to colonization. Britain quietly backed the infant U.S. because of its growing commercial interests in Latin America. The pronouncement was enough to discourage European powers from launching any attempts to bring Latin America back under their control.

Mini Assessment

1. Which is an economic cause of the French Revolution?
   1. the Catholic Church’s control of education
   2. nobles’ exclusive right to wear certain fabrics
   3. existence of an hereditary succession to the throne
   4. tax exemptions for the nobility and clergy

2. Napoleon might be considered the last of the enlightened despots because he
   1. ordered the codification of French law
   2. restored the power of the French Catholic Church
   3. used a democratic plebiscite to establish himself as emperor
   4. transmitted French revolutionary ideas throughout Europe

3. Which included the ideas of John Locke?
   1. The First Estate
   2. The Orders in Council
   3. The Continental System
   4. The Declaration of Independence

Constructed Response:
Refer to the “Napoleonic Europe” map to answer the following:

1. Describe the extent to which Napoleon controlled the continent of Europe.

2. Why did Napoleon extend the Great French Empire to control so many coastal areas?
THE REACTION AGAINST REVOLUTIONARY IDEAS

BALANCE OF POWER POLITICS:
THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA

A balance of power among nations is a stable atmosphere in which no nation or group of nations is able to dominate others. From the time of the Renaissance and the rise of nation-states, European diplomats often sought it by forming alliances.

After the defeat of Napoleon, restoring the balance of power to what it was before the French Revolution became a primary goal of the great powers. In 1814-1815, representatives attended an international meeting convened to reconstruct Europe – the Congress of Vienna. The major countries sought a balance of power to prevent any resurgence of French power, to limit Russian influence on the Continent, and to choke off the ideas of the French Revolution.

The ideas of nationalism and democracy were spread throughout Europe by the Napoleonic armies. Nationalism is a strong feeling of unity among people who wish to control their own destiny. A nationalist might say, “My nation is as good as any other.” However, a chauvinist (an extreme nationalist) might say, “My nation is better than any other.” In order to stop further spread of revolutionary ideas, such as democracy and nationalism, most of the Congress’ participants favored restoring the pre-1789 rulers or their heirs under what they termed the principle of legitimacy.

Each of the major participants at the Congress had specific goals. The actions taken represented compromises by all involved, but Minister Talleyrand skillfully negotiated so that little harm was done to France. The key players at the Congress included:

- **Austria’s Prince Metternich** (1773-1859) – wanted to restore the pre-revolution system of government and rulers and limit Prussian power within the German States.
- **Russia’s Tsar Alexander I** (1777-1825) – wanted to gain control of Poland and establish a system of collective security.
- **England’s Lord Castlereagh** (1769-1822) – wanted to maintain British control of the seas and increase British colonial holdings.
- **France’s Foreign Minister Talleyrand** (1754-1838) – wanted to prevent French territorial loss and restore French prestige and position in Europe.

The Quadruple Alliance (1815) of Austria, Prussia, Russia, and England included a pledge to provide troops to preserve the Congress of Vienna settlements. England eventually dropped out, disturbed by some of the antidemocratic actions taken. France took England’s place in the alliance. The Holy Alliance (1815), proposed by Alexander I, was also signed by the major powers except for England. It pledged the monarchs to rule by the Christian principles of charity, peace, and justice. Faced with revolutions and challenges to their power, monarchs ignored their idealistic pledges. Since there was no way to enforce such an unrealistic proposal, the alliance never worked.

The Congress of Vienna settlement helped to prevent an outbreak of an all-European war for about 100 years. However, there were many revolutions within that time period. The Congress

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1. balance of power (distribution of power in which no single nation is able to dominate or interfere with others)
2. nationalism (belief that nations will benefit from acting independently rather than collectively, emphasizing nations rather than international goals; individual nationalism = feeling good about loyalty and patriotism)
3. chauvinist (militant devotion to and glorification of one’s country; nationalistic patriotism)

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**KEY ACTIONS OF CONGRESS OF VIENNA**

- Establishment of the “Rhine Barrier” – a group of strong nations along the eastern border of France – designed to prevent French Invasion of Central and Eastern Europe.
- Confirmation of British acquisition of areas such as Malta, Cape Colony, and Ceylon.
- Restoration of the monarchs in France (Louis XVIII) and Spain (Ferdinand VII).
- Acquisition of part of Poland by Alexander I and part of Saxony by Prussia.
- Imposition of minor territorial losses on France along with an indemnity (payment for war damages).
- Establishment of a German Confederation under Austrian control.
of Vienna settlement moved people from one
government to another without their consent.
For example, the Congress gave Belgium to the
Netherlands, but its people were given no voice
in the decision. Also, the Congress failed to unify
either the German or the Italian states despite
the wishes of many of the people. The
Quadruple Alliance was designed to prevent rev-
olution by stifling democracy and nationalism.
Initially, the Alliance stopped some revolutions.
However, the national self-interest of the major
powers sometimes promoted nationalism and
democracy, and some revolutions succeeded.

THE REVOLUTIONS OF 1848

In the 1820s, in 1830, and again in 1848,
revolutions broke out in Europe. Many of them
protested the Congress of Vienna settlement and
reflected the strength of nationalism and democ-
rary. Liberals demanded written constitutions,
government protection of citizen rights, and the
establishment of republics.

However, only in Greece, Belgium, and
Latin America did such revolutions succeed. In
1830, a major revolution broke out in France.
As a consequence, Charles X (successor to Louis
XVIII) was replaced by Louis Philippe, Duke of
Orleans. He was also known as the "Bourgeois
Monarch" because of his support of the middle
class.

In 1848, the French again revolted against
their government to establish a new one that
would protect the interests of all groups.
According to Metternich, "when France sneezes,
all Europe catches cold" — and once again the
spirit of revolution spread throughout the conti-
nent (see chart below).

Reactionary governments were able to re-
establish their power after the revolutions.
However, in many cases they began a series of
economic reforms, fought corruption, and ended
serfdom to justify their power. Still, little was
done to improve individual freedoms or provide
unity for national groups.

RUSSIAN ABSOLUTISM:
REFORMS AND EXPANSION

During the Napoleonic Wars, French revolu-
tionary ideas spread to Russian troops through
their contact with the people of other nations.
One result was the Decembrist Revolution
(1825) — the first Russian revolution for democ-

There was a dispute over inheritance of the
throne after the death of Tsar Alexander I.
Inspired by democratic ideals, some military
officers demanded the throne for Alexander's
older brother with the cry of "Constantine and
Constitution." However, the succession was
already decided in favor of the reactionary
Nicholas I (1825-1855), a younger brother.

Nicholas established a government which
stressed "orthodoxy, autocracy, and national-
ism." This translated into domination by the
Russian Orthodox Church, the Tsar, and the
Great Russians — the dominant nationality
group in Russia. Nicholas harshly suppressed
his opposition. In fact, his conservative rule

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<tr>
<th>Country &amp; Revolutionaries</th>
<th>Causes</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>France workers and lower bourgeoisie</td>
<td>corruption, limited representation in legislature, government attempts to suppress opposition</td>
<td>Louis Philippe abdicated; republic formed with universal male suffrage; Louis Napoleon Bonaparte elected president</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria national groups (Poles, Magyars, Italians)</td>
<td>desire for independence and/or self government</td>
<td>Metternich fled; nationalism suppressed by using one group against another</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany Liberals</td>
<td>civil rights; desire for unity among the 39 German states</td>
<td>Frankfurt Assembly failed to resolve promptly the question of Austrian inclusion; conservatives regained control; many German liberals fled to the U.S.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
resisted the outbreak of revolutions that swept Europe in 1848. He even aided in suppressing some in other countries.

While most serfs in Europe received their freedom after the 1848 revolutions, most Russian serfs remained the property of nobles or the government. In the 1770s, during Catherine the Great's reign, a serf rebellion led to a tightening of restrictions on serfs and placed more power in the hands of the land owners.

However, the devastating loss of the Crimean War (1854-1856) led Russia to a re-examination of serfdom. The government of Alexander II (1855-1881) accepted the idea that serfs made poor soldiers and moved to free them. The Emancipation Edict (1861) legally freed the peasants and made loans available for them to purchase about 50 per cent of the nobles' land. However, a noble could decide which land to sell and ownership was given to the mir (community or village), not the individual peasant.

The settlement of Siberia began during the early years of Romanov rule (17th century). Often, the first settlements east of the Urals were established by escaped serfs. Later, adventurers, traders, and trappers moved farther into the interior. Most settlements were along waterways, but Cossacks reached the Pacific Ocean in 1639. Eventually, Russian adventurers crossed the Bering Straits, entered Alaska, and moved down the coast of North America. Others penetrated the Amur River Valley where they encountered resistance from the Chinese. The harsh climate made it difficult to obtain permanent settlers.
Eventually, the tsarist government used Siberia for internal political exile. This was the fate of those found guilty in the 1825 Decembrist uprising. People found guilty of opposing the government were sentenced to work on government farms or projects in Siberia. The real opening of the area came with the construction of the Trans-Siberian Railroad which began in 1891. The government wanted to utilize the forests, fur-bearing animals, and mineral wealth of the area. The government offered settlement incentives and higher wages, but large areas remained uninhabited.

LATIN AMERICA:
THE FAILURE OF DEMOCRACY
AND THE SEARCH FOR STABILITY

Geography is a major reason South America failed to unite after the revolutions led by Simon Bolívar (1808-1824). The Andes Mountains separated people and made communication difficult.

The Atacama Desert in Chile and the rain forest of the Amazon River further complicated this problem. Difficult terrain made drawing boundaries a problem. The result has been continuing bitter border disputes.

Geography also contributed to differing economic interests among the people. Some influential criollos had sugar plantations; others were involved in mining, cattle ranching, or commerce. The different sources of wealth led to disagreement on government policies and an inability to unite.

Class differences, dating from the colonial period, also contributed to disunity. By the 19th century, Peninsulares, the Spanish-born elite, were disappearing. However, important class differences remained.

CRIOLLOS
Spanish born in America, wealthy and educated, had top positions

MESTIZOS
mixed Native American and European, lower middle class, merchants, managers, farmers

NATIVE AMERICANS
worked for others on haciendas, in mines

FREED BLACKS
laborers, some in skilled trades

SLAVES
property of owners, had some rights, could purchase freedom

CLASSES IN LATIN AMERICA
IN THE EARLY 19TH CENTURY
In addition to problems of geography and class differences, Latin Americans had little governmental experience. This was a factor in the emergence of oligarchies controlled by the educated landholding elite, the Roman Catholic Church, and the military. Often, the leadership was drawn from the same families. This triangular leadership pattern reflected conservative policies. To retain power, these leaders placed limits on freedoms and ignored needed land reform. Power struggles within such ruling groups usually led to the emergence of a caudillo (strong man). With the aid of the military, directly or indirectly, caudillos dominated their countries over long periods of time.

Economic policies highlighted class differences. Spanish colonial mercantilism was followed by similar policies after independence. Areas became dependent on raw materials for export in the global market. Often an area would be dependent on one crop or product such as coffee, sugar, wheat, or beef. Working for plantation owners left peasants with little time or land to produce necessary subsistence crops.

One crop economies are fragile. A changeable climate or a change in world market conditions often led to economic disaster. Also, raw materials bring in less income than manufacturing finished products. This led to an ongoing trade deficit. These economic conditions increased demands for reform.

Nineteenth century Mexico also saw periods of foreign interference. In the 1830s caudillo General Santa Anna (1795-1876), became angry when the United States supported the Texans' drive for independence against him. The battle for Texas is capsuled in the 13 day siege of a Spanish mission, The Alamo, by Santa Anna's army of more than 5,000. After 12 days of continual cannonades, The Alamo fell and all 185-190 defenders were killed. Ultimately, Santa Anna was defeated by General Sam Houston and forced to acknowledge the independence of Texas (1836). Later, Santa Anna was removed from power by Mexican opponents after losing almost half of Mexico's territory to the United States in the Mexican War (1846-1848). This led to a nationalistic reaction in Mexico, resentment against the United States, and another struggle between liberals and conservatives.

In 1861, Benito Juarez (1806-1872), a liberal, and the first Indian to be elected President of Mexico took office. Shortly afterward, Emperor Napoleon III of France intervened in Mexico because of unpaid debts. He tried to take over the country by placing Austrian Archduke Maximilian on the Mexican throne. The scheme failed when Napoleon III withdrew French forces reacting to American threats at the end of its Civil War. Juarez was reelected in 1867 and tried to implement a reform program to decrease the power of the Roman Catholic Church and the landlords. He was successful in separating Church and state, but was not able to carry out all of his reforms.

After an interlude of representative government, a revolt broke out in 1876. Another caudillo, Porfirio Diaz (1830-1915), was in power for most of the 1877-1910 period. He strengthened the central government and carried out some economic reforms. However, Native Americans saw their lands seized and sold. Many
were forced to become peons (laborers heavily in debt to landowners). Diaz was forced to resign in 1911. A liberal government was elected, but revolution soon broke out. A number of leaders with different agendas emerged during the revolution:

- **Pancho Villa (1877-1923)** — a colorful figure with a strong peasant following whom the U.S. refused to support because of alleged brutalities; retaliated against the U.S. by stopping trains and shooting Americans

- **Emiliano Zapata (1880-1918)** — a Native American with understanding of peasants’ problems; supported freeing peons from debts and giving them land

- **Venustiano Carranza (1859-1920)** — a liberal who wanted a new constitution with government control over education, farms, and oil reserves; seizure of Church land; and limits on foreign ownership of land

Carranza was elected president in 1917. He created a new constitution before he was killed in a revolt in 1920. Implementation was delayed, but government stability increased and some reforms were carried out.

In 1929, the Institutional Revolutionary Party (PRI) was formed. Its one-party approach limited opposition for many years, but it did support some social reform and diminished foreign involvement in the economy. Rising opposition, a number of scandals, assassinations, and economic problems plagued the PRI with instability into the late 20th century.

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**Mini Assessment**

In launching the Mexican Revolution in 1810, Father Manuel Hidalgo differed from other South American revolutionary leaders because he

1. lacked military experience
2. had no sympathy for Native Americans
3. opposed land reform
4. sided with the Church, the Criollos, and the military

2. The Russian Emancipation Edict of 1861 provided the serfs with
1. private ownership of land
2. loans to help purchase land from nobles
3. freedom from military service
4. education and training in agricultural technology

3. The actions of the Congress of Vienna could be described as
1. victories for the concepts of nationalism and democracy
2. eliminating the causes of European Revolutions during the 19th century
3. successful in avoiding major European wars for about 100 years
4. making few changes in the boundaries of European countries

**Constructed Response:**

Using the map on page 154 as your information source, answer both of the following:

1. List three sources of 19th century wealth in Latin America.

2. Why did the natural environment make Latin American unity difficult?
After Austria’s defeat in the Austro-Prussian War (1866), Prussia gained leadership of the German states. Prussia established a union of the German states called the North German Confederation. Also as a result of the Austro-Prussian War, Sardinia-Piedmont gained control of key Italian territories (Venetia and Lombardy). This led other Austrian dominated states in northern Italy to conduct plebiscites\(^1\) and vote to join Sardinia-Piedmont.

When Prussia won the Franco-Prussian War (1870-1871), France was occupied by German troops. As part of the settlement, France turned over Alsace-Lorraine and was forced to pay a large indemnity\(^2\) to Prussia. In the same war, Italy gained control of most of the Papal States when the French withdrew their protective forces to fight Prussia. The war contributed greatly to the unification of both Germany and Italy.

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1. plebiscite (vote in which a population exercises the right of national self-determination)
2. indemnity (financial compensation for damage)
GLOBAL NATIONALISM

NATIONALISM'S ROLE IN POLITICAL REVOLUTIONS

Nationalism is an unusual force, because it acts in a variety of ways. It can work to bring people together as it did in the case of the Italian and German States. However, it can also work to pull apart existing countries. After World War I (1914-1918), national groups within Austria-Hungary revolted and the empire disintegrated into a number of small nation-states such as Poland, Hungary, and Czechoslovakia. In recent times, the world witnessed the breakup of Yugoslavia and Czechoslovakia, and nationalism continually threatens the unity of Canada and the Balkan countries. Also, it was certainly a factor in the breakup of the Soviet Union.

A number of different factors contribute to the development of national feeling - common goals, purpose, language, religion, history, government, culture, and tradition. Not all these factors need to be present for nationalism to exist. For example, there is nationalism in the United States, but there is no religious unity.

NATIONALISM'S ROLE IN THE UNIFICATION OF ITALY AND GERMANY

During the 19th century, Germany and Italy were unified as nation-states after struggles that date back to the late Middle Ages. The Italian Peninsula was the site of frequent wars among countries such as Austria, France, and Spain. Each wanted to prevent the others from controlling the area's wealth. The issue was further complicated by the Papal States. They stretched across the center of the Peninsula.

To unify Italy, territory had to be taken from the Papacy. However, during the reign of Napoleon I of France, a number of Italian states became part of his Kingdom of Italy and experienced a sense of unity. The Congress of Vienna ignored the desire of the Italians for their own nation and restored the Papal States and Austrian control over much of the area.

The early history of the German States is similar. The Holy Roman Empire, a loose union of German states under Austrian control, dominated the area for centuries. Napoleon abolished some of the German States and placed the others under his control in the Confederation of the Rhine.

In 1815, the Congress of Vienna reduced the number of German states and established a German Confederation under Austrian control. This arrangement ignored the Germans' desires for a national state. Both Italy and Germany were fortunate to have nationalist leaders emerge who performed similar functions (see charts on the following page).
The wars that surrounded German unification had important consequences for the balance of power in Europe. For example, the Franco-Prussian War demonstrated the weakness of France. It raised other powers’ concern about possible German control of Europe. German Chancellor Bismarck realized that nationalism might drive France to seek revenge. To guard against this, he created alliances which played a significant role in the outbreak of World War I.

**NATIONALISM’S ROLE IN INDIA, PALESTINE, AND TURKEY**

Nationalism became a factor in political life beyond Europe. In the late 19th century, it played a key role in opposition to foreign control and intervention. Indian nationalism arose out of opposition to British imperialism. Vietnamese nationalism opposed French imperialism. Turkish nationalism arose out of opposition to European intervention.

In general, nationalism in the developing areas involved fewer common elements than it did in the Western World. Consequently, when foreign control or intervention eventually ended, different language, religious, and tribal groups often fought each other and tore new nations apart.

In the early 19th century, Britain made several decisions that influenced Indian nationalism. At the urging of Thomas Babington Macaulay (1800-1859), a prominent British historian, Britain instructed Indians in English. Educated Indians were admitted to the civil service and the Governor's Council. Also, many wealthy Indians traveled to Britain for their higher education. There, they learned of basic individual rights in parliamentary democracies. When the students returned home, they demanded an increased role in the government.

To maintain control, the British played the Hindus against the Muslims (“divide and control”). This led to the formation of the Hindu Indian National Congress in 1885 and the All-India Moslem League in 1906. These organ-

1 Zionism (organized movement of world Jewry that arose in Europe in the late 19th century with the aim of establishing a Jewish state in Palestine)
2 pogrom (organized, often officially encouraged massacre or persecution of a minority group, especially one conducted against Jews)
3 capitulations (terms of surrender giving special privileges to the conqueror)

In the Middle East, nationalism played a role in drawing together diverse people seeking a homeland. The Zionist Movement’s goal was to secure a Jewish homeland in Palestine. It sought to create a nation where Jews from all over the world could seek refuge and find a national identity. In 1897, Theodor Herzl (1860-1904) organized the first Zionist Congress in Basel, Switzerland. It led to the founding of the World Zionist Organization.

The roots of Zionism go back to the 6th century BC Diaspora — the dispersion of the Hebrews after their captivity in Babylon. Hebrew prophets such as Jeremiah said that they would return to Jerusalem, and many believed that this was their destiny.

Modern Zionism developed out of a reaction against the anti-semitism that existed in Europe. The pogroms against Jews in Russia and other countries led many of them to migrate to the West. A small number also went to Palestine. As a consequence, the dispersion of Jews became even more widespread. (Jews had been scattered into many areas of the world since the Roman Sack of Palestine in 70 AD.) However, the Zionist dream of a resurrected homeland remained strong.

Turkish nationalism developed in part as opposition to foreign intervention. The location of the Ottoman Empire on both sides of the straits of the Dardanelles and Bosporus put it in conflict with the interests of Russia, Austria-Hungary, Britain, and France.

The Ottomans suffered further humiliation due to capitulations that foreign powers forced on them. The loss of parts of their North African and Middle Eastern Empire to European imperialists deepened their resentment. After the Crimean War (1854-1856), the Ottoman Empire failed to modernize and to separate church and state. The government of Abdul Hamid (1876-1909) established absolute power and forced exile on reformers such as the Young Turks.
The Ottoman government's attempts to control its Balkan peninsula territory led to massacres in Bulgaria (1876) and in Armenia (1894). An 1870s revolt by the Ottoman's Slavic subjects provided Russia with an excuse for the Russo-Turkish War (1877-1878). The resulting Congress of Berlin led to a further dismemberment of the Ottoman Empire. The Young Turks gained power in 1908 and began a series of reforms.

**INTERNAL REFORMS OF THE YOUNG TURKS**

- A separation of church and state
- Adoption of Western dress
- More freedom for women
- Adoption of Western-style law codes

World War I interfered with implementation of the Young Turks' reforms. Not until after the Turkish republic was proclaimed in 1923, under the leadership of Kemal Atatürk (1923-1938), did the revolutionary changes take effect.

European involvement in the Ottoman Empire triggered nationalism in the Balkans – a key cause of World War I. Three large, multinational empires – the Austria-Hungarian, Ottoman, and Russian – also had interests in the peninsula. Each empire was weakening and became concerned about holding its territory and areas of interest. Each wanted to expand while preventing the others from seizing land.

Some parts of the Balkans received independence as a result of the Crimean and Russo-Turkish Wars. Still, the relationships remained complex. For example, while Bosnia-Herzegovina was technically owned by the Ottomans, it was governed by the Austrians.

At the same time, the Slavic inhabitants looked to Russia for leadership. The people of the area resented foreign control and wanted self-government. These factors created tensions that resulted in the area being called the "powder keg" or the "tinderbox." It was no surprise that World War I originated in the Balkans.
Mini Assessment

Which of the following headlines reflects strong feelings of nationalism?

1. Germans Win Glorious Victory Over French
2. U.N. Peacekeepers Successful in Congo
3. Irish "Troubles" End in Accord
4. Arabs and Israelis Sign Truce

2. The Ottoman Empire (modern Turkey) has long been an area of interest to international powers because it
   1. has vast oil reserves
   2. commands the approach to the Suez Canal
   3. contains archaeological sites relevant to the first humans
   4. controls the Straits of the Dardanelles and Bosporus

3. Immediately after gaining independence, violence often occurs in an area as ethnic or religious groups struggle for control. A country whose history illustrates this idea is
   1. Turkey
   2. Germany
   3. India
   4. Italy

Constructed Response:

Use the diagram below to answer the following:

1. What non-war factors provided a basis for German nationalism?

2. Why do wars often lead to an increase in nationalism in countries involved in them?

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ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL REVOLUTIONS

AGRARIAN REVOLUTION – BRITAIN AND FRANCE

Revolutions involve major change, but they are not always political nor are they necessarily violent. This was true of the Agricultural and Industrial Revolutions of the 18th and 19th centuries. For agricultural changes to occur, it was necessary to move from the Medieval three-field system and strip farming to a situation where larger plots could be farmed to accommodate new methods and feed a growing population.

In the 16th century, world-wide demand for woolen textiles increased. The domestic system blossomed. In England, the wool market developed as England built up its navy, expanded its influence, and acquired colonies. Throughout Europe, demand prompted landlords to fence their open lands into enclosed pastures for sheep. The English Parliament passed a series of Enclosure Acts (16th-19th centuries). These acts allowed rich landlords to pay for surveys that forced small farmers off lands they had farmed since Medieval times. As time passed, these displaced agricultural workers migrated to towns and became factory and mine workers.

At the same time, the Agrarian Revolution was accelerating. New methods of production allowed cultivation of larger areas. Larger farms increased per capita production. Also, members of the nobility involved themselves in production and commerce, because it did not lead to loss of
status. For example, one of the most prominent of the British agricultural innovators was Secretary of State Viscount Charles Townshend (1674-1738).

The Agricultural Revolution progressed less rapidly on the European Continent. France is an example. Key elements of the Medieval system were still present at the time of the French Revolution (1789). Serfdom was abolished by revolutionary action, but the Napoleonic Code of Laws provided for equality of inheritance for all heirs. France became a country of small farms, less suited to the changes found in large-scale agricultural production methods.

The changes in methods and the new inventions tremendously increased agricultural output in Britain. The efforts of three men were particularly significant in the early stages of the Agricultural Revolution - Jethro Tull, Charles Townshend, and Robert Bakewell (see chart).

During the 18th century, such innovators' work resulted in grain yields that increased from 6 to 20 bushels per acre and doubled the weight of mature cattle.

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

The Industrial Revolution began in Britain about 1750. There are a number of reasons why Britain was the first country to experience this change. These included their:

- Domestic system
- Access to seas and good harbors
- Availability of labor
- Coal and iron resources
- Capital availability and willingness to risk it
- Supportive government policies
- Patent system

As expected, the first industry to be affected was textiles. Earlier, this industry had been

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### TECHNOLOGICAL MILESTONES OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inventor</th>
<th>Invention</th>
<th>Effect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>TEXTILES</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John Kay (1704-1764)</td>
<td>Flying Shuttle</td>
<td>Doubled speed of weavers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>James Hargreaves (1730-1778)</td>
<td>Spinning Jenny</td>
<td>Could spin 8-20 threads at once</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Richard Arkwright (1732-1792)</td>
<td>Water Frame</td>
<td>Used water power; factories developed; could spin 48-300 threads at once</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Samuel Crompton (1753-1827)</td>
<td>Spinning Mule</td>
<td>Combined jenny and water frame; could spin fine thread</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edmund Cartwright (1748-1823)</td>
<td>Power Loom</td>
<td>1st application of power to weaving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TRANSPORTATION</strong></td>
<td>Steam Engine</td>
<td>New source of power allowed many applications and the location of factories in many different places</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>James Watt (1736-1819)</td>
<td>Steam Locomotive</td>
<td>Faster land transportation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>George Stephenson (1781-1848)</td>
<td>Hard Surfaced Roads</td>
<td>Faster land transportation in all kinds of weather</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
part of the domestic system. Inability to meet the demand for wool cloth led men involved in production to invent new ways to increase output. The factory system is an advanced method of industrial organization. Through discipline and supervision, a large number of laborers work in a centralized place and process materials through coordinated steps into manufactured goods.

Domestic transportation underwent a similar change. The need to move large quantities of goods around England made it necessary to improve roads and develop new methods of transportation.

Continental Europe was a little slower than Britain to embrace the changes. Many countries were distracted by domestic problems, new political systems, revolutions, and wars in the early part of the 19th century. After 1870, the Industrial Revolution spread quickly. The Low Countries were already industrializing, and France and a newly unified Germany moved forward rapidly.

An abundance of coal and iron resources were a major factor in Germany's industrial growth. By 1900, Germany was producing more steel than Britain. By 1914, Britain, France, and Germany produced over 80% of Europe's coal, steel, and machinery. Germany also developed a substantial chemical industry prior to World War I. Two German inventors, Gottlieb Daimler (1834-1900) and Rudolf Diesel (1858-1913), played major roles in the development of automobile engines.

The tremendous jumps in production led to increased demand for raw materials to feed the machines. Demand for markets in which to sell surplus products also arose. These demands were primary causes of the new era of imperialism which began about 1870 (see next section).

Despite adverse conditions in the mines and factories, people eventually improved the quality of their lives. The Industrial Revolution led to an increase in size and importance of the middle class. The new entrepreneurial system was open to men of talent.

THE FACTORY SYSTEM

The factory system brought many changes to the lifestyles of the people. Very rapidly, people moved from the rural green countryside to urban areas. They found themselves in the slums of areas such as Manchester, England. The cities were unprepared for rapid industrial growth. Unpaved streets, polluted rivers and streams, and crowded housing were common problems. Men, women, and children worked long hours under often dangerous conditions. It was not unusual for children 5 to 6 years old to work 14 to 16 hours per day. Factory owners took few voluntary safety precautions, and serious injuries occurred. Often, a parent could not obtain a job unless he/she had a child who could also work in the factory. There were no social welfare laws to protect children. Small hands, lower pay, and fewer discipline problems made child labor desirable for the factory owner. Women and children also worked beside men in mines. The dangers of explosions, black lung disease, and back injuries made the mines dangerous places.

Factory managers, merchants, and shopkeepers shared in the increased prosperity. British inventor Sir Richard Arkwright (1732-1792) was originally a barber who made a fortune with his water frame.

Non-Anglican Protestant dissenters, denied university educations and jobs in the government or military turned to manufacturing. Wealth joined birth as a criteria for status.

---

1 domestic system (work was done in the home or in small workshops)
2 factory system (coordinates a large number of laborers and power-driven machines in a centralized place)
3 entrepreneurial system (individuals organize, operate, and assume the risk for business ventures)
### CONFLICTING ECONOMIC PHILOSOPHIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mercantilism</th>
<th>Laissez-faire</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Government should control the economy</td>
<td>• Government should minimize its involvement in the economy (&quot;keep its hands off&quot;)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Colonial economies should be controlled to benefit the mother country</td>
<td>• Attempts to control colonial economies violate natural rights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Wealth is accumulation of gold and silver</td>
<td>• Wealth is productive resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Low wages and long hours are necessary to meet competition</td>
<td>• Higher wages and shorter hours lead to increased demand for goods</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

During the 19th century, many nations abandoned the tightly controlled protective trade policies of mercantilism and supported Adam Smith’s doctrine of *laissez-faire*. In 1776, Smith published his views in *The Wealth of Nations*. However, it was not until the mid-19th century that the British government came to accept his ideas. Smith’s followers also formed a free trade movement to allow goods to flow more freely across national boundaries. When the British dropped major trade restrictions in 1846, France quickly did the same. However, the Depression of 1873 demonstrated how vulnerable markets were in the new global economy. At that point, many countries restored tariffs and government regulation of industry.

While many people supported laissez-faire capitalism, others blamed it for the abuses found in the factories and mines. Smith’s opponents felt that the long hours, low wages, along with poor working and living conditions were a result of a failure of society and the government. As a consequence, a number of ideologies emerged that offered solutions to the problems (see chart).

Beyond the mainstream ideologies, another group of reformers called themselves *utopian socialists*. Utopias are ideal societies in which the state functions for the good and happiness of all. *Count de Saint Simon* (Claude Henri de Rouvroy, 1760-1825) favored planned societies with public ownership of the means of production. *Charles Fourier* (1772-1837) favored ideal communities where all shared in the work and received the benefits of joint labor according to need.

The most famous utopian socialist was *Robert Owen* (1771-1858) of Britain. He became manager of a cotton mill at age nineteen. With the help of investors, he later purchased the entire town of New Lanark, Scotland. He provided decent housing, basic education, and an inexpensive company store for the workers. He also forbade work for the youngest children, decreased working hours for all, and increased wages, but still made a profit. Many famous people came to see his experiment, but few followed the example. Later, he founded a community at New Harmony, Indiana in the United States where people worked together for their joint improvement. The New Harmony experiment failed, and Owen returned to England and worked with consumer cooper-

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### POLITICAL IDEOLOGIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ideology</th>
<th>Ideas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Liberalism</td>
<td>supports parliamentary / representative government; for laissez-faire; against universal male suffrage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conservatism</td>
<td>favors absolute monarchy, aristocracy, church; supports government control of economy; slow change, if at all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socialism</td>
<td>favors parliamentary government, universal male suffrage; against laissez-faire and competition in market place; wants more even distribution of wealth</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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1. *laissez-faire* (opposes governmental regulation or interference in commerce beyond the minimum)
2. *utopian* (ideally perfect place, especially in its social, political, and moral aspects) socialists (members of a system in which the means of producing and distributing goods are owned collectively)
## MARX'S IDEAS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ideas</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
<th>Weaknesses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Economic</td>
<td>Economic factors determine the course of history and those who control the means of production will control the society.</td>
<td>Does not account for other major causes of historical events (Crusades, religious wars, and nationalist wars).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpretation of</td>
<td>Throughout history, there have been struggles between the “have”s and “have-not”s.” In the Industrial Era, Marx claimed the struggles were between capitalists and proletariat.</td>
<td>Does not consider the cooperation between the proletariat and capitalists to increase production or profit-sharing arrangements.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td>&quot;Price of product minus cost of labor equals surplus value.&quot;—here, Marx says the surplus value goes to the capitalists, but should go to the workers who produce the product.</td>
<td>Does not consider the need to provide a return for the capitalist who risks his resources and provides managerial services.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class Struggle</td>
<td>Over the long period of time, overproduction will result in bankruptcies, and depressions will occur. Conditions will get so bad that the proletariat will revolt and establish a dictatorship of the proletariat.</td>
<td>This has not come true. Communism has not gained control in countries already significantly industrialized. Its greatest inroads have come in agrarian economies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surplus Value</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theory</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inevitability of</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socialism</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Very different ideas about solving the problems of the Industrial Revolution came from Karl Marx (1818-1883) and Friedrich Engels (1820-1895). In 1848, they joined together to produce the *Communist Manifesto*, a pamphlet intended for workers. Later, Marx wrote a multi-volume work, *Das Kapital* (1st vol. published in 1867), which further explained his ideas. In it, he used past history and the existing problems of the Industrial Revolution as the basis for predicting the future (see chart above).

Marx rejected utopian ideas and considered himself to be a “scientific socialist.” He claimed that his ideas were based on fact and that history inevitably led to their fulfillment. He felt they were based on the hope that world economic justice would increase and that the upper class would become sympathetic to the lower class. Marx also believed that a detailed description of his communist society would make it appear to be utopian. Therefore, he left little description of his society or how long it would take to achieve. He did state, however, that the government would own the means of production with a “dictatorship of the proletariat” (workers). Marx believed that only after class differences disappeared could the government “wither away.”

While Marx’s ideas seemed extreme, they did receive support from some of the proletariat. Ironically, his writings may have helped to prevent the proletarian revolution he expected. In some of his later essays and letters, Marx admitted that democratic countries, such as Britain and the U.S., might be able to bring about change peacefully.

To address some of the problems of the Industrial Revolution, Britain’s Parliament established two commissions. In 1832, the Sadler Report led to debates on factory conditions that resulted in the *Factory Act* (1833). It prohibited the labor of children under nine in textile factories. The Ashley Report (1842) triggered debates on mining and led to the *Mines Act*. It prohibited the underground labor of women and children under ten. Later, the *Ten Hours Act* (1847) limited the work day for women and children to ten hours.

Concern about revolution did lead some governments to modify their laissez-faire stance in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. In Europe and America, governments instituted reforms to improve conditions for the workers:

- Labor unions were legalized
- Restrictions were placed on big business
- Governments tried to limit the drastic “boom and bust” swings of the business cycle.

The Industrial Era triggered political reforms, too. The increasing demand by the middle class for a voice in the government was a major factor...
While Malthus had persuasive evidence to make this dire forecast, the situation did not occur. The population did increase in the 19th century, but it was not because of a rise in birth rates. Average family size shrank in most countries in the 19th and 20th centuries. Most of the population increase resulted from declining death rates brought about by better nutrition and medical care. Life expectancy showed a considerable rise. In England, it was about 40 years in the 1840s. By 1933, life expectancy had increased to 59 years and to 76 years-old by 1993.

With the restriction of child labor and the establishment of compulsory education, each child cost parents an increasing amount to support. Combined with an increased agricultural output per capita, smaller families made it possible for Western nations to feed their populations under normal circumstances.

A major crisis developed in Ireland in the 19th century when a potato blight seriously damaged the crop that was the mainstay of the Irish diet. The result was a famine called "The Great Hunger" (also called the "Potato Famine") which began in the 1840s. Despite the famine, absentee British landlords demanded their rents and continued to export other agricultural crops. The British government was slow to enact legislation to relieve the situation.

---

1. rotten boroughs (places with little or no population, but represented in Parliament)
Eventually, the Corn Laws\(^1\) were repealed in 1846, and food was imported to ease the situation. However, more than 750,000 Irish died from starvation and famine-related diseases and hundreds of thousands more left Ireland, many emigrating to the United States.

Immigration soared during the Industrial Revolution. Besides the United States, other popular destinations were Latin America, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa. Between 1846 and 1932 in excess of 58 million people left Europe. Many countries welcomed immigrants because of their labor needs. With the end of serfdom in the 18th and 19th centuries, people were legally free to move. They saw potential for advancement elsewhere. In addition, many liberals wished to leave the Continent for political reasons after the Revolutions of 1848; others left to escape compulsory military service.

**JAPAN AND THE MEIJI RESTORATION**

Beginning in 1860, no Japanese could leave and no foreigners, except for a few Dutch and Chinese, could enter Japan. Concerns about the spread of Christianity and foreign involvement in internal politics led the Tokugawa Shogun to close their borders. However, a few Western

---

\(^1\) Corn Laws, [limited imports when domestic prices were below a fixed level]

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**Mini Assessment**

1. Governmental interference in economic affairs should be minimal.
   - Trade should flow unencumbered across national boundaries.
   - Wealth is the productive resources available to a nation.

Of which economic philosophy are these statements characteristic?
1. mercantilism 2. utopian socialism 3. laissez-faire 4. scientific socialism

2. What did Karl Marx, Robert Owen, and Charles Fourier have in common?
   1. opposition to economic change
   2. proposals to solve some of the evils of the Industrial Revolution
   3. support for laissez-faire economics
   4. belief that individual effort was the key to success

3. “With respect to the age at which children are worked in mines and collieries in South Staffordshire, it is common to begin at seven years old. ... Black-damp very much abounds – the ventilation in general is exceedingly imperfect. ... Hence fatal explosions frequently take place. ... People have to work all day over their shoes in water. ... The regular hours of a full day’s labour are 14 and occasionally 16.”

   - Hansard’s Parliamentary Debates, Vol. 63, 1842

This quotation describes conditions which led to
1. the ideas of Adam Smith
2. adoption of mercantilist ideas
3. Great Reform Bill of 1832
4. Mines Act of 1842

**Constructed Response:**

The conditions or events listed below were apparent or occurred in England between the 17th and 20th centuries. In the space provided, place each condition or event in the correct category to complete the outline.

- The Agricultural Revolution
- Good harbors and access to the seas
- Extension of the right to vote
- The Industrial Revolution in England
- Increase in child labor abuses
- “New” Imperialism (1870)
- Availability of coal and iron

**Title:**

**Causes:**

**Results:**
ideas penetrated the closed society. Desire for Western medicine and technology increased, especially among the emerging merchant class.

In 1853, Commodore Matthew Perry of the U.S. Navy disrupted two centuries of virtual isolation when his steam frigates entered Tokyo harbor. The United States was concerned about the fate of sailors shipwrecked on Japanese shores and was also anxious to obtain refueling rights for the steamships that crossed the Pacific. Through his show of Western technology, military force, and diplomatic skill, Perry reopened Japan to the outside world – the “Open Door Policy.”

By the Treaty of Kanagawa (1854), two ports were opened to American ships. Later, diplomats won additional rights such as extraterritoriality. These treaties created a sense of humiliation among the Japanese who were determined to develop sufficiently to meet the Western challenge. In 1867, the last shogun was forced to abdicate and accept blame for the unpopular treaties and being unable to protect Japan from the West.

The new Japanese government restored power to the emperor. A new emperor, Mutsuhito, inherited the throne in 1868 and took the name Meiji for his reign. The Diet (national legislature) had strictly limited powers. The civil service, however, was modeled on Western lines with different departments for the basic functions of government.

Once Japan made the decision to modernize its society, samurai were sent abroad to study the industrial, military, and financial institutions in the West. Based on their reports, the new Japanese government modeled its army on Prussia’s and its navy on Britain’s. The government also established a postal system and a national system of education. The government actively supported Shintoism, because it backed national sentiment and emperor worship.

The Japanese created a mixed system of free enterprise with intense government involvement. By studying foreign countries, the Japanese modernized their industrial and financial systems rapidly. In part because the Japanese used foreign models, they avoided problems such as child labor and horrible working conditions that others had encountered. Foreign trade, almost non-existent at the time of the Meiji Restoration, rose to about $200 million annually by 1900. The government provided financial support to begin industries, and many zaibatsu quickly emerged. They received government support for their raw material and market needs.

The need for industrial resources played a strong role in Japan’s actions toward other nations. Economic needs triggered the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese War (1894-1895) and the Russo-Japanese War (1904-1905). The Russo-Japanese War is worthy of special note. When the Japanese destroyed the Russian Navy, it marked the first defeat of a European nation by an Asian one. The Treaty of Portsmouth (1905), negotiated with the help of U.S. President Theodore Roosevelt, gave Japan ports on the mainland of China control of Manchuria, a protectorate in Korea, and part of the island of Sakhalin (annexed to Japan in 1905). These acquisitions opened more areas for Japanese economic development.
CAUSES OF NEW IMPERIALIST EXPANSION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Group Affected</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Economic</td>
<td>• Need for raw materials and markets created by Industrial Revolution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Desire for place to invest excess capital at a high rate of return</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>• Drive to spread Christianity (&quot;White Man’s Burden&quot; – Kipling)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Rule by strongest and fittest and need to spread superior Western culture (Social Darwinism)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political</td>
<td>• Desire for great power status (colonies meant power and prestige)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Competitive drive to gain control of an area and obtain bases and outposts for military before a rival could do so</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The modernization of Japan is remarkable. Its astounding speed was partially the result of Japan’s ability to adapt the achievements of others. The Japanese government provided incentives for the use of western technology and constructed new factories that were later purchased by wealthy businessmen.

Nationalism was also a factor. Japanese national pride helped the modernization effort. It drove them to achieve Western levels of development. Yet the infusion of Western technology had little effect on Japanese culture. Religion, the value system, and family life remained much the same. Some changes occurred in social class structure with the emergence of a wealthy and educated middle class, but this had begun prior to modernization.

Many emerging nations of the 20th century liked the Japanese model and hoped to obtain the desired technology without the loss of their valued cultural attributes.

IMPERIALISM

Imperialism is the control by a stronger, more powerful country over a weaker area or region. It has a long history going back to ancient times. However, the European Age of Exploration and Discovery (c. 15th century) led to a period of colonization and competition. After the Congress of Vienna settlement (1814-1815), only Britain maintained a strong colonial presence. The period between 1815 and 1870 was a quiet interlude in expansion. The revolutions of the first half of the 19th century and the stirrings of industrialism distracted Europeans.

Around 1870, new factors triggered tremendous expansion and competition among countries during the New Imperialism (c. 1870-1945). During the New Imperialism, the countries involved developed new methods of controlling less developed areas (see charts). The imperialists recognized that different areas required different approaches. Some areas that were seized had existing governments which could be used by imperialist powers, others required total control by the mother country.

THE BRITISH IN INDIA

The history of the British involvement in India goes back to the 17th and 18th centuries and continued into the period of New Imperialism. During the 1700s, the British and French were the main rivals for control of India.

IMPERIALIST CONTROL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Arrangement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Colony</td>
<td>Direct total control by the mother country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protectorate</td>
<td>Native ruler remains in place, but with foreign power’s advisers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sphere of Influence</td>
<td>Foreign power has exclusive rights to development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concession</td>
<td>Foreign power has right to develop one specific aspect of economy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lease</td>
<td>Foreign power leases (rents) an area from a less developed country</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Seven Years War (1756-1763) was fought not only in Europe and North America but also in India. Robert Clive (1725-1774), an employee of the British East India Co., defeated the French with the help of British naval mobility.

The British East India Co. was a joint stock company chartered by Elizabeth I and privately owned. Its main responsibility was to its stockholders. The large Indian market, with its abundant natural resources, made it an ideal investment. The Company worked tirelessly to increase its power by winning support from native rulers. Religious divisions between Hindus and Muslims made it easy to increase areas of control by “divide and conquer” tactics.

However, by 1857 Indians were developing a sense of national identity. They resented the loss of property to the British, the dethroning of native rulers, and the insensibility of the British to their religious practices. One indignity involved the Sepoys. The British cartridges used by the Sepoys had to be bitten to remove a covering before insertion into their guns. The coverings were said to be greased with pork and beef fat. The British action managed to anger the Hindus (no beef) and the Muslims (no pork) at the same time. The resulting

Sepoy Mutiny (or Sepoy Rebellion) was put down, but the British government forced the East India Co. to relinquish control. The British government then began educating and training Indians for a role in their own Indian government. Eventually, this too led to demands for independence.

THE SCRAMBLE FOR AFRICA

The New Imperialism triggered the opening of Africa. European interest and claims in the area go back to the Age of Exploration and Discovery, but few had ventured into the interior. The Portuguese (Diaz, Da Gama) had inched their way down the west coast of Africa in search of an all-water route to the East in the 15th and 16th centuries. They had claimed areas of interest that included the tip of Africa.

Later, other Europeans, including the Dutch, British, and French, began to explore the continent itself. Still, rain forests, deserts, climate, and the lack of river access to the interior discouraged penetration of inland areas. With the spread of the Industrial Revolution, the
increased demand for raw materials and markets — along with the national prestige of having an empire — intensified the imperialist drive for Africa.

In 1885, German Chancellor Bismarck invited the European nations involved in Africa to the Berlin Conference. Bismarck opposed German involvement in Africa and thought that he could help to settle the differences. The Conference placed the Congo Free State under the personal control of Leopold II of Belgium. However, provisions were included that opened that area to trade with all nations. The Conference also established rules for claiming colonies. In order to claim an area, the nation involved must occupy and notify other nations of its claim. This led to a "scramble for Africa" as nations tried to establish their claims before others could.

The British were interested in a "Cape to Cairo" expance running along the east coast of Africa. This clashed with the German goal of an east-west expance from German East Africa to German Southwest Africa. The British dream also conflicted with French hopes. The French wanted an east-west expance (Dakar to the Gulf of Aden) to protect their North African colonies from penetration from the south. This led to a confrontation between the British and the French at Fashoda in the Sudan in 1898. The French backed down after they gained a promise of British support for French control of Morocco.

This struggle for African lands led to a situation where by 1900 only Liberia and Ethiopia remained independent. By 1900, imperialism also was a contributing cause for World War I as the simmering rivalries continued to poison international relations.

The people of Africa opposed the European takeovers. The Boers (Dutch farmers of Cape Town, also called Afrikaners) began to move into the interior in the 1700s. They faced the opposition of the Zulu people. In the first part of the 19th century, the Zulu leader Shaka emerged to organize his people into an effective fighting force.

The British obtained Cape Town at the end of the Napoleonic Wars (1815). In the 1830s, the Boers began their Great Trek into the interior to escape British control. The half-brother of Shaka opposed their advance, but the Zulus were no match for the modern weapons of the Boers. Still, the Zulus continued their struggle into the 20th century when they were finally defeated by the British.
British advance on the Boers in South Africa

The Boers of the Transvaal and Orange Free State fought against Britain in the Boer War (1899-1902). The superb Boer horsemen used their knowledge of the terrain and employed guerrilla tactics. Britain eventually used a force of 450,000 against the Boers. After their victory, the British united their South African colonies into the Union of South Africa (1910). It became a dominion with self-governing status within the British Empire.

However, the Chinese had little interest in the products of Europe.

This led to an unfavorable balance of trade for the Europeans, until it was discovered that there was a Chinese market for opium. The Chinese government tried to stop this trade and actually destroyed many chests of opium owned by the British East India Company. This led to the first Opium War (1839-1841). The Chinese were no match for Britain’s modern weapons and were easily defeated.

The War resulted in the unequal treaty, the Treaty of Nanking (1842). It opened more Chinese ports for trade, ceded Hong Kong to Britain, granted the British extraterritoriality, and required the Chinese payment of an indemnity. The Second Opium War was fought by Britain and France against China in 1857. The War ended with the Treaty of Tientsin. It opened even more ports and provided for protection of Christian missionaries and their converts in the interior of China. Other countries, such as Russia, the Netherlands, Germany, and the United States, soon sought and received similar privileges.

EUROPEAN IMPERIALISM IN CHINA

Imperialism in China was somewhat different from that found in Africa. Most African areas south of the Sahara were divided into colonies and ruled directly by European nations. In China, imperialists used spheres of influence, leases, and concessions. Still, markets and raw materials remained the primary motives.

By the 1840s, when European interest in China was on the rise, the Q’ing Dynasty (1644-1912) was weakening. Corruption and a series of natural disasters convinced many that the Dynasty had lost the Mandate of Heaven. At the same time, Europeans wanted Chinese products such as tea, porcelain, and silk.
Traditionally, the Chinese had regarded foreigners as inferiors and referred to them as "barbarians." The defeats in the Opium Wars were humiliating for the Chinese. Nationalist reformers denounced the Q'ing Dynasty and launched the Taiping Rebellion (1850-1864). A combination of regional armies and foreign mercenaries subdued the revolutionaries. Because they wanted a government that they could manipulate, the European imperialists aided the Q'ing Dynasty.

There was a "scramble for China" after the weaknesses of the country were further exposed in the Sino-Japanese War (1894-1895). The imperialists divided China into spheres of influence, and negotiated leases and concessions. Nationalists organized anti-imperialist resistance movements.

In 1899, resistance groups launched another uprising. The Boxer Rebellion began with a series of attacks on Chinese Christians, then on foreigners in the interior, and finally on the foreign diplomats in Peking (Beijing). The Europeans, joined by Japan and the United States, sent in an international force which ended the siege of the diplomatic missions and defeated the Boxers. As a consequence, China was forced to pay a large indemnity and to accept even more restrictions.

As the 20th century dawned, revolutionaries continued to agitate against both the Q'ing Dynasty and the foreigners. As their discontent spread, revolutionaries came under the leadership of Doctor Sun Yixian (also Sun Yat-sen, 1866-1925). Sun was educated in Hawaii and received a medical degree in Hong Kong. He felt that traditional China would have to adopt more modern ways to face the West on equal footing.

Sun Yixian traveled extensively in the West and studied Western thought. He raised money for the revolutionaries and returned to China in 1911 after a new revolution broke out. With the support of the Chinese Army, the Q'ing Dynasty was overthrown and the Chinese Republic was proclaimed in 1911. Sun's associates organized the Guomindang (Kuomintang or Nationalist Party). In the turmoil of the early years of the republic, Sun was in and out of the presidency. It was not until after his death that a government came close to controlling China.

Sun is regarded as the founder of modern China by many. Just before his death, he published The Three Principles of the People, based on an earlier manifesto of his political beliefs:

- Democracy – the people were sovereign, but the elite should govern
- Nationalism – the Chinese people needed to think of themselves as members of a nation as well as a clan and family; they should be free of foreign influence
- Livelihood – equal distribution of wealth was necessary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive Effects</th>
<th>Negative Effects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Infrastructure improved</td>
<td>Peoples with common backgrounds separated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education improved</td>
<td>Natural resources exploited</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to medical care increased</td>
<td>Native cultures damaged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food supply increased</td>
<td>Economic self-sufficiency lost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic development stimulated</td>
<td>Cash crops overemphasized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decreased internal conflicts</td>
<td>Family life disrupted</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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UNIT 6 – An Age of Revolutions (1750 – 1914 AD)
Imperialism had both positive and negative effects on the areas controlled, but they varied from area to area. Many of them still impact the areas involved today.

European nations were also affected by their own drives for overseas empires. They clashed frequently with each other. Examples include the 19th century dispute between Britain and Russia over spheres of influence in Iran, the Fashoda Crisis (1898), and the Moroccan Crises (1905, 1911). These disagreements helped pave the road to World War I. Later, different imperialist disputes also contributed to World War II.

Many Europeans lost their lives in wars to control indigenous people in India, Africa, and China. A feeling of superiority developed among the Europeans. It was stimulated by the writings of Social Darwinists and authors such as Rudyard Kipling. This attitude prevented the imperialists from seeing the value of other cultures and learning from them.

Economically, the Europeans became dependent on their empires as sources of cheap raw materials for their industries and markets for their finished products. The greed began during the Age of Exploration and Discovery expanded and intensified as new products reached European markets. Also, cultural diffusion occurred as colonial areas and imperialists each influenced the other's languages, art, sculpture, and clothes design.

Even today, the effects of imperialism are evident. The impact of the “boom and bust” of the industrialized business cycle is very apparent. Western technology has also spread and made the developing nations more competitive, both economically and militarily. In many respects, a homogenized global culture is emerg-

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**Mini Assessment**

1. The Sepoy Mutiny, Boer War, and Boxer Rebellion are examples of:
   1. challenges to rule of foreign powers
   2. colonial people's desire for economic status
   3. attempts by religious minorities to establish theocracies
   4. revolts to end the restrictions of mercantilism

2. “We [English] have to educate a people [Indians] who can not at present be educated by means of their mother tongue. We must teach them some foreign language. The claims of our own language it is hardly necessary to recapitulate. It stands pre-eminent even among the languages of the West.”

   This quotation most likely expresses the viewpoint of an
   1. anthropologist
   2. Indian nationalist
   3. American linguist
   4. English imperialist

3. The Berlin Conference of 1885 established:
   1. Germany as the major colonial power in Africa
   2. rules for the division of Africa among European nations
   3. the Congo as a French colony
   4. Boer rule in South Africa

**Constructed Response:**

Use the cartoon below to answer the following questions.

1. What is Perry's ship preparing to do in the cartoon?
2. Why might this event be regarded as a major turning point in Japanese History?
ing despite the attempts of the developing nations to retain their own identities. The Western nations also exported their ideas of nationalism. Ironically, these became the very ideas that encouraged the developing nations to revolt against foreign control. In many ways imperialism spread the seeds of its own destruction – a destruction that occurred in the post World War II period.

**TIME CAPSULE: 1750-1914**

The Age of Revolutions saw dramatic political, economic, and social changes. These changes began with the Scientific and Intellectual Revolutions that changed basic institutions and the way of life for people all over the world. They contributed mightily to the later political revolutions. The French Revolution not only made major changes in France, but also helped to spread the forces of nationalism and democracy throughout the globe. As a consequence, European people struggled to establish nation-states and self-government. The later revolutions of the 19th century helped to achieve these goals. They also brought an end to serfdom and the feudal system in Europe. As European powers became imperialistic and seized less developed areas, they brought with them Western ideas. These very ideas eventually undermined and brought the colonial empires to an end.

Economically, the Agricultural and Industrial Revolutions made major changes in the methods of production. As per capita production increased on the farms, it freed many to move to the cities to work in factories. The jump in productivity increased the availability of goods and services, and led to improvements in the standard of living. However, the competition for raw materials and markets among the major powers fueled the fires of imperialism and helped to contribute to the tensions that brought on World War I.

Socially, the middle class began its rise to power and influence. Its dissatisfaction with political and economic conditions was a major factor in bringing about change. It was active in the struggle for nation-states and the establishment of democratic governments. The expansion of the right to vote to include the middle class also led to changes in governments. During the latter part of the 19th century, European governments began to place restrictions on business and institute free public education. In general, they became more concerned about the welfare of their citizens.

The 1750-1914 era provided the framework for the developments of the 20th century. Many of the events and decisions that were made during that time affected the global community for generations.
Multi-Choice Questions

1. "When those who possess like myself, fields and houses, assemble for their common interests, I have a voice in this assembly. I am a part of the whole, a part of the community, a part of the sovereign. Here is my fatherland." – Voltaire

The main point of this quotation is to
1. list the author’s sources of wealth
2. explain why the author feels a part of his country
3. justify the author’s belief in democracy
4. maintain the importance of farming in the economy

2. The history of Mexico in the late 19th and early 20th centuries might best be described as
1. a period of revolutions and changing governments
2. a time of increasing democracy and protection of human rights
3. an era of rapid industrialization and economic progress
4. a time when class differences decreased significantly

3. Which is a likely result of the other three?
1. one crop economy
2. economic disaster
3. drought or excessive rain
4. drop in agricultural prices

4. The work of enlightened despots might best be described as
1. resulting in some improvements in the lives of their people
2. ending in a return to previous living conditions
3. succeeding politically, but failing economically and socially
4. resulting in failure because religious interest received protection

5. "_______ was above all a revolutionary, and his great aim in life was to cooperate in this or that fashion in the overthrow of capitalist society and the State institutions which it has created."

Which of the following names can be correctly placed on the blank line in the quotation?
1. Adam Smith
2. Robert Owen
3. Karl Marx
4. John Locke

Base your answer to question 6 on the map below and your knowledge of global history.

6. Which of the following forces was most instrumental in the unification movement shown in the map?
1. imperialism
2. capitulations
3. revolution
4. nationalism
7 The Revolutions of 1848 in Europe ended with the
1 successful establishment of democratic governments
2 re-establishment of prior governments which instituted some reforms
3 organization of several new nation-states
4 end of French domination of the Continent

Base your answer to question 8 on the cartoon below and your knowledge of global history.

8 The cartoon above refers to
1 aiding the French victory in Russia
2 Russia's use of "scorched earth" against Napoleon
3 Napoleon's decision to destroy Moscow by fire
4 Napoleon's view of life in the Russia of Alexander I

9 The real opening of Siberia occurred when
1 fur traders and trappers established settlements
2 tsarist political opponents were sentenced to internal exile
3 the Trans-Siberian Railroad was constructed
4 the Chinese were defeated and left the area

10 Which is the correct chronological order for the systems of production?
1 guild system, domestic system, factory system
2 domestic system, guild system, factory system
3 factory system, domestic system, guild system
4 guild system, factory system, domestic system

11 Declining birth rates and increased agricultural output per capita during the 19th century help to explain why
1 the predictions of Malthus did not come true
2 Robert Owen's New Lanark experiment succeeded
3 Marx's proletarian revolutions did not occur
4 Fourier's ideal communities consistently failed

12 Much of Japanese expansion may be explained in terms of the desire to
1 prove its independence of Chinese influence
2 acquire sources of raw materials and markets
3 spread a superior culture
4 end its isolation from world affairs

13 The "scramble for Africa" did not occur until the late 19th century. The reason for this delay in European division of Africa might best be explained by
1 Africa's lack of valuable resources
2 fears that slavery might be rekindled
3 European concerns about Islamic opposition
4 geographic obstacles to penetration of the interior

14 Extraterritoriality (China) and capitulations (Turkey) are results of Europeans'
1 desire to protect their citizens from "inferior" legal and political systems
2 demands for large grants of land
3 provisions for exploitation of natural resources
4 acquisition of sites for military bases

15 Sun Yixian differed from Mohandus Gandhi because he
1 was unconcerned about the poorest people in the population
2 wished to rid his country of Western imperialist control
3 believed that Western ways were necessary to his country's development
4 was opposed to the use of violence to bring about change.
**Thematic Essay**

**Theme:** Change

Throughout global history, revolutions — violent and non-violent — have brought about major changes in society.

**Task:**
- Select a revolution you have studied [except the American Revolution] and explain the factors which caused the revolution.
- Describe the changes made by the revolution in the area where it occurred or in global history.

**Suggestions:**
You may use any revolution from your study of global history — except the American Revolution. You might wish to consider the Scientific Revolution (16th-19th centuries), the Intellectual Revolution (17th-18th centuries), the Agricultural Revolution (18th-19th centuries), the Industrial Revolution (18th-19th centuries), the French Revolution (18th century), the Latin American Revolutions (1800-1821), the Mexican Revolution (1910-1930). You are not limited to these suggestions.

**Document Based Questions**

**Directions:**
The following question is based on the accompanying documents (1-7). Some of the documents have been edited for the purposes of this exercise. The question is designed to test your ability to work with historical documents. As you analyze the documents, take into account both the source of the document and the author's point of view.

- Write a well-organized essay that includes an introduction with a thesis statement, several paragraphs explaining the thesis, and a conclusion.
- Analyze the documents.
- Use all the documents.
- Use evidence from the documents to support your thesis position.
- Do not simply repeat the contents of the documents.
- Include specific related outside information.

**Historical Context:**
The "New" Imperialism (c. 1870) was caused by a variety of factors. The documents below express different reasons for expansion.

**Task:**
Identify and explain the various causes of the "New" Imperialism.

**Part A - Short Answer**
The documents below relate to the various causes of imperialism. Examine each document carefully, then answer the question that follows it.
Document 1:

"The Sun never sets on the British Empire."


Document 2:

"Take up the White Man's Burden —
Send forth the best ye breed —
Go bind your sons to exile
To serve your captives' need;
To wait in heavy harness,
Your new-caught, sullen peoples
Half devil and half child."

— Rudyard Kipling (1899)


Document 3:

| PERCENTAGE OF TERRITORIES BELONGING TO THE EUROPEANS |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Area           | 1876 | 1900 | Increase/Decrease |
| Africa         | 10.8%| 90.4% | +79.6% |
| Polynesia      | 56.8%| 98.9% | +42.1% |
| Asia           | 51.5%| 56.6% | +5.1%  |
| Australia      | 100.0%| 100.0%|—        |
| America        | 27.5%| 27.2% | -0.3%  |

— Lenin, The Highest Stage of Capitalism


Document 1 Question:

What feelings would British citizens have about this map?

Document 2 Question:

What attitude does Kipling express toward the colonial people?

Document 3 Question:

What led Europeans to increase their territorial holdings in Africa so dramatically in the last quarter of the 19th century?
Document 4:

"...For as the nations grow to have wider and wider interests, and are brought into closer and closer contact, if we (U.S.) are to hold our own in the struggle for naval and commercial supremacy, we must build up our power without (outside) our own borders."

-U.S. President Theodore Roosevelt, Chicago, 1899

Document 4 Question:

What reasons does President Roosevelt give for U.S. imperialism?

Document 5:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEARS</th>
<th>AS A PERCENT OF TOTAL VALUE OF EXPORTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1855-1859</td>
<td>31.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1875-1879</td>
<td>33.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1890-1894</td>
<td>33.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1900-1904</td>
<td>37.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

-J.A. Hobson, Imperialism: A Study

Document 5 Question:

What do these statistics indicate about why Britain would want to keep and increase its colonial holdings?

Document 6:

"...I believe in the British Empire— and, in the second place, I believe in the British race. I believe that the British race is the greatest governing race that the world has ever seen. ...I say that ... as proved and evidenced by the success which we have had in administering the vast dominions which are connected with these small islands."

-Joseph Chamberlain, London, 1895

Document 6 Question:

How does Chamberlain justify British colonial control?
Document 7:

"...The people have found out that England is small, and her trade is large, and they have also found out that other people are taking their share of the world, and enforcing hostile tariffs. The people of England are finding out that 'trade follows the flag,' and they have all become Imperialists."

— Cecil Rhodes, in E. Verschoyle, Cecil Rhodes: His Political Life and Speeches, 1881-1900

Document 7

What reasons does Rhodes think caused the "New" Imperialism?

Part B - Essay Response

Discuss the reasons for the "New" Imperialism (c. 1870).

Your essay should be well organized with an introductory paragraph that states your thesis as to the reasons for the "New" Imperialism. Develop and support the reasons in the next paragraphs and then write a conclusion. In your essay, include specific historical details and refer to the specific documents you analyzed in Part A. You may include additional information from your knowledge of global history.
Unit 7

1900 AD – 1945 AD

A HALF CENTURY OF CRISIS & ACHIEVEMENT

AD
1900–
Triple Entente completed (1907)

1910–
Archduke Franz Ferdinand assassinated (1914)

1920–
Russian Revolutions (1917)
Treaty of Versailles signed (1919)
Republic of Turkey established (1923)

1930–
Universal suffrage in Britain (1928)
Great Depression begins (1929)

1940–
Hitler becomes German Chancellor (1933)
Long March begins in China (1934)

Non-Soviet Nonaggression Pact (1939)

Yalta Summit Conference (1945)
INTRODUCTION

Great advances in science, technology, the arts and women’s rights marked the half-century between 1900 and 1945. While the achievements in science and technology improved health care and the quality of human life, they also made killing easier. The important role of Western women in World War I paved the way for their achievement of voting equality.

In this short span of time, the globe was torn by two world wars and the emergence of totalitarian governments of the right and left. World War I was instrumental in bringing about the rise of communism in Russia and fascism in countries such as Italy and Germany. The dislocations of World War I were instrumental in causing World War II. World War II brought about the decline of colonial empires and the emergence of the Cold War between the United States and the Soviet Union. Many of the events and decisions of this tumultuous 50-year period had long-term repercussions.

SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNOLOGICAL ADVANCES

Beginning about the mid-point of the 19th century, rapid changes occurred in the fields of science and technology. The contributors often based their work on the achievements of earlier innovators. In some cases, they made corrections or adjustments to earlier theories. The fields of biology1, physics2, and psychoanalysis3 saw major developments.

French physicists Pierre Curie (1859-1906) and Marie Curie (1867-1934) discovered that atoms were complex and unstable. As the atoms disintegrated, energy was released. The Curies’ proof that atoms could be split corrected earlier ideas. For their work, they received the Nobel Prize for Physics in 1903. Albert Einstein (German, 1879-1955), expressed the Curies’ concept in the formula, E=MC2 (Theory of Relativity). Later, he published his famous Theory of Relativity. It stated that time, space, and motion were relative to an observer and his movement in space. He also developed a unified field theory to explain subatomic behavior, gravitation, and electromagnetism. This replaced some of Newton’s ideas. Tragically, Einstein’s brilliant discoveries in theoretical physics made possible the development of weapons of mass destruction.

Sigmund Freud (Austrian, 1856-1939) founded the field of psychoanalysis. He believed that some emotional upsets could be traced to early, forgotten experiences through the use of free association. In 1900, Freud published The Interpretation of Dreams in which he stressed the role of the unconscious and the use of dreams as a way to unlock it. His ideas and terminology became part of every day culture and language. This led to the conclusion that humans were not always rational.

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1 biology (science of life and of living organisms, including their structure, function, growth, origin, evolution, and distribution. It includes botany and zoology and all their subdivisions)
2 physics (science of matter and energy and of interactions between the two, grouped in traditional fields such as acoustics, optics, mechanics, thermodynamics, and electromagnetism, as well as in modern extensions including atomic and nuclear physics, cryogenics, solid-state physics, particle physics, and plasma physics)
3 psychoanalysis (method of psychiatric therapy originated by Sigmund Freud in which free association, dream interpretation, and analysis of resistance and transference are used to explore repressed or unconscious impulses, anxieties, and internal conflicts)
## MEDICAL ADVANCES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contributor</th>
<th>Contribution</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Louis Pasteur</td>
<td>Discovered diseases are caused by bacteria; developed vaccine for rabies</td>
<td>Led to the use of heat in pasteurization process to destroy bacteria; many</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(French, 1822-1895)</td>
<td></td>
<td>lives saved through the use of rabies vaccine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robert Koch</td>
<td>Established bacteriology as a separate science; discovered germ that causes</td>
<td>Structure laid the groundwork for later cures for many diseases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(German, 1843-1910)</td>
<td>tuberculosis; developed methods of diagnosing diseases</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>William Morton</td>
<td>Discovered the use of ether as an anesthetic</td>
<td>Paved the way for pain-free surgery and dentistry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(American, 1819-1868)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Decreased number of deaths from infection during surgery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joseph Lister</td>
<td>Discovered the use of antiseptics to destroy bacteria</td>
<td>Recognized authority on caring for sick; advice led to improvement of nursing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(British, 1827-1912)</td>
<td></td>
<td>care</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florence Nightingale</td>
<td>Founder of modern nursing; organized nursing care for wounded during the</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(British, 1820-1910)</td>
<td>Crimean War</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One of the most outstanding achievements of the pre-World War I era was the increase in life expectancy in developed areas. In 1850, the average life expectancy for males was about 40 years and for females about 42 years. By 1910, these figures had risen to about 52 years and 56 years, respectively. A number of factors were responsible for these changes. Civil order, improvements in agriculture and transportation, and improved health care were all important. Contributing factors also included uncovering the causes of disease and developing new ways of treatment (see chart above).

## WORLD WAR I (1914-1917)

### EUROPE: POLITICAL SETTING

In 1914, Eastern and Western Europe were organized in quite different physical and political ways. Eastern Europe was dominated by three large, multi-national empires: the Russian, the German, and the Austro-Hungarian. Each of these empires had an autocratic government and large, ethnic minority populations. Nationalism was strong among some of the minorities, and some demanded independence. Also in Eastern Europe, there were some small, independent nation-states such as Serbia, Bulgaria, and Greece. These small nations acted as role

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1 autocratic (unlimited power, authority; despotic)
2 ethnic (people sharing a common and distinctive racial, national, religious, linguistic, or cultural heritage)
models for minority peoples seeking self-government. The situation in Eastern Europe was very unstable. The Russian and Austro-Hungarian Empires were rivals for power in the Balkan Peninsula, and the weak Ottoman Empire wanted to restore its earlier power in the region.

The situation in Western Europe was entirely different. Most of the people were grouped into nation-states with some elements of democracy. Most of the Western European nations had largely homogeneous populations.

BACKGROUND CAUSES

The causes of World War I are numerous and often overlapping: international disorder, alliances, economic competition, and the three “isms” — nationalism, militarism, imperialism. All of these played roles in bringing about the War.

INTERNATIONAL DISQUIET

At the turn of the century, there was no international organization capable of settling major disputes among the nations. Responding to the peace movement of the 19th century, Tsar Nicholas II headed two international conferences at The Hague in the Netherlands. The Hague Conferences (1899, 1907) established The Hague International Tribunal to solve disputes voluntarily submitted to its jurisdiction. The Conferences also established “humane rules of warfare” and provided rules for the treatment of the Red Cross. Regrettably, the Conferences did little to solve the major problems confronting the nations of Europe.

ENTANGLING ALLIANCES

An intricate, competing alliance system developed out of German Chancellor Bismarck’s concern about French desire for revenge for its Franco-Prussian War losses in 1871. He formed an alliance with the Austro-Hungarian Empire (1879) and one with Italy (1882). This three-way agreement became the Triple Alliance. Also, Bismarck attempted to strengthen Germany’s position through a secret agreement with Russia — the Reinsurance Treaty (1887).

Bismarck’s alliance system was not strong. Tensions between Russia and Austria-Hungary in the Balkans made their cooperation in time of war questionable. Italy’s commitment was doubtful because Austria-Hungary controlled territories its nationalists desired. Finally, after Bismarck’s removal from office, German Emperor William II (r. 1888-1918) abandoned the Reinsurance Treaty with Russia in 1890.

Germany abandonment of the Reinsurance Treaty opened the door for a Russian-French alliance in 1894. Germany and Austria-Hungary then faced the possibility of a two-front war with France on the one side and Russia on the other. In 1904, France concluded an “Entente Cordiale” (friendly understanding) with Britain. In 1907, Britain came to an understanding with Russia which completed the Triple Entente. However, questions remained about the depth of British commitment. The British Parliament retained its right to declare war. Until the actual declaration of war in 1914, Germany hoped that Britain would remain neutral.

ECONOMIC COMPETITION

The German Empire’s rise as an industrial rival for Britain heightened tensions between the two nations. Germany’s later industrialization meant it had a newer technological base, and it could offer lower prices on world markets. By 1900, Germany was producing more steel than Britain, and was surpassed only by the U.S. From 1870 to 1913, the annual industrial
growth rate in Britain was 2.2%, while Germany's rate was 2.9%. Britain's century-old economic advantage was being challenged.

**Militarism**

As tensions deepened, most continental countries developed large standing armies with huge reserves. Many countries set up conscription in peacetime. They used a system of rotation in service. This system allowed countries to create extensive, trained reserves at low cost compared to maintaining large standing armies.

Britain and Germany began a naval race. The British wanted a navy larger than the next two largest navies combined. Kaiser William followed American naval strategist Alfred Mahan's view that naval power's ability to blockade and cut off supplies and reinforcements was the key to modern warfare. After 1898, the German naval expansion led to a similar increase in Britain's Royal Navy.

**Imperialism**

Imperialist tensions went back to the 19th century. In general terms, countries that were able to settle these rivalries ended up on the same side in World War I. For example, Britain and France settled their differences over the Sudan (Fashoda Incident, 1898). Britain retained its influence in the Sudan, but France received a promise of British support for its control of Morocco. When Germany challenged the French in the Moroccan Crisis (1905, 1911), Britain backed its ally. German acquisition of German East Africa thwarted Britain's desire for a Cape to Cairo expanse. This was not settled until after the War, when Britain acquired control of the area through the Paris Peace Conference.

**Nationalism**

Nationalism played a significant role in the outbreak of war. The French wanted revenge for their Franco-Prussian War losses. The British resented the German economic and naval challenge.

However, it was in the "tinderbox" or "powder keg" of the Balkans that nationalism became explosive. Serbia wanted to be the center of a South Slav state. Its Pan-Slavism movement sought to unite minorities controlled by others. Russia supported the movement hoping to gain a sphere of influence in the area. In 1912-1913, the Balkan Wars broke out. Serbia, Bulgaria, Montenegro, and Greece joined against the Ottoman Empire but then fought over the spoils of war. With the Ottomans pushed aside, the Austro-Hungarian Empire remained the major obstacle to Pan-Slavism.

**Sarajevo: The Immediate Cause**

Not surprisingly, the incident which led directly to war occurred in the Balkan "powder keg." Bosnia, ruled by Austria, wanted more self-government. Bosnian Serb radicals wanted union with Serbia. On 28 June 1914, a radical Serb group ("the Black Hand") assassinated the

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1. Militarism: glorification of the ideals of a professional military; a policy in which military preparedness is of primary importance to a state
2. Conscription: draft (compulsory enrollment in the armed forces)
3. Rotation in service: trained soldiers are returned to civilians life for the workforce and new groups take their place for training
4. Pan-Slavism: involving all or of the union of a specified group
heir to the Austrian throne, Archduke Franz Ferdinand and his wife, Sophie, as they visited Sarajevo, Bosnia.

Austria blamed Serbia for the killings and threatened war. As Austria’s ally, Kaiser William promised “carte blanche” (unqualified support) for any Austrian action. The Austrians issued an ultimatum¹ to Serbia. The Serbs rejected one provision that allowed Austrian authorities to hunt down Bosnian Serb nationalists, because it violated their sovereignty.

On 28 July 1914, Austria declared war on Serbia. Russia began mobilizing its army in support of Serbia and refused to stop in response to German demands. On 1 August, Germany declared war on Russia. This led to a flurry of war declarations in accord with the alliance commitments. Only Italy remained neutral.

¹ ultimatum (a threatening final statement of terms)

MILITARY ACTION

World War I was largely a defensive war. The Central Powers included Germany, Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria, and the Ottoman Empire. Italy remained neutral until May 1915, when it joined the Allies. The Central Powers had the advantage of a central position and shorter internal lines of transportation and communication. The major Allied Powers included Britain, France, and Russia. The Allies had better access to the seas, but the German submarines made traveling the seas risky.

Systems of trenches separated by a “no man’s land,” machine guns, and heavy artillery barrages made it difficult for armies to advance. It became a stalemate war of attrition in which thousands died on each side for less than a mile of territory. For example, in the six-month battle of Verdun, each side had 330,000 to 350,000 casualties.
Large losses and no gains on the Eastern Front, plus scanty food and supplies were factors in bringing about the Tsar Nicholas II's abdication (March 1917), the Russian Revolutions, and the country's withdrawal from the War (December 1917). The loss of Russia hurt the Allies, but Germany's policy of unrestricted submarine warfare caused the United States' entrance into the War in April 1917. In particular, the sinking of the Lusitania, a British passenger ship with Americans on board, outraged the public.

America's entry brought fresh war supplies and much needed convoys to get them across the Atlantic. Within a year, Americans were fighting along side the Allies. The infusion of American assistance helped to turn the tide.

**THE FIRST MODERN GENOCIDE**

Civilian populations suffered. Many children were orphaned or left without fathers. Particularly tragic were the Armenian Massacres. Most Armenians were Christians living in the Caucasus region near the Ottoman Empire's border with Russia. Their desire for independence resulted in massacres by the Muslim Ottomans in 1894. In 1915, the Ottoman government became fearful that the remaining Armenians might be traitors, consorting with the Russians. The government deported them all. Massacres and deaths from the journey resulted in the deaths of up to 1,000,000 Armenians. Some historians refer to it as the "first genocide of modern times." By the end of the War, almost no Armenians lived within the new Turkish Republic. The few survivors scattered and had no homeland except for a small area within the Soviet Union.

**IMPACTS OF THE WAR**

The impact of the War was tremendous. Approximately 10 million died and another 20 million were injured. World War I ushered in many global changes. The role of European and American women was markedly changed by the War. For the first time, large numbers of women worked outside of the home. Some were military nurses and many others worked in factories to produce war materials. After the War, the contribution of women was recognized as country after country extended women the right to vote.

**GOVERNMENTAL POWER INCREASED**

To conduct the war effort efficiently, governments took command of industries, transportation, trade, and agriculture. This type of "planned" or command economy\(^1\) provided an example that totalitarian governments later followed.

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\(^1\) command system (economy in which central authority attempts to control resources and decision-making)
Propaganda and censorship were widely used by both sides. Prior to the United States' entry, both sides tried to influence American public opinion. This use of the media also provided a model for later totalitarian regimes.

Collapse of Empires

World War I marked the end of the Austro-Hungarian, German, Ottoman, and Russian Empires as they existed prior to 1914. The map of Europe was redrawn by the Paris Peace Conference and many small, new nations emerged.

The Ottoman Empire lost its possessions in the Middle East. During the War, British agent Colonel T. E. Lawrence (known as “Lawrence of Arabia,” 1888-1935) served as a guerrilla organizer in the Arab Revolt of 1916-1918. The Revolt expelled the Turks from western Arabia and Syria and encouraged Arab hopes for an independent Arab nation.

As a result of the Arab-British correspondence, Husayn ibn Ali (1854-1931) established an Arab kingdom. When this action was opposed by the Zionists, the British issued the Balfour Declaration (1917). It vaguely promised the Jews a homeland in the same area of Palestine claimed by the Arabs while promising to preserve the rights of Palestinian Arabs. These conflicting promises were an attempt by the British to win support from the Arabs and the Zionists, but they continue to have repercussions today.

Emergence of New Global Forces

The U.S. changed from a debtor nation to a creditor nation. Over $10 billion was owed to America by European nations at the end of the War. European nations also faced additional industrial competition. Cut off from their supply of European industrial products by the War, countries such as India, Brazil, and Argentina took steps to develop their industries.

Scientific and Technological Advances

Weapons and communications technology developed during World War I were perfected and later played a major role in World War II. The use of radio, field telephones, aircraft, long range artillery, and tanks made possible the offensive war experienced from 1939 to 1945. Also, the settlements made at the Paris Peace Conference were contributing factors to the rise of Fascism in Europe. In many ways, World War I was a major factor in causing World War II.

Literature and Art

The war effort and its tragedies were commemorated in works such as: George M. Cohan’s popular song, Over There, Leon Gellert’s Songs of a Campaign – poems written about his experiences during the Gallipoli Campaign, T.S. Eliot’s The Hollow Men, and Erich Remarque’s All Quiet on the Western Front. Perhaps the most touching literary piece to come out of the War was John McCrae’s In Flanders Fields:

“We are the Dead, Short days ago
We lived, felt dawn, saw sunset glow,
Loved and were loved, and now we lie
In Flanders Fields.”
McCrae died from pneumonia shortly after the poem was published. Art reflected the uncertainty of the times after the War as well as the psychology of Freud. It rejected realism and representational art. Artists like Salvador Dali in *The Persistence of Memory,* turned to subjectivism and the unconscious. This movement was called surrealism.

**REVOLUTION AND CHANGE IN RUSSIA - CAUSES AND IMPACTS**

After the assassination of Alexander II (r. 1855-1881), Tsar Alexander III (r. 1881-1894) began a period of reaction and authoritarianism. He felt that the assassination of his father and other acts of terrorism were encouraged by policies that were too liberal.

The Tsar's imperial two-headed eagle looks both East and West, suggesting that he wanted to hold on to the old (Eastern culture) while trying to deal with the challenges of the new future (Western Society).

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**Key Policies of Tsar Alexander III**

- Russification - forced non-Great Russians to accept Russian language, culture, and the Russian Orthodox Church
- Persecution of opposition - used secret police to watch opposition, sent many to internal exile in Siberia, increased censorship
- Pogroms against Jews - encouraged mobs to attack Jewish homes and businesses

However, the Tsar's policies conflicted with modernization which accompanied industrialization and his subjects' increasing awareness of Western ideas. Also, issues of long hours, low wages, and poor living conditions concerned Russia's small, emerging proletariat. Feeling oppressed, this class was willing to listen to the ideas of new socialists including the young V. I. Ulyanov (1870-1924), who later adopted the pseudonym Lenin.

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**Mini Assessment**

1. The work of people such as Louis Pasteur, Robert Koch, and Florence Nightingale is evident in
   1. improved farming techniques
   2. increased governmental stability
   3. improved life expectancy
   4. sophisticated military weaponry

2. A primary cause of the Armenian Massacres of 1915 was
   1. Turkish fears that Armenians might be conspiring with Russians
   2. Armenian aid to the Germans during World War I
   3. the refusal of the Armenians to sell oil to the Central Powers
   4. centuries long Russian animosity to the Armenians

3. The Balkans were often referred to as the "tinderbox" or the "powder keg" prior to World War I. Justification for this label can be seen in the
   1. formation of the Triple Entente
   2. British-German naval race
   3. nature of Pan-Slavism
   4. disputes over the water of the Danube River

**Constructed Response:**

Use the diagram on page 185 to answer the following questions:

1. What does the diagram indicate about the causes of World War I?

2. Select two of the causes and briefly explain how they played a role in an event leading to World War I.
REVOLUTION OF 1905

Just as the defeat in the Crimean War (1854-1856) led to demands for reform, the defeat in the Russo-Japanese War (1904-1905) led to demands for change that erupted in the Russian Revolution of 1905. On 22 January, a Ukrainian priest, Father Georgi Gapon, organized a workers march in St. Petersburg to present a petition to Tsar Nicholas II (r. 1894-1917). The petition expressed respect for the Tsar, but also asked for worker reforms. Someone ordered soldiers protecting the Winter Palace to fire on the marchers.

The deaths on Bloody Sunday helped to destroy the feeling of the Russian people that the Tsar was the nation’s “Little Father.” Across the country, the incident triggered a series of strikes, peasant uprisings, mutinies, and terrorist acts. They culminated with a general strike in October, encouraged by the Petrograd Soviet (a group of radical socialists).

To restore order, Tsar Nicholas agreed to issue the October Manifesto. The imperial proclamation met some of the people’s demands: a constitution, a Duma (national legislature), and basic civil liberties. However, it became apparent that the Tsar had no intention of following the spirit of the document. He repeatedly dismissed the elected Dumas until he ensured the election of a conservative legislature. Tsarist minister Peter Stolypin (1863-1911) came up with a program to turn peasants into private landowners. He believed that the normally conservative peasants would support the Tsar, if he met their desire for land.

The government cancelled the land payments in effect since Alexander II’s emancipation of the serfs (1861). Peasants gained the right to leave the mir (village community), and some left to work in city factories. Other peasants purchased their land, and the number of kulaks (richer peasants) increased. However, land hunger continued in areas of fertile soil and large landed estates.

The continuation of 19th century problems, the limited success of the Revolution of 1905, and the authoritarian policies of the Tsar were signs of impending problems. The outbreak of World War I in 1914 placed the creaking government and economy under stresses that it could not solve. Reports of numerous casualties, of soldiers in front lines without guns, limited ammunition, and of high desertion rates reached the home front. Nicholas II decided to go to the front lines himself and left Tsarina Alexandra to run the government.

Unfortunately, the Tsarina’s chief advisor was a dissolute monk, Grigory Rasputin (1865-1916). He gained influence with the imperial family, because he seemed to have the ability to ease the hemophilia attacks of the heir to the throne, Alexis. The Tsarina consulted Rasputin on major decisions involving the war effort and appointments to high offices. The Russian nobility greatly resented him. Finally, in December 1916, a group of nobles assassinated him. Some historians think that this was the beginning of the Revolution, because it undermined the imperial family’s prestige.

MARCH 1917 REVOLUTION AND THE PROVISIONAL GOVERNMENT

The 1917 Revolution began in an unexpected fashion. On 8 March, a group of Petrograd (St. Petersburg) women began a protest against factory conditions. They were joined by a group of men who were locked out of their factories for striking. The two groups began to demand bread which was in short supply. Soldiers were called out to control the demonstrators, but they refused to fire. This led a Duma committee to form a Provisional Government which forced Nicholas II’s abdication (give up power). The Romanov family were placed under house arrest. Later, the family members were sent to Siberia and were executed by the Bolsheviks.

The Provisional Government was based on Western principles of constitutional liberalism. At first, a moderate coalition of bourgeoisie-liberals controlled the provisional government. They envisioned a Western style democracy for Russia, but they could not meet the demands of the people for “Peace, Land and Bread.”

In March 1917, V. I. Lenin (Vladimir Ilyich Ulyanov), a key leader of the radical Bolshevik socialist faction, returned from exile. Lenin was a student of Marxist ideas. However, Marx was vague about the post-revolutionary society. This allowed Lenin to develop his own beliefs. While
pragmatic about molding Marx's ideas to fit the Russian situation, Lenin resented criticism of his own ideas. Anyone who disputed his approach was labeled a "revisionist." The Bolsheviks played to the Russians' desire for social and economic change.

At almost the same time that Lenin returned, soviets\(^1\) were organized throughout the country. The Bolsheviks\(^2\) joined other left-wing factions to form the Petrograd Soviet of Workers' and Soldiers' Deputies as a rival government to the provisional government.

**NOVEMBER 1917: BOLSHEVIK REVOLUTION**

In the summer and fall, Lenin's supporters gained majorities in the Petrograd and Moscow Soviets and in the Moscow city government. Lenin armed his followers for an uprising. On the night of 6 November 1917, the Bolsheviks and their allies captured key points in Petrograd. A week later, the Bolsheviks overcame resistance in Moscow.

Early in 1918, Lenin ended Russian involvement in World War I by signing the Treaty of Brest Litovsk with Germany. Russia lost control of large areas including Finland, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, and Poland that eventually became independent.

**LENIN'S RULE: 1917-1924**

Almost immediately, a Civil War also broke out in different areas of the country. The Whites\(^3\), along with some of Russia's former World War I allies, tried to take control from the Reds (Bolsheviks). The charismatic socialist, Leon Trotsky (1879-1940), organized and trained the Bolsheviks' Red Army into an effective fighting force. Even though both sides committed atrocities, the Whites were unable to win the support of the peasantry. The Whites fought on the fringes of Russia. But, the Bolsheviks controlled the shorter, interior lines of communication.

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\(^1\) Soviets (councils of workers, peasants, and soldiers)

\(^2\) Bolsheviks (members of the left-wing majority group of the Russian Social Democratic Workers' Party that adopted Lenin's theses on party organization in 1903)

\(^3\) Whites (a disorganized group of tsarist army officers, nobles, and some members of the middle class)
During the Civil War, the Bolsheviks became known as communists and implemented a policy known as War Communism. It called for seizure of “surplus” food from peasants, forced labor or military service for many, and some nationalization of key industries. Lenin created the Cheka, a new secret police force, to deal with opposition, and he suppressed the Russian Orthodox Church. The Bolsheviks also seized some peasant land. By 1921 when the Red Army appeared victorious in most areas, Russian production was less than 50% of that in 1914.

In their 1922 Constitution, the communists established the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (U.S.S.R.). While it appeared to be a democratic state, only “toilers” (workers) were given the right to vote. The 1922 Constitution gave the nationalities some voice in local government, but most of the power remained with the central government.

NEW ECONOMIC POLICY

- Major industries (“commanding heights”) - natural resources and financial institutions were kept under government control.
- Small private enterprise was permitted (light industry and retail operations).
- Farmers could sell surpluses for a profit.
- Foreign capitalists were given economic concessions to encourage trade.

By the end of the Civil War, the Russian economy was in shambles. A widespread peasant and workers uprising was brewing. To rebuild, Lenin compromised his Marxist proletarian economic plan and adopted the New Economic Policy (NEP, 1921-1927). The policy bore some fruit (see chart above). By 1928, the pre-World War I levels of production had been reached.

STALIN AND THE MODERN TOTALITARIAN STATE

Lenin’s death in 1924 led to a power struggle in which Josef Stalin defeated his rival Leon Trotsky. One of the first things that Stalin did after consolidating his power was to institute the first Five Year Plan (1928). His goal was to increase heavy industry (steel, mining, and products necessary to make more goods, plus military hardware). The plan largely ignored light or consumer industry and called for government ownership of all the means of production. It also created GOSPLAN, a central planning agency that made economic decisions and allocated resources to achieve goals. This was a command economy.

The Plan demanded high levels of agricultural production while trying to free farm workers to work in factories. Agricultural exports were to pay for imports of needed machinery and materials for industrial development.

1 communism (system of government and economics in which the state plans and controls the economy and a single, often authoritarian party holds power, claiming to make progress toward a higher social order in which all goods are equally shared by the people; Marxist-Leninist version of communist doctrine advocates the overthrow of capitalism by the revolution of the proletariat)

2 nationalization (to convert from private to governmental ownership [takeover] and control)
To accomplish this, Stalin ordered the collectivization of farms. The government seized privately owned farms, machinery, produce, and livestock. Theoretically, larger farms could be more easily mechanized and would be more readily controlled by the government.

The government took most of the production, but the farmers could share in the remaining profits. Farmers were given one acre plots which they could farm for themselves and their families. As time went on, the yield per acre from the small plots was much higher than that found on collective land. The private plots (2-3% of the acreage), produced about one-third of the dairy products, vegetables, and meat.

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OPPOSITION: STARVATION IN UKRAINE

The dislocations caused by Stalin’s Five Year Plan generated opposition, especially in Ukraine. Its black chernozem soil was singularly fertile, and kulaks had developed this into Russia’s “breadbasket.” Opponents of Stalin’s collectivization fought back by destroying crops, equipment, and livestock. (It took 20 years to restore livestock levels to those found before Stalin’s Plan went into effect).

Stalin ruthlessly suppressed this peasant resistance. While many kulaks were sent to Siberia, Stalin also used “terror famine” or “war by starvation” to rid himself of others. When a drought led to famine, he refused to decrease exports to alleviate the hunger. Estimates indi-
cata that at least five million perished in the famines inflicted by nature and the government between 1929 and 1935.

Still, Stalin's Five Year Plans were successful in increasing heavy industry and Russian self-sufficiency. By 1939, only the U.S. and Germany had higher gross industrial outputs. Much of the new development was in the area east of the Ural Mountains to make it less vulnerable to attack in case of war. However, the cost of development was high. The government forced thousands to move to Siberia and work in the new factories. Some of the opposition were sentenced to the gulags\(^1\) and required to work in unspeakable conditions. Few consumer products were available, and everyone was expected to make sacrifices for later generations. There was constant pressure to exceed production goals, and bonuses to individuals and factories were based on production.

\section*{Totalitarian Control}

Along with this centralization of economic control came overwhelming political control. Stalin built a totalitarian\(^2\) state. The government exercised absolute, centralized control over all aspects of life and suppressed opposing political and cultural expression. The ethnic groups lost much of the power granted them in the 1922 constitution.

Stalin's constitution of 1936 appeared to be democratic, but its operation revealed a dictatorship. Elections were held, and people were required to vote or face stiff penalties. However, the Communist Party permitted only its list of candidates. The legislature was the bicameral\(^3\) Supreme Soviet. The people were represented in the Soviet of the Union. The republics or regions were represented in the Soviet of the Nationalities. These two chambers were "rubber stamp"\(^4\) bodies. When the Soviet of the Union was not in session, the Presidium, a smaller group, acted for it. The chairman of the Presidium was President of the Soviet Union, a largely honorary position. The Council of People's Commissars or Council of Ministers was similar to a Western cabinet and headed by the Premier – the most powerful figure in the government.

However, the key to power in the U.S.S.R. was not the government, but the Communist Party. Membership in the Party was restricted to the elite and probably included only about five percent of the population. These people helped to elect representatives to the Party Congress which met once every few years. Most power rested with two smaller groups, the Politburo and the Secretariat. The Politburo determined policies. The Secretariat made appointments to government and Party positions and kept records on Party members. The General Secretary of the Party was the head of the Secretariat and actually, the most powerful person in the Soviet Union.

Often the same people held comparable positions in the Party and the government. For example, Stalin was both Premier and General Secretary of the Party. Most of his successors also held both positions.

\section*{Russification and A Reign of Terror}

During the 1930s, Stalin became obsessed about traitors and the possibility of threats to his power. This led to a reign of terror. Party leaders whose views varied from Stalin's were arrested and placed on trial as enemies of the state. The purges forced many officials to make confessions in open court, leading to their imprisonment or execution. Not until years later was it revealed that these confessions were obtained through psychological torture.

One of Stalin's most notorious purges occurred in 1937. Eight top-ranking army generals were convicted of conspiracy. Ultimately, about 50% of the army officers were arrested. Many were shot; others were sent to the gulags. This loss of experienced military leadership had serious consequences in World War II.

During the early years, the communists attempted to accommodate various cultures by providing for some local control. During the
1930s, Stalin felt the country needed a greater unity, as he was concerned about the loyalty of ethnic groups. Stalin returned to the practice of Russification, a common policy in tsarist Russia. The government required all schools to conduct classes in the Russian language and to teach Russian culture exclusively. Many leaders of ethnic groups were killed. There was also a large-scale transfer of Great Russians into ethnic republics and regions. They were given key positions and the best jobs. Stalin’s version of Russification led to interesting consequences. After the breakup of the U.S.S.R. in 1991, many of the newly independent republics began returning to their native culture and forcing the Great Russians to leave.

BETWEEN THE WARS

Defeats in early 1918 forced the German Army to retreat back across France and Belgium. Although Allied armies were not on German soil, German generals advised Kaiser William II that Germany could not win and urged him to abdicate. William waited until after the armistice to abdicate. On 28 November 1918, the last King of Prussia and Emperor of Germany stepped down and went into exile in the Netherlands. At about the same time, the Austro-Hungarian Empire collapsed, and its ethnic groups began to form individual nation-states. The armistice ending the fighting was signed on 11 November 1918.

When the Germans signed the armistice, they assumed that the final peace would be based on the Fourteen Points proposed by U.S. President Woodrow Wilson (1856-1924). Issued before the end of the War, the Fourteen Points were aimed at settling key causes of wars and avoiding future wars.

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Mini Assessment

1. The long term causes of the Russian Revolution in March 1917 might be best described as
   1. a result of German agitation during World War I
   2. having roots in 19th century events and conditions
   3. coming from the appeal of Marxism to the peasants
   4. a result of the assassination of Rasputin

2. The French Revolution (1789) and Russian Revolution (1917) are similar in that both
   1. resulted in a non-democratic government
   2. experienced no foreign involvement
   3. began during a war
   4. involved little violence

3. Which statement accurately describes Stalin’s Soviet Union during the 1930s?
   1. A multi-party system was allowed.
   2. A free market system was established.
   3. Ethnic groups were given more freedom.
   4. There was tremendous growth in heavy industry.

Constructed Response:

Use the cartoon at the right to answer the following questions:

1. Identify two of the Tsarist Russian symbols shown in the cartoon.

2. For the two symbols identified, briefly explain the nature of the communist replacement.
THE FOURTEEN POINTS
KEY PROVISIONS

- A league of nations to settle disputes among nations
- Self-determination for peoples of Ottoman and Austro-Hungarian Empires
- A general decrease in arms
- Freedom to ship safely on the seas
- Just settlement of colonial problems
- End to secret agreements (alliances)

Wilson was viewed as a great world leader because the Fourteen Points appealed to the people of many countries as a means to preserving a stable peace. Admirable as they were, the Fourteen Points were not fully accepted by the major Allied leaders as the basis for the peace. At the Paris Peace Conference (January 1919-January 1920) at the Versailles Palace, the major decisions were made by the "Big Three" – U.S., Britain, and France. However, the leader of each of these countries had specific goals for the peace settlement.

WHO WAS WHO AT THE CONFERENCE

- President Woodrow Wilson (U.S.) sought implementation of the Fourteen Points, especially a league of nations
- Prime Minister David Lloyd George (Britain, 1863-1945) – reparations, colonies
- Premier Georges Clemenceau (France, 1841-1929) – French security against German aggression, reparations

TREATY OF VERSAILLES
KEY PROVISIONS

- League of Nations established
- New or re-established nations: Poland, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, Austria, Yugoslavia, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania
- German territorial losses: Alsace-Lorraine, Polish Corridor, Danzig, Upper Silesia, Saar (later returned), all colonies which became mandates (governed by other countries under League supervision)
- War guilt clause: blamed Germany and its allies for causing the War
- Reparations: required Germany to pay reparations (compensation or remuneration for damage or injury during the war) for Allied losses (later set at between $30 and $35 billion)
- Limits on German military
- Occupation of German Rhineland (mining and industrial center)

The 1919 peace settlement at Paris created many problems. The Germans blamed it for their postwar problems and Hitler was able to use their resentment to win support. Mussolini was also able to use Italian dissatisfaction to help his fascist cause in Italy. The Senate of the United States refused to ratify the Treaty, and the U.S. never joined the League of Nations. In colonial areas, nationalism blossomed, and agitation for independence increased. The economic problems resulting from the Settlement were contributing causes of the Great Depression (1929). Most importantly, the agreements reached in Paris must be regarded as a major cause of World War II.

THE TREATY OF VERSAILLES

The Peace Conference resulted in five treaties, the Treaty of Versailles with Germany being the most important. Separate treaties were signed with other members of the Central Powers. Germany was not allowed to participate in the negotiations and was forced to sign the Treaty or resume fighting. The Germans were very resentful about what they regarded as unfair provisions.

THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

The League of Nations began operations in Geneva, Switzerland on January 20, 1920. Wilson was hopeful that any inequities in the Paris Settlement could be remedied by the League. However, the failure of the United States to join, and the limited German and Soviet involvement, weakened the organization right from the start. Although over forty nations joined the League, the Great Powers dominated.
The League's Central Council included the Great Powers as permanent members with other nations elected on a rotating basis. The Council had the power to impose diplomatic, economic, and military sanctions to enforce its decisions. However, decisions required unanimous votes which were difficult to achieve. The Assembly included all League members, but it had relatively little power. Most of the best work done by the League was in the economic and social fields. It supervised mandates, aided displaced persons, fought international narcotics traffic, and settled minor border disputes.

MODERNIZATION AND WESTERNIZATION FOR TURKEY

World War I also brought an end to the Ottoman Empire. The Treaty of Sevres (1920) resulted in major territorial losses, including control of the Straits of the Dardanelles and Bosporus. However, Turkish General Mustafa Kemal (1881-1938, later called Ataturk), led an uprising against the settlement. He pushed the Greeks and Allied support out of Anatolia, deposed the Sultan, and became the first president of the new republic (1923-1938). Ultimately, the new republic negotiated the Treaty of Lausanne (1923) cancelling the Sevres treaty and defining Turkey's boundaries and and restoring Turkish control of Istanbul and the Straits. However, much of the former Ottoman Empire became independent or mandates of Britain and France.

Ataturk had two goals for Turkey: westernization and secularization (separation of religion and government). His Six Principles were called Kemalism or Ataturkism. They included: republicanism, nationalism, populism, statism, secularism, and revolutionism. The new republic adopted a constitution based on Western models. It included an elected parliament with women's suffrage. However, it was a single party government, and Ataturk retained most of the power.

In 1928, Islam was removed as the state religion, and Islamic law was dropped in favor of a code of laws based on western examples. Other changes included: adoption of Western dress, use of the Latin alphabet, removal of women from the harem, and use of the Western calendar. Steps were also taken to improve the literacy rate, and public works were started to improve the infrastructure. Under Ataturk, Turkey made much progress, but was not a true democracy. Today, the struggle between the secularists and the Islamic fundamentalists continues.

WOMEN'S SUFFRAGE

The struggle for women's rights achieved some success in the period after World War I. Women's suffrage became an issue after large groups of men obtained the right to vote in the 19th and 19th century in the Western world.

The women's suffrage movement in Britain was similar to that in the United States, but more violent. A key British leader was Mary Wollstonecraft who wrote A Vindication of the Rights of Women (1792). The Chartists also supported the demands of women in the 1830s and 1840s. However, the opposition remained strong and included Queen Victoria (r. 1837-1909) and two prominent Prime Ministers, Gladstone (1809-1898) and Disraeli (1804-1881).

By the 20th century, leadership of the British women's movement was in the hands of Emmeline Pankhurst (1858-1928). To achieve their goals, the British women broke windows, picketed, and used bombs. Suffragettes were frequently fined and jailed. However, World War I brought about a change in sentiment. The efforts of women in the military and the factories were rewarded with the right to vote for those over thirty in 1918. In 1928, universal suffrage was adopted for persons all over twenty-one.

Countries such as New Zealand (1893) and Australia (1902) were ahead of the European nations in extending the right to vote to women. Most European nations did so after World War I. However, Italy, Japan, China, and India did not grant women suffrage until after World War II. By the 1980s, women had the right to vote in most nations except for a few Muslim countries. Women political leaders also emerged including Prime Minister Golda Meir (Israel), Prime Minister Indira Gandhi (India), Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher (UK), and Prime Minister Benazir Bhutto (Pakistan).

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1 westernization (convert to the customs of Western civilization)
2 secularization (to draw away from religious orientation and to transfer from ecclesiastical or religious to civil or lay use or ownership)
3 infrastructure (basic facilities, services, and installations needed for the functioning of a community or society)
4 women's suffrage (right or privilege of women to vote)
Mini Assessment

Which statement best describes the position of the League of Nations in international affairs between 1936-1939?

1. It suppressed and minimized conflicts between nations.
2. It successfully applied sanctions against aggressor nations.
3. It was unable to deal with aggression by major powers.
4. It used military means to enforce its decisions.

2. "We have tried every means — processions and meetings — which were of no avail. We have tried demonstrations, and now at least we have to break windows... You only have one point of view and that is the men’s, and while men have done the best they could, they cannot go far without the women..."

This statement was most likely made by a supporter of the ideas of the
1. suffragettes
2. Zionists
3. chauvinists
4. Moslem League

3. Many Germans thought that the Treaty of Versailles was unfair because
1. Germany was not involved in the crises which led to the War
2. bases for peace in the 14 Points were ignored in the Treaty of Versailles
3. the U.S. claimed many of Germany’s former colonies
4. they resented the loss of Alsace-Lorraine to Britain

Constructed Response:
Use the maps below (also found on pages 184 and 188) to answer the following questions.

1. What happened to the Austria-Hungarian, Russian, and Ottoman Empires after WWI?

2. What do the new states resulting from the World War I peace treaties indicate about the priorities of the participants in the Paris Peace Conference?

RISE OF FASCISM

As a political philosophy, fascism varied from country to country. Generally, its supporters believed that democracy was a sign of weakness. They sought centralization of authority, strict obedience to the state, the use of violence, suppression of the opposition through terror and censorship, and chauvinism (extreme, belligerent nationalism). Many members of fascist groups were from the industrial and land hold-

\[1\] fascism (system of government marked by centralization of authority under a dictator, stringent socioeconomic controls, suppression of the opposition through terror and censorship, and typically a policy of belligerent nationalism and racism)
ing classes or the lower middle class. In some countries, their rivals for power were the communists whose support came from the working class. The fascists and communists used similar tactics. However, the fascists eventually supported private ownership of property under strict state control while the communists wanted government ownership of the means of production.

**MUSSOLINI AND ITALIAN FASCISM**

In Italy, there were postwar problems with war debts, unemployment, peasant seizures of land, sit-down strikes by workers, and weak coalition governments. Many of these problems were blamed on the failure of Italy to gain what it expected from the Paris peace settlement.

Benito Mussolini (1883-1945), son of a school teacher and a blacksmith, was able to use these problems to rise to power. Originally, his Fascist Party (Fasci di Combattimento) supported worker demands, but later it became the defender of law and order and private ownership of property. The Italian fascists formed a paramilitary group, the “Blackshirts,” to protect their meetings and harass their opponents. Beatings, murder, and arson were used against others. In 1922, Mussolini and the Blackshirts organized a March on Rome. King Victor Emmanuel III named Mussolini premier, and the first fascist government came to power legally.

**GERMAN FASCISM: NAZISM**

In Germany, the weak Weimar Republic (1919-1933) was plagued by forces from the left (communists) and from the right (fascists). Long used to strong, autocratic regimes, the German people lacked respect for the Republic’s democratic government. It treated the opposition mercilessly even when its activities seemed treasonable. Conservatives and elitists who lacked respect for the government dominated the courts, the educational system, and the military. A host of small political parties led to changing coalition governments. At times, Presidents Ebert and von Hindenburg resorted to using emergency powers. The German people also blamed this government for signing the hated Treaty of Versailles.

Economic hardship plagued Germany in the postwar period. The loss of its colonies and overseas investments, plus the trade restrictions imposed by other nations made it impossible to pay the reparations ($35 billion in compensation or remuneration for damages to the Allies) required by the Treaty of Versailles. In addition, Germany had its own war debts in excess of 47 billion dollars.

In the 1923, Ruhr Crisis, France declared Germany in default and sent in troops to occupy the mining and industrial center of the Ruhr. The Weimar government urged workers to refuse to work for the French and promised to pay their wages. The government increased printing of paper money and created runaway inflation. At its peak, four trillion German marks equaled one U.S. dollar in purchasing power. The United States came up with the Dawes Plan (1923) to ease the crisis. It lowered the yearly reparations payments and provided loans to Germany. The Weimar government then recalled the existing currency and issued new money. It was during the Ruhr Crisis that Adolph Hitler made his first attempt to seize power.

After the Ruhr Crisis, the period from 1924-1929 was relatively good for Germany. The economy stabilized and some prosperity returned. Germany also regained some status internationally. The Locarno Pact (1926) was a series of treaties involving Germany, France, and Belgium guaranteeing existing borders. Germany also accepted the concept of boundary arbitration with Czechoslovakia and Poland. As a result, Germany was admitted to the League of Nations. In 1928, it also signed the Kellogg-Briand Pact (Pact of Paris), pledging signatories not to resort to war as an instrument of national policy.

However, the Great Depression of the 1930s changed the picture dramatically for Germany. Based on their experience during the Ruhr Crisis, the middle class doubted the ability of the Weimar Republic to deal with the economic problems. Emotions ran high. Sentiment of the
harsh terms of the Treaty of Versailles continued. Many Germans began to support organized groups such as the communists or the fascists in hopes of reviving the economy. President von Hindenburgh began ruling by decree. In the 1932 elections, no party received a majority. The fascist National Socialist German Workers Party (Nazis) received the largest number of votes, and von Hindenburgh appointed Nazi leader Adolph Hitler as chancellor in 1933.

By 1938, only ten of twenty-seven governments in Europe were democratic. Often, the non-democratic governments were fascist. The lack of democratic tradition, low literacy rates, economic problems, desire for stability, fear of communism, and dissatisfied ethnic groups were factors in the decline of democracy.

WORLDWIDE DEPRESSION

In 1919 and the early 1920s, most countries experienced a postwar conversion depression. Unemployment increased as factories closed and others converted from wartime to peacetime production. Soldiers released from the military worsened the unemployment situation. Formerly strong European economies found themselves competing not only among themselves, but with a strengthened United States and other developing areas. During the War, countries in Latin America and Asia industrialized to meet the product demands formerly filled with imports from Europe.

By 1924, the global economy began to improve, and prosperity appeared to be slowly returning to war devastated countries. Yet the appearance of renewed prosperity hid a number of underlying problems:

- Overproduction in agriculture and industry led to lower prices, lower wages, lessened demand, and increasing unemployment.
- High tariffs (import taxes) diminished world trade.
- An unprecedented rise in the stock market led investors to buy on margin (with borrowed money).

When business profits declined, investors began selling stock to pay their margin loans. The rash of selling led to “Black Friday,” the stock market crash in October 1929, when New York Stock Exchange prices plummeted. The crash uncovered a variety of global weaknesses that caused the Great Depression. It spread worldwide with serious results around the globe.

From 1929 to 1932, there was a 38% decrease in world production. In 1932, at the depth of the Depression, 30 million were unemployed worldwide. Governments responded to this economic disaster in a variety of ways. Economic nationalism arose as governments tried to protect their markets from foreign competition. Some nations devalued their currencies. Nations abandoned the gold standard and increased tariffs.

In the United States, President Franklin Roosevelt (1882-1945) instituted the “New Deal” program. It called for increased government spending on a variety of programs to ease the economic pain of American citizens. Roosevelt put into practice some ideas developed by English economist John Maynard Keynes (1883-1946). Keynes called for deficit spending in order to “prime the pump” (get the economy moving upward). Other governments, however, were very concerned about balancing the budget.
In Britain, a coalition government\(^1\) took steps to increase welfare, but was not prepared to spend its way out of the Depression. In Germany, there were 6 million unemployed at the peak of the Depression. Foreign loans stopped, and Germany was unable to meet its World War I reparations payments. Of the major economic powers in the 1930s, France suffered the least. Its balance between agriculture and industry left it less vulnerable to world market forces.

**JAPANESE EXPANSION AND MILITARISM**

In World War I, Japan was on the Allied side. It signed a treaty with Britain in 1902 and honored the commitment. However, it used the opportunity to seize German-controlled areas in China and the Pacific. It also forced China to accept the Twenty-one Demands granting Japan special privileges in Manchuria and on the Shantung Peninsula making Japan a colonial power in China. The 1919 Paris Peace Conference gave Japan mandates for German colonies north of the Equator and more rights on the Shantung Peninsula.

The War increased Japanese power and prestige. During the War, Japan expanded industrial production and acquired markets from war-beleaguered European producers. Japan also became a creditor nation and a rival for the United States in the Pacific region.

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\(^1\) Coalition government (combination of parties in order to obtain a voting majority)
The Washington Conference (1921–1922) attempted to deal with post-war naval arms race among the great powers. It also focused on some Far Eastern issues, attempting to stabilize East Asia and to provide for an independent Republic of China. Several agreements emerged from diplomatic efforts in Washington:

- The Four Power Treaty – (Britain, U.S., France, Japan) December 1921 agreement to respect possessions in the Far East
- The Five Power Naval Armaments Treaty – (Britain, France, U.S., Japan, Italy) February 1922 agreement arranged a 10 year cessation (break) in building major warships; the naval agreement established a battleship tonnage ratio in an attempt to stop a naval race (see graph); Japan resented its lack of equality with the other powers in this agreement
- The Nine-Power Treaty – pledged the signatories to respect the independence and territorial integrity of China and the Open Door Policy (a U.S. policy designed to keep Chinese trade open to all nations)

During the interwar years, the power and influence of the zaibatsu1 and the military increased in Japan. The zaibatsu needed new sources of raw materials and markets. Manchuria’s coal and iron mines and markets became a main target. In 1931, the Japanese used the excuse of a small bomb exploding near a Japanese-owned railroad to invade Manchuria. The League of Nations reacted by establishing the Lytton Commission to investigate. The Commission found the Japanese guilty of aggression, and their actions were condemned by the League. However, no further action was taken because of the reluctance of the other great powers to act. Japan established a puppet government in its new Chinese state of “Manchukuo.” In 1937, Japan invaded China proper in a prelude to World War II. The Japanese assault on Nanking was accompanied by so many atrocities2 that it was called the “rape of Nanking.” In the same year, Japan joined Germany and Italy in the Rome/Berlin/Tokyo Axis, a mutual non-aggression pact.

COLONIAL UNREST

Colonial people were also dissatisfied with the results of the Paris Peace Conference. Many of them had given troops and supplies to the Allies’ war effort hoping to receive more self-government or independence at the end of the War. The victors did not end colonial rule. Instead, they established a mandate system3 under League of Nations supervision. It was a renewal of colonialism in overseas territories of the former Central Powers. The British and French obtained mandates in Africa and parts of the Ottoman Empire. Japan and Australia took former German areas in the Pacific. As a consequence, the interwar period was marked by an increase in colonial nationalism and intensified demands for independence.

IRAN EMERGES

In Persia (name changed to Iran in 1935), Reza Khan (r. 1925–1941), expelled Soviet troops, overthrew the Shah, and established the Pahlavi Dynasty. His goals were to decrease or remove foreign influence, modernize, and secularize his country. He was able to win concessions from British oil interests. He obtained a greater share of the profits and promises to hire more local workers. Khan pursued a domestic program that was similar to Atatürk’s. He adopted Western clothing and alphabet, established an educational system based on that of France, and built industries and railroads. He changed the Islamic code of laws to one based on European laws and increased the rights of women, particularly in regard to marriage. Khan’s changes provoked the opposition of Islamic religious leaders. However, he held most of the power and had the support of the large landowners. The struggle between the forces of modernization and secularism still battle with tradition and religion in Iran today.

INDIA SMOLDER

In 1906, Muhammad Ali Jinnah (1876–1948) founded the Muslim League, a religiously based nationalist group. Originally, Jinnah supported the idea of an independent India with a coalition government of Hindus and Moslems and protection of Muslim rights. However, fear of Hindu domination led the Muslim League to demand an independent Muslim state. At least some of the heightened feelings between Hindus

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1 zaibatsu (powerful family-controlled commercial combine of Japan, Japanese conglomerate or cartel)
2 atrocities (acts of extreme cruelty and violence inflicted by an enemy armed force on civilians)
3 mandate (commission from the League of Nations authorizing a member nation to administer a territory)
“THE HOLY ONE”

During the 1920s, Mohandas K. Gandhi (1869-1948) emerged as the leader of the Congress Party. He was a Hindu from a comfortable middle class background. He was educated as a lawyer in London and went to live in South Africa where he encountered prejudice against Indians and advocated passive resistance.

After he returned to India in 1914, he encouraged Indians to use passive resistance, civil disobedience, and non-violence against the British. Gandhi also supported boycotts against British goods and encouraged Indian production of home spun textiles to counter India’s dependence on British imports. When his followers used violence or when he was imprisoned, he would often fast and pray for the violence to end. He opposed the caste system and the treatment of untouchables and women and also worked to help the poor.

In his Salt March (1930), Gandhi opposed the British monopoly on the production and sale of salt, a vital commodity for India. Thousands marched to the sea where Gandhi and others gathered salt. This defiance of British law led to his arrest and imprisonment. It is one of the most famous examples of Gandhi’s methods.

and Moslems can be attributed to the British policy of “divide and rule” which played one group off against the other.

Indians fought on the side of Britain in World War I and received promises of self-government after the War. However, the British took few steps in that direction. The Amritsar Massacre (1919) further disillusioned Indians. British soldiers fired on a group that gathered peacefully to protest British rule in violation of a ban on meetings. Over three hundred people were killed and a thousand wounded. This led the Congress Party to agitate for independence.

CHINA – TORN BY CIVIL STRIFE

During World War I, China dissolved into chaos and civil war between warlords. Sun Yixian (Sun Yat-sen) resigned as President of the Chinese Republic in 1912 in favor of General Yuan Shikai in hopes of a restoration of law and order. After Yuan’s death in 1916, civil war resumed. China also faced pressure from Japan for political and economic concessions during World War I. These concessions were largely approved by the Paris Peace Conference and continued China’s humiliation at the hands of foreigners. This led to the student-generated May 4th Movement, a protest against Chinese weakness. After the suppression of this movement, some of the students turned to communism as an answer to China’s problems.
Sun Yixian again emerged as a leader of a government in South China. He sought aid from the West, but was denied. He then turned to Russia which not only extended aid, but also gave up some of the territorial gains obtained under the tsars. As a result, Russia was perceived as a friend and the Chinese Communist Party allied with the Guomindang (Nationalist) Party of Sun in 1923.

After Sun’s death in 1925, Jiang Jieshu (Chiang Kai-shek, 1887-1975) emerged as the new leader of China and the Guomindang. He opposed the communists, and in 1927, his forces carried out a massacre in Shanghai that led to civil war. Mao Zedong (1893-1976), a communist leader, escaped the massacre and fled to the mountains of the south where he joined others and founded the Chinese Red Army. The Guomindang forced the communists to leave this area. They went on the Long March (1934-1935) to the borders with Russia. Of the approximately 90,000 people who undertook this March, about 50% died. Once the communists arrived, they established a government and began to win peasant support.

However, Jiang persuaded the Western powers to give up most of their gains from the old, unequal treaties of the 19th century. He won support of landowners and business groups but was unable to make the reforms necessary to win the support of the peasants. In 1931, he had to face Japanese aggression in Manchuria.

**THE MIDDLE EAST - RISING NATIONALIST**

Between the world wars, nationalism and the desire for independence strengthened among Arab nationalists and Zionists. The Pan-Arab Movement stressed the common ties among Arabs, pushed for an end to foreign control, and expressed anger at the post-war settlement.

Both the Arabs and the Jews aided the British war effort and received apparently conflicting promises for Palestine. At the Paris Peace Conference, much of the Middle East was divided between the French and the British under League mandates. Both countries wanted control of the area because of its important oil resources. Egypt (1922), Saudi Arabia (1927), and Iraq (1930) received independence and served as role models for others.

However, the main problem in the Middle East was Palestine. Zionists pushed for the creation of a Jewish state. Jewish immigration increased markedly during the 1920s and 1930s as a result of a rise in European anti-Semitism and fascism. Many immigrant Jews were prosperous and purchased factories and land from Arabs. This led to displacement of Arab tenant farmers, and their poverty levels increased. The Arabs demanded that the British limit Jewish immigration, because the land could not support a larger population. The British issued the White Paper of 1939 which limited the immigration, but World War II prevented implementation of the plan. The problem of Palestine continues to plague Middle Eastern peace today.

**WORLD WAR II: CAUSES AND IMPACT**

**THE NAZI STATE**

Germany faced many problems in the interwar period. The Weimar Republic was burdened with the responsibility of signing the Treaty of Versailles, a postwar depression, hostility from the right and left, very unpopular reparation payments, and a lack of support from the population. The Ruhr Crisis of 1923 and currency...
Mini Assessment

The rise of Soviet communism and Italian and German fascism indicate that
1. wars played no role in the rise of totalitarian governments
2. revolutionary leadership was provided by the poorest class
3. economic conditions often lead people to turn to extremist groups
4. the three groups had identical economic ideas

A key cause of the Great Depression that began in 1929 was
1. overvalued stocks and buying on margin
2. government spending in excess of income
3. constantly changing government economic policies
4. failure of Germany to make any reparation payments after 1924

3. Reza Khan and Kemal Ataturk were similar in their
   1. unwillingness to use violence
   2. opposition to modernization
   3. creation of republics in their countries
   4. desire to secularize their countries

Constructive Response:

Use the Washington Naval Conference graph on page 202 to answer the following questions:

1. Which two countries had the largest battleship tonnage numbers?

2. What arguments could be used to justify the large tonnage numbers for Britain?

Hitler began establishing a totalitarian state that would control all aspects of people's lives. The Ministry of Propaganda and Enlightenment, led by Paul Joseph Goebbels (1897-1945), censored newspapers and radio broadcasts and carried out book burnings. The Reich Culture Chambers controlled the work of artists, musicians, and writers. Young people were enrolled in the propaganda-oriented Nazi Youth Movement, and their education stressed physical fitness and obedience to the state. The local German states disappeared, and dedicated Nazis staffed the central government agencies - the civil service, courts, and universities. Opposition to der Fuhrer (the leader) was dangerous. Opposition parties and free labor unions were abolished, and religion was placed under government supervision. The Gestapo (secret police) struck terror into the hearts of all.

One of the Nazis' biggest challenges was the economic problems caused by the Great Depression. Industry remained in private hands but under the control of the government. It regulated production and controlled wages and working hours. The government launched an extensive public works program that included...
ADOLPH HITLER

Austrian born Adolph Hitler (1889-1945) made his first attempt to seize power at the height of the Ruhr Crisis. As leader of the small NSDAP (National Socialist German Workers’ Party), Hitler planned the Munich “Beer Hall Putsch” (8 November 1923) to seize control of the state government of Bavaria. The coup attempt was quickly put down. Hitler was arrested, tried, and convicted, but served only nine months of a five-year sentence.

While in prison, he wrote Mein Kampf (“My Struggle”), it described a vision of Germany flowing from his key ideas (anti-Semitism, anti-Communism, Aryan racial superiority, nationalism, the state’s superiority over the individual, and hostility to democracy). His “master race” theories evolved to proclaim that the Germans were the superior race made up of light skinned, blue eyed, blond-haired people. All other peoples were ranked according to their closeness to the Aryans.

After his release from prison, Hitler decided to take the legal way to power. During the calmer period of relative prosperity in Germany (1924-1929), he built up the Nazi Party and practiced his political skills. The Great Depression gave him his opportunity. In the election of 1932, the Nazis won the largest number of votes, but not a majority. Conservative politicians persuaded the ailing General von Hindenburg to appoint Hitler as chancellor in 1933. Thus, as was true of Mussolini, Hitler rose to power legally.

the famous autobahns (high speed highways). The Nazis also began a secret rearmament program, in violation of the Treaty of Versailles. Nazi military spending created jobs and acted to stimulate the economy.

The government removed women from most jobs. The role of women was to stay home and raise children for the Nazi Reich (empire). To achieve autarchy¹, a number of substitutes for products such as rubber, textiles, and plastics were developed. Outside trade, when essential, was based on barter or bilateral trade agreements and designed to benefit Germany. Many Germans sensed an improvement in the standard of living and were willing to exchange their civil and political rights for it.

ANTI-SEMITISM AND THE HOLOCAUST

Anti-Semitism reached new levels in Hitler’s Third Reich. Jews experienced periods of intense prejudice marked by segregation, discriminatory legislation, expulsion, and violent purges (pogroms). Anti-Semitism in Germany increased during the late 19th century when philosophers such as Friedrich Nietzsche (1844-1900) proclaimed that the Germans were the best and that the race must be kept pure.

Under the Nazis, the Nuremberg Laws (1935) cost the Jews their German citizenship, forbid them to marry non-Jews, and largely eliminated them from the economy. Those who wished to leave Germany had to give up their wealth and possessions. After the murder of a German diplomat in France and accusations were made against a Jew, the Nazis embarked on Kristallnacht (Night of Broken Glass, November 1938). Jewish homes, shops, and synagogues were attacked. Insurance payments for

¹ autarchy (policy of national self-sufficiency and nonreliance on imports or economic aid)
the damage done were confiscated by the state.

After World War II started, the Nazis forced the Jews to work in defense industries and sent them to concentration camps. The Third Reich adopted the “Final Solution” in 1941. It called for the systematic elimination of the Jewish people. In concentration camps such as Dachau and Auschwitz, the Nazis forced Jews to work as slave laborers, subjected them to medical experimentation, or exterminated them in gas chambers.

The Nazis used genocide against Jews in all countries that fell under their control. By the end of World War II, 83-90% of the Jews living in the Baltic States, Poland, Germany, Austria, and Czechoslovakia were killed. In what became known as the Holocaust, two-thirds of European Jews died—an estimated 6 million human beings. Other groups suffered severe losses, too. Poles, gypsies, the disabled, political opponents, “undesirables,” and Jehovah’s Witnesses died—approximately 3 to 6 million individuals.

1919 Paris Peace Settlement. Militarism reemerged in the early 1930s.

With the onset of the Great Depression, nations struggling to survive limited the diplomatic efforts that began in 1920s to decrease the arms buildup. While the democracies tried to relieve Depression problems through social welfare and public works programs, fascist countries stimulated their economies by rebuilding their military armaments.

One difference from the prelude to World War I was that competing alliance systems were absent prior to World War II. Only the loose Rome-Berlin Axis emerged in 1936 (formalized in 1939, with other allies added later in WWII). There was no offsetting alliance to balance it.

The League of Nations provided a forum for discussing international problems and solved a few minor ones, but it was ineffective when the interests of the Great Powers were involved. Japan withdrew from the League in 1931 and Germany did the same in 1933.

In the 1930s the militarist states began a pattern of aggression that tested the resolve of the democracies to maintain the world order set at Versailles. In response, the League of Nations failed to take decisive action, and the Western powers employed neutrality and appeasement.

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1 concentration camp (camp where prisoners of war, enemy aliens, and political prisoners are detained and confined, typically under harsh conditions)
2 genocide (systematic extermination of an entire ethnic group)
3 Holocaust (genocide of European Jews and others by the Nazis during World War II)
4 appeasement (policy of granting concessions to potential enemies to maintain peace)
**ROAD TO GLOBAL WAR**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aggressors / Crisis</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>A suspicious minor bombing of Japan’s South Manchurian Railroad created an excuse to spread forces throughout Manchuria and create the puppet state of Manchukuo. The League of Nations condemned Japan’s actions. Japan then withdrew from the League.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manchurian Crisis (1931)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>Italy attacked from its colonies in Eritrea and Somaliland. Conquest created a large Italian East Africa province and heightened Italian nationalism for Mussolini’s fascism. League imposed weak sanctions and later cancelled them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopian Invasion (1935)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy and Germany</td>
<td>German and Italian armies tested their weapons and tactics. Fascist victory brought Generalissimo Francisco Franco (1892-1975) to power. Destruction in Spain kept it out of World War II.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish Civil War (1936-1939)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>Hitler forced the Austrian leaders to accept Nazis in the government, then invaded, and forced it into union (Anschluss) with Germany.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austrian Anschluss (1938)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>Hitler demanded the predominantly German-speaking Sudetenland in western Czechoslovakia. At the International Munich Conference, France and Britain appeased Hitler (gave in to avoid war).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sudeten Appeasement (Czechoslovakia, 1938)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The final step prior to the outbreak of war was the signing of the Nazi-Soviet Non-Aggression Pact in August, 1939. Stalin signed this agreement with Hitler to avoid war at least temporarily. The purges of the Red Army leadership in the late 1930s left the U.S.S.R. weak. Hitler wished to avoid a two-front war. They also agreed to divide Eastern Europe between them. A week after the document was signed, the Germans began their blitzkrieg (lightning war) attack on Poland. Britain and France honored their commitments to protect Poland and declared war on Germany.

**THE WORLD AT WAR**

World War II was largely an offensive war. Weapons that first saw service in World War I (airplanes, tanks, motorized vehicles) swiftly changed attack strategies and battle tactics. The German blitzkrieg defeated Poland in about one month. Of course, the belligerents developed many new weapons during the course of World War II. In the air, radar made it possible for the Royal Air Force of Britain to win the Battle of Britain against the German Luftwaffe. At sea, sonar helped to detect the presence of German U-boats. It made it possible for U.S. convoys in the Atlantic to supply the Allies. Magnetic sea mines and the Schnorchel underwater breathing device also revolutionized naval warfare. Toward the end of the War, the Germans began to use V-1 and V-2 jet-propelled bombs – the forerunners of modern guided missiles.

However, the most devastating development by Allied scientists (including some refugees from Nazi Germany) was the atomic bomb. The decision to use the atomic bomb created much controversy. U.S. President Harry S Truman (1884-1972) hoped that lives might be saved if an invasion of the Japanese main islands could be avoided. The intense fighting by Japanese soldiers on Iwo Jima and the mass suicides by soldiers and civilians on Okinawa influenced his thinking. However, the tremendous loss of life that occurred and the subsequent health effects on those still alive and on future generations led many to question the correctness of the decision.

**WARTIME CONFERENCES**

During World War II, allied leaders met at several conferences to discuss strategy and the nature of the postwar world. President Franklin D. Roosevelt (1882-1945) and Prime Minister Winston Churchill (1874-1965) met at sea off Newfoundland and drew up the Atlantic Charter in August 1941.

**Key Points of the Atlantic Charter:**
- restoration of self-government for those who had lost it
- access to world trade and resources for all
- freedom from fear and want
### Strategic Events of World War II: Europe and North Africa

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Invasion of Poland, 1939</td>
<td>German blitzkrieg (fast-moving, air-and-land strategy) conquered Poland in about one month with use of dive bombers, 6 panzer-tank and 4 motorized divisions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Battle of Britain 1940</td>
<td>German Luftwaffe's attempt (August 1940 - May 1941) to destroy Britain's defenses prior to a cross-Channel invasion; Royal Air Force use of radar made daylight raids too dangerous; Luftwaffe resorted to night attacks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Africa 1940-1943</td>
<td>British defeat of Italian forces in E. Africa by February 1941 led Germans to send &quot;Desert Fox&quot; Erwin Rommel's crack tank divisions (Afrika Korps) to push British back to Egypt and threaten Suez; British Gen. Montgomery defeated Rommel at El-Alamein (November 1942); opened way for Allied invasion of the western part of North Africa: forced Axis troops into Tunisia where they surrendered May 1943</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Invasion of the U.S.S.R. 1942-1943</td>
<td>German invasion began June 1942 with victory expected in 10 weeks; 3-pronged attack against Leningrad (St. Petersburg), Moscow, and Stalingrad (Volgograd) failed - Russian winter and German supply difficulties were major factors; Russia launched counterattack in winter of 1942-1943; at Stalingrad, 300,000 Germans surrendered and rest of the German army slowly began retreating from the U.S.S.R.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Invasion of Normandy &quot;D-Day,&quot; 1944</td>
<td>U.S. Gen. Eisenhower led Allies' cross-Channel Invasion of German-held France (Operation Overlord, June 1944); DeGaulle's Free French and Resistance forces liberated Paris; drive of Allies for Germany interrupted by vicious German counterattack at Battle of the Bulge (December 1944 - January 1945); Eastern and Western Allied advances into Germany ended in final surrender 8 May 1945</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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**European Theater World War II Allied Offensives 1942-1945**

At the Teheran Conference (Iran, late 1943), Churchill and Roosevelt met with Stalin. The Normandy invasion was confirmed and Stalin agreed to launch a simultaneous attack on Germany's eastern front. The occupation and demilitarization of postwar Germany were discussed, and plans were made for a new international organization to replace the League of Nations.

The "Big Three" met again at the Yalta Conference in early 1945. Decisions were made regarding Poland and Eastern Europe, disarmament and division of Germany into occupation zones, the organization and voting arrangements for the
### STRATEGIC EVENTS OF WORLD WAR II: ASIA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearl Harbor Attack 1941</td>
<td>Japanese surprise attack 7 December 1941 on U.S. naval base in Hawaii used carrier-based planes; crippled the U.S. Pacific fleet destroying and damaging 18 major ships and 200 aircraft, and killing 3,600; U.S. declared war on Japan and subsequently entered WWII against Axis Powers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Invasion of the Philippines 1942</td>
<td>Right after Pearl Harbor, Japan attacked Wake Island, Guam, British Malaya, Singapore, the Dutch East Indies, Burma, and Thailand; in the Philippines, Bataan fell (January 1942) after heavy fighting; U.S. Gen. MacArthur evacuated to Australia (February 1942); survivors of Bataan held out at Corregidor until May 1942 and suffered a grueling “death march” to Japanese prison camps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Battles of the Coral Sea and Midway 1942</td>
<td>Battles fought by carrier based aircraft; Allied Coral Sea victory discouraged Japanese invasion of Australia; loss of 4 Japanese carriers and 5 other ships at Midway (June 1942) blocked invasion of Hawaii and put Japan’s grand strategy on hold</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Island Hopping 1942-1945</td>
<td>Strategy of invading selected islands to avoid high casualties; gave Allies staging areas for attacks on Japanese home islands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of Atomic Bombs 1945</td>
<td>U.S. warned Japan of its possession of a new weapon of mass destruction; refusal to surrender led to (August 1945) decision to drop 1st A-bomb on Hiroshima, killing 78,000; 2nd bomb dropped on Nagasaki, killing 40,000, led to formal surrender 2 September 1945</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
United Nations, and conditions for Russian entrance into the War against Japan.

By the **Potsdam Conference** in the summer of 1945, Roosevelt had died and Clement Atlee had replaced Churchill as British Prime Minister. Germany was to be disarmed, demilitarized, denazified. Plans were made to try war criminals (Nuremberg Trials, 1945-1946). The conference agreed that the Soviet Union would take reparations from its occupation zone as compensation for war damages suffered. Also, they made changes in the boundaries in Eastern Europe.

**WORLD WAR II: OUTCOMES**

The second global war in less than a generation resulted in 40 million deaths and cost over one trillion, 100 billion dollars, excluding civilian property. It devastated the powers of Western Europe. Their weakness encouraged colonial peoples to demand independence. In some cases, independence came without violence, but in others, violence erupted. Two superpowers emerged from the war — the United States and the Soviet Union. Competition between these two giants dominated international politics for over forty years.

The period between World War I and World War II itself had tremendous impact on literature and art. In totalitarian countries, the arts reflected the tastes and goals of the dictators. In Germany, Hitler approved of pictures showing laborers working for the Reich, nationalistic themes, and sentimental nudes. Heroic Art featured the Aryan Theme. Art exhibits had to be approved by the government, and the government censored artists whose works did not fulfill the requirements of the state. Hitler also favored the musical works of 19th century German nationalist composer **Richard Wagner** (1813-1883), and at least one piece of Wagner’s music had to be included in almost every concert in Germany.

Literature was also restricted by the government. Book burnings included works by Jewish authors and even Erich Remarque whose book *All Quiet on the Western Front*, condemned war and sympathized with the plight of the common soldier. Remarque opposed the Nazi government and left Germany in 1932. Stalin favored “social realism” in art. It often included workers or soldiers whose activities benefitted the state. Modern art was banned from most museums and art shows under his dictatorship.

Outside of the dictatorships, the ideas of Frey, the unconscious, and surrealism continued to influence art. Perhaps the most famous picture of the period was **Pablo Picasso’s** “Guernica” (1937). It displayed his outrage at the bombing of a Spanish town during the Spanish Civil War. The German Luftwaffe used the town to test civilian reaction to saturation bombing. The picture involves complex symbolism, but Picasso’s horror of war was evident. **Wassily Kandinski’s** work became increasingly geometric after World War I. He refined his geometric style using lines, circles, and arcs. One of his best known works was “Circle and Square” (1943). **Paul Klee** turned to brooding and gloomy subjects as was evident in “Death and Fire” (1940).

American writer **Ernest Hemingway’s** works reflected reaction to World War I and the crises leading to World War II. The Sun Also Rises (1926) told of people who lost their belief in moral values because of World War I. It reflected the thinking of the “lost generation.” In For Whom the Bell Tolls (1940), a work about the Spanish Civil War, he warned that the loss of liberty in one place endangered it everywhere.

**TIME CAPSULE: 1900 – 1945**

The first half of the 20th century was marked by tremendous achievements, especially in science and technology. The emergence of totalitarian governments after global wars. Many movements were made in medicine and methods of fighting the ill. As a result, life expectancy was improved. Many of the developments in science and technology also came from methods of fighting wars. Some of these
1. Hitler believed that power rested with the people, all people were equal before law, Germans were the greatest race, and religious toleration was important.

2. The Manchurian Crisis, the Ethiopian Crisis, and the Spanish Civil War illustrate the idea that appeasement helps to avoid war, years of tension often result in war, only German and Japanese actions led to World War II, and international agreements are often effective in settling problems.

3. “Germany, the United Kingdom, France, and Italy, taking into consideration the agreement, which has been already readied...for the cession to Germany of the Sudeten German territory, have agreed on the following terms and conditions...”

This statement is part of the
1. Treaty of Versailles
2. Locarno Agreements
3. Nine Power Agreements
4. Munich Agreement

"Final Solution" in which he took the lives of millions.

Both world wars were expensive in terms of human life and the resources involved in fighting. Both also led to enormous changes. World War I sparked colonial nationalism which was then ignored when the victors retained their colonies and expanded their areas of control through the mandate system. However, after World War II there was an explosion of independence among the colonies. Some achieved this status peacefully, but others fought prolonged wars. Both wars resulted in the establishment of international organizations in hopes of preserving the peace. The League of Nations’ limited success in the political field led to differences in the structure and organization of the United Nations in an attempt to achieve better results.
MULTI-CHOICE QUESTIONS

1. The first stage of the Russian Revolution of 1917 (Provisional Government) was similar to the first stage of the French Revolution of 1789 (National Assembly) because in both
   1. moderate, bourgeois leaders were in control
   2. a reign of terror occurred to remove opposition
   3. execution of the deposed royal families occurred
   4. major democratic documents became law

2. The New Economic Policy (1921-1927) in the U.S.S.R. (Russia) most resembled a
   1. free market economy
   2. traditional economy
   3. command economy
   4. mixed economy

3. The Bolsheviks were able to win support in Russia in 1917 because they
   1. promised to establish a Western-style democracy
   2. pledged to carry out immediate land reform
   3. controlled the Tsarist army officers
   4. had the support of Russia's war allies

4. Under Stalin, Russification was designed to
   1. promote increased economic production
   2. increase the loyalty of ethnic groups
   3. spread Russian culture beyond the U.S.S.R.
   4. encourage support of the Russian Orthodox Church

5. The Manchurian Crisis (1931) indicated that Japan
   1. wished to continue its close friendship with China
   2. would obey the provisions of the Nine Power Treaty
   3. used aggression to acquire markets and raw materials
   4. needed a military victory before joining the Axis

6. Which conclusion is correct based on the graph above and your knowledge of global history?
   1. Soviet 5-Year Plans always emphasized the production of consumer goods.
   2. Command economies provide the best approach to economic development.
   3. World War I and the Russian Revolution had no impact on industrial production.
   4. Initial Soviet 5-Year plans increased production of goods necessary for heavy industry.

7. Which statement about culture in the period between the two World Wars is most accurate?
   1. In totalitarian countries, writers and artists had to serve the purposes of the state.
   2. Art and literature rarely reflected the problems of the time.
   3. Realism was the major artistic influence in Western Europe.
   4. Writers and artists rarely had their work censored.
8 The battles of El Alamein, Stalingrad, and the Coral Sea were
1 defeats for German forces
2 significant turning points in World War II
3 steps toward allied control of Europe
4 major naval victories for Britain

9 The apparently conflicting promises made to the Jews in the Balfour Declaration and the Arabs in the Arab-British Correspondence occurred during World War I because Britain
1 was concerned about French influence in the Middle East
2 needed to defeat the forces of T.E. Lawrence
3 wished to win approval of U.S. public opinion
4 desired the help of Jews and Arabs in winning the War

10 Which correctly describes the setting of Eastern Europe prior to World War I?
1 The population was homogenous with few minority groups.
2 It was dominated by three large multinational empires.
3 Expansive plains dominated the entire area.
4 The Danube River was no longer an avenue of trade and commerce.

11 The Russian Revolution of 1905 was significant because it
1 allowed the communists to seize power
2 led to the establishment of democracy in Russia
3 destroyed the paternalistic relationship between the people and the Tsar
4 resulted in freedom for the serfs

12 The occurrence of World War I demonstrates the idea that
1 alliance systems often lead to war
2 a single incident can be the only cause of war
3 nationalism rarely leads to war
4 military strength helps to avoid war

13 Critics of British and French policies in the 1930s might argue that
1 democratic nations fail to recognize danger
2 neutrality helps to prevent wars
3 appeasement often leads to further aggression
4 collective security agreements are the only way to prevent war

14 A condition common to the periods prior to World War I and World War II was
1 the lack of an international organization to deal with disputes
2 the existence of competing alliance systems
3 communist expansion into Eastern Europe
4 a series of crises among the major powers

15 Which of these statements about the nature of World War II is accurate?
1 It was a war fought primarily with atomic weapons and missiles.
2 It was a defensive war in which front lines hardly changed.
3 Sea power played almost no role in the outcome.
4 It was a highly mobile, fast moving war.
THEMATIC ESSAY

Theme: Diversity

Throughout history, many peoples have had difficulty accepting and treating other ethnic groups fairly and justly.

Task:
- Define ethnic group.
- Select one ethnic group which you have studied and explain how it was unfairly or unjustly treated.
- Discuss how this ethnic group reacted, and what, if any, action, it or the international community took to end the treatment.

Suggestions:
You may use any ethnic group from your study of global history that was unfairly or unjustly treated. Some groups you might wish to consider include: Armenians in the Ottoman Empire (20th century), Ukrainians in the Soviet Union (1930s), Jews in Germany (1933-1945), Indians in British India (1900-1945). You are not limited to these suggestions.

[Note: You may not use any ethnic group from the U.S.]

DOCUMENT BASED QUESTION

Directions:
The following question is based on the accompanying documents (1-8). Some of these documents have been edited for the purposes of this exercise. This question is designed to test your ability to work with historical documents. As you analyze the documents, take into account both the source of the document and the author’s point of view.

- Write a well-organized essay that includes an introduction with a thesis statement, several paragraphs explaining the thesis, and a conclusion.
- Analyze the documents.
- Use all the documents.
- Use evidence from the documents to support your position.
- Do not simply repeat the contents of the documents.
- Include specific related outside information.

Historical Context:
The issue of which country was to blame of causing World War I (1914-1918) is very controversial. The documents below express different opinions on this question.

Task:
Decide which country was to blame for causing World War I and support your opinion with the documents below and your knowledge of global history.

Part A - Short Answer
The documents below relate to the question of which country caused World War I. Examine each document carefully, and then answer the question that follows it.
Document 1 Question:
What does the cartoon indicate about the expansionist goals of Germany?

Document 2:

"[The British Foreign Minister] could probably have prevented war if he had done either of two things. If, he had given in to the urging of France and Russia and given a strong warning to Germany that...England would take the side of the Franco-Russian Alliance... Or if [he]... warned France and Russia early in the crisis, that if they became involved in war, England would remain neutral."

— Origins of the World War, 1930

Document 2 Question:
What does the author indicate that the British could have done to avoid war?

Document 3:

"Germany pursued no aim either in Europe or elsewhere which could only be achieved by means of war...France aimed at recovering Alsace Lorraine...whilst Russia wished to possess Constantinople and the Straits, both powers knowing well that these aims could not be achieved without a European war."

— The Case for the Central Powers, 1925

Document 3 Question:
According to the author what aims of France and Russia may have contributed to the outbreak of war?
Document 4 Question:

Why might the position of Germany lead to an early declaration of war?

Document 5:

"...[Kaiser William II] is not blind to the danger which threatens Austria-Hungary and thus the Triple Alliance as a result of the Russian and Serbian PanSlavic agitation. ...His Majesty will faithfully stand by Austria-Hungary as is required by the obligation of his alliance and of his ancient friendship."

-Chancellor of Germany to the German Ambassador at Vienna, July 6, 1914

Document 5 Question:

How does this document help to explain Austro-Hungarian willingness to send Serbia an ultimatum?

Document 6:

"...I am struck by the way the [French] Minister of Justice and his colleagues correctly understand the situation and how firm and calm is their decision to give us the most complete support and to avoid the least appearance of difference of view between us."

-Russian Ambassador at Paris to Russian Foreign Secretary, July 14, 1914

Document 6 Question:

How does this document help to explain Russia's willingness to back Serbia?
Document 7:

Document 7 Question:
Why did this event, depicted in the drawing, contribute to the outbreak of war?

---

Document 8:

"The Royal Serbian Government will furthermore pledge itself:
1 to suppress every publication which encourages hate and contempt for Austria-Hungary...
2 to agree to allow Austrian-Hungarian officials to act in Serbia to end the movement directed against Austria-Hungary...."

—Excerpt of Austrian demands given to Serbs, July 23, 1914. [Demanded reply by July 25, 1914.]

Document 8 Question:
In what way might agreeing to these demands infringe on Serbia's sovereignty?

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Part B - Essay Response

Discuss which country caused World War I.

Your essay should be well organized with an introductory paragraph that states your thesis as to which country started World War I. Develop and support the reasons for your thesis in the next paragraphs and then write a conclusion. In your essay, include specific historical details and refer to the specific documents you analyzed in Part A. You may include additional information from your knowledge of global history.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AD</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1945-</td>
<td>India and Pakistan Independent (1947)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>U.N. Declaration of Human Rights (1948)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hungarian Revolution (1956)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1955-</td>
<td>Cuban Missile Crisis (1962)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965-</td>
<td>European Community established (1967)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975-</td>
<td>global oil crisis (1973)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1979-</td>
<td>Iranian Revolution (1979)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>destruction of the Berlin Wall (1990)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998-</td>
<td>India and Pakistan nuclear tests (1998)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Soviets build part of the Iron Curtain – the Berlin Wall.
**INTRODUCTION**

Global changes began when World War II ended in 1945. Tensions between the United States and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics led to a generation of Cold War confrontations. The early spread – and later retreat – of communism and command economies sparked major shifts in governmental policies. As imperialism declined, the attempts of the superpowers\(^1\) to influence the new nations aroused concern in the international community as the emerging nations struggled to stabilize their governments and make economic progress.

The force of nationalism remained strong. It motivated ethnic groups to demand independence. They often achieved that independence by violence against other groups. Yet, this period also saw some solutions to global issues. The progress toward economic union in Europe and elsewhere, the end to apartheid\(^2\), the decline in the arms race, and the willingness of the United Nations and other international groups to act to end aggression and promote peace, all these provided hope for the future.

**COLD WAR**

**BALANCE OF POWER**

**GERMANY AND JAPAN:**

**THE LESSONS OF WAR**

In the aftermath of World War II, the economies of Western European nations were aided by the U.S. financed Marshall Plan. This program required the European countries to plan together and stimulated their cooperation. They quickly realized that increased coordination and unity promised better economic progress. This led to a series to steps taken by Belgium, the Netherlands, Luxemburg, France, and West Germany that resulted in the European Union of today:

- **1952 – European Coal and Steel Community (E.C.S.C.)** – removed barriers to free movement of iron, coal, and steel across their borders
- **1958 – Euratom** – promoted cooperation in nuclear research and development of peaceful uses of atomic energy
- **1958 – European Economic Community (E.E.C. – the "Common Market")** – removed trade barriers among members, established uniform trade policies against outsiders, and increased competition and movement of capital and labor among members

In 1967, these three agencies were joined to form the **European Community** (E.C.). The 1991 Maastricht Treaty called for the establishment of a central bank, a common currency, and movement toward a closer political union. In 1995, the name was changed to the **European Union** (E.U.). New members gradually added included: Denmark, United Kingdom, Ireland, Spain, Portugal, United Germany, Austria, Finland, and Sweden. The common currency (euro) was scheduled to begin circulation on 1 January 1999 in all but four of the fifteen members. The members of this economic union had a combined economy almost as large as that of the U.S. and larger than that of Japan.

In the years after World War II, West Germany emerged as an economic powerhouse with the assistance of U.S. aid. By quickly

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\(1\) superpower (powerful and influential nation, especially a nuclear power that dominates its allies or client states in an international power bloc)

\(2\) apartheid (official policy of racial segregation practiced in the Republic of South Africa, involving political, legal, and economic discrimination against nonwhites)
rebuilding industries destroyed by World War II with the newest technology, West Germany gained a large share of the world's market. Low labor costs, high savings rates, large private investment, and the high quality of West German products helped this resurgence. Credit went to the chemical, iron, steel, and engineering sectors. This so-called "economic miracle" also owed much to the "guest workers" from less developed European countries. Their labor was a necessary part of the rebuilding because of German war losses.

The post-war West German government was democratic and had a bicameral (two-house) legislature: the Bundestag (lower house) elected by the people and the Bundesrat (upper house) represented the states. The president represented the country internationally, but the effective head of government was the chancellor who was advised by the Cabinet of Ministers. The first elected chancellor was Konrad Adenauer (1876-1967). He quickly became a highly respected international leader. However, controversy over the election and appointments of former Nazis continued to be a problem on the German political scene.

Economic success also came to Japan after the World War II. The U.S. occupation, under the leadership of General Douglas MacArthur, helped to lay the groundwork for an industrial economy based on importation of raw materials and exportation of manufactured products. As in the case of Germany, the rebuilding included the most modern technology. This enabled the Japanese, in a very short time, to compete with the U.S., especially in the production of electronic goods. The Japanese work ethic, high education levels, high savings rate, and lifetime employment philosophy aided the recovery. Low defense costs, aided by constitutional limitations and U.S. protection, allowed the government to channel revenues to private industry. Also, Japan invested in Asia and Southeast Asia to take advantage of low labor costs and other economic incentives. At times, these investments encountered resistance from other nations because of resentment over wartime experiences.

Some problems did develop in the Japanese economy. Government protection of home industries and restrictions placed on foreign imports caused resentment and protests, most notably from the United States. The close ties between the government and the keiretsu1 led to accusations of corruption and government resignations. Beginning in the early 1980s, a recession in Japan's overvalued real estate and stock markets affected the world economy. Some companies gave up their lifetime employment policies and began to downsize2. Bankruptcies increased, and the government seemed unable to make the necessary changes to restore confidence among the Japanese and the international community.

The occupation by the U.S. armed forces also led to a major change in Japanese government. The 1946 constitution established a democratic

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1 keiretsu (large, diverse, but networked companies and banking houses)
2 downsize (reduce operations or scope of enterprises)
### WARTIME “BIG THREE” CONFERENCES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conference</th>
<th>Significant Decisions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teheran – 1943</td>
<td>Agreed to open a second front against Germany on the continent of Europe and attack from all directions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yalta – 1945</td>
<td>Divided Germany into occupation zones and pushed democratization and due punishment for war criminals. Guaranteed the Poles a broader based democratic government and free and fair elections. Russia promised to enter war against Japan in exchange for territory in the Far East.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potsdam – 1945</td>
<td>Confirmed Yalta agreements and virtually gave the Soviet Union control of Eastern Europe.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Basis for the government. The emperor became a constitutional monarch, the Diet (parliament) was elected, women gained the right to vote, and local governments received increased powers. Also, the government made provisions for the guarantee of basic rights.

### EMERGENCE OF THE SUPERPOWERS

Two superpowers emerged at the end of World War II – the United States and Soviet Union. Europe and Japan were devastated and faced massive post war rebuilding efforts. The European nations could not reestablish control of many of their colonies. Many were either granted independence or rebelled to achieve it. The Cold War quickly developed between the United States and Soviet Union. The Soviets sought to extend their areas of influence in Europe and the developing nations. The United States met this expansion attempt with a policy of containment designed to limit the spread of communism. The two countries also became rivals in science, technology, culture, sports, and military and economic development. The “Iron Curtain” (a term popularized by Winston Churchill) descended on Europe. Cold War tensions began to ease in the 1970s and with the emergence of Mikhail Gorbachev (1931-) and his 1985 reform policies. Confrontation began to turn toward East–West cooperation.

### COLD WAR CONFRONTATIONS

Toward the end of World War II, as Soviet troops pushed the Germans back across Eastern Europe, the Soviets established satellite governments in the newly liberated countries.

Despite the efforts of the Western powers at the Allies’ wartime conferences, Stalin would not allow the free elections he had promised. In an effort to contain the spread of communism, U.S. Secretary of State George C. Marshall proposed the European Recovery Program in 1947. In what later became known as the Marshall Plan, approximately $12.5 billion was offered to all nations in Europe. The Soviets put pressure on their satellites to reject the offer. They offered a less ambitious program, COMECON (Council of Mutual Economic Assistance). The Marshall Plan was very successful. In 1947, President Truman proposed a program later known as the Truman Doctrine to aid Greece and Turkey against communist threats. This program also achieved its objectives.

### GOALS OF THE MARSHALL PLAN

- Promote European economic recovery
- Stop the spread of communism
- Aid the U.S. economy by rebuilding European trade and markets

### A DIVIDED GERMANY

The Allies’ wartime conferences had resulted in a decision to divide Germany into occupation zones controlled by the U.S., the U.S.S.R., and Britain (later the U.S. and Britain redivided their zones to provide one for France). Even though the city of Berlin was completely within the Soviet Zone, it was divided into occupation...
zones. Surrounded by a communist state, the British, French, and American sectors of West Berlin became showcases for the achievements of capitalism.

In 1948, the Soviets launched the Berlin Blockade in response to the Allies' decision to unify their three occupation zones. The Soviets closed land and water access routes to the city. The Allies responded with the Berlin Airlift. For 11 months, Britain and the United States flew more than 2 million tons of supplies to Berlin before the Soviets lifted the blockade. However, there were periodic closures after that time. The Soviets refused to allow free elections in their zone. The Allies combined their zones to form the Federal Republic of Germany (West Germany) in 1949. The Soviets responded by establishing the German Democratic Republic (East Germany) in their zone in the same year.

**Rival Military Alliances**

Having learned the value of united effort during World War II, the Allies decided to establish a postwar military alliance. NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organization) was organized in 1949. The original members were: United States, Canada, Britain, France, Belgium, Netherlands, Luxemburg, Italy, Portugal, Norway, Denmark, and Iceland. Each pledged to come to the aid of any other member who was attacked. Other nations joined later. It also provided for a unified command and integration of military units from different nations. (Traditionally, an American has been the Supreme Allied Commander of NATO).

From its creation, NATO faced a variety of problems including a Greek/Turkish dispute over Cyprus, withdrawal of French forces from the United Command, and the issue of basing nuclear weapons in Germany. In the 1990s NATO faced the crisis in Bosnia, and the issue of membership for countries of Eastern Europe. In 1997, membership was offered to the Czech Republic, Hungary, and Poland.

The Soviets countered NATO with the formation of the Warsaw Pact in 1955. The military forces of the satellite countries were under Soviet control until the Pact ended in 1991.
However, Soviet control of the satellites was challenged at various times. During World War II, Yugoslav guerrilla forces fighting against Germany were led by Tito (Josip Broz, 1892-1980). At the end of the War, a communist dictatorship was established with Tito as leader. At first there was cooperation between Tito and Stalin, but in 1948, a series of disagreements led to a rupture in the relationship. The Soviets did not send in military forces to end the independence of communist Yugoslavia because of distance and lack of common boundary.

**REVOLTS IN THE SOVIET SATELLITES**

After Stalin's death in 1953, problems erupted in the satellite nations. At a Party Congress in 1956, Soviet First Secretary Nikita Khrushchev (1894-1971) denounced Stalin’s actions and policies as “crimes.” This caused many in the satellites to question Soviet domination. Poles and Hungarians moved quickly to demand increased freedom. In Poland, the Soviet Union proved willing to cooperate with Władysław Gomułka (1905-1982) as head of the government. He pledged to remain in the Warsaw Pact and keep Poland a Communist state.

In Hungary, the new government of Imre Nagy (1896-1958) pursued a more independent course. The Soviets sent troops with modern weapons against the Hungarian Freedom Fighters who were equipped with little more than Molotov cocktails. The 1956 Hungarian Revolution was suppressed, Nagy was executed, and many Freedom Fighters fled abroad.


**GLOBAL SCOPE OF THE COLD WAR**

The superpowers were also rivals in developing areas of the world. Each wished to extend the area of its influence, control vital resources and strategic locations, and limit the impact of the other. Often the “weapon of choice” was foreign aid, and the less developed countries (LDCs) quickly learned to “play” the superpow-

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1 Molotov cocktail (molotovka) bomb made of a breakable container filled with flammable liquid and provided with a usually rag wick that is lit just before being hurled; named after Vyacheslav Mikhaylovich Molotov, World War II Soviet Defence Minister

2 LDCs (Less Developed Countries of the world, refers to as “third world” or the “have nots,” generally with poor economies, poor health and education, and little industrialization)
### A SAMPLING OF SUPERPOWER RIVALRIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Key Events</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Vietnam     | 1946-1954 - war against France for Independence  
1954 - International conference, led to division into North Vietnam (communist under Ho Chi Minh) and South Vietnam (non-communist under Ngo Dinh Diem)  
1959-1975 - Communist Viet Cong attacked South to reunite country, U.S. aid to South included troops, Soviets and Chinese aided North  
1973 - cease-fire negotiated and withdrawal of U.S. troops began  
1975 - Saigon fell, country reunited under communist regime |
| Egypt       | 1956 - Britain and U.S. dropped financial support for construction of High Aswan Dam. Egyptian leader Gamal Abdel Nasser nationalized Suez Canal to obtain money for Dam's construction; Britain and France threatened invasion of Egypt in alliance with Israel but withdrew after U.N. resolved to send an emergency force  
1960 - Dam construction began with Soviets helping with cost and 400 technicians |
| Congo (Zaire) | 1960 - Belgium granted independence; with little preparation or warning; the Congo split by ethnic rivalries and threatened secession of mineral rich province; civil war broke out among groups supporting Joseph Kasavubu (non-communist) and Patrice Lumumba (communist)  
1963 - U.N. peacekeepers restored some order  
1965 - General Mobutu (Sese Seko) seized power, established dictatorship, U.S. supported initially |
| Chile       | 1970 - Socialist Salvador Allende elected President, 1st President elected on a Marxist-Leninist program in non-communist country in Western Hemisphere  
1972-1973 - Increasing opposition and economic problems led to violence  
1973 - military coup with U.S. support overthrew Allende who committed suicide, U.S. continued aid against leftist guerrillas |

In some cases, internal fighting was involved, but there were no direct confrontations between the superpowers.

Indirect confrontations occurred in surrogate (substitute) countries as diverse as Angola, Iran, Iraq, and Guatemala. Well into the 1980s, the superpowers operated "behind the scenes" giving covert support to rival groups in civil wars. The end of the Cold War brought some relief from these competition problems.

### Nuclear Rivalry

The nuclear weapons and space race between the U.S. and the U.S.S.R. began with the race to develop the first atomic bomb. The Soviet Union detonated its first nuclear weapon in 1949, four years after the U.S. Then, Britain, France, and China quickly joined the nuclear club. A number of other nations such as India, Pakistan, Israel, Iraq, and Libya acquired some nuclear capability. The threat of radiation fallout from tests and potential nuclear destruction led to control attempts.

- **1963 - Limited Nuclear Test Ban Treaty**  
  - prohibited testing in the atmosphere, later space and underground tests forbidden

- **1968 - Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty**  
  - nations willing to forego nuclear weapons promised aid in case of attack and help in development of peaceful uses of atomic energy

- **1972, 1979 - SALT (Strategic Arms Limitation Talks)**  
  - decreased some missiles and numbers of some warheads

- **1991, 1993 - START (Strategic Arms Reduction Talks)**  
  - continued process of limiting nuclear weapons and missile delivery systems

### The United Nations' Role

At the San Francisco Conference in 1945, fifty nations signed the charter creating the United Nations. The goals of the U.N. are to promote international peace and security, settle disputes among nations, develop friendly rela-
tions among nations, and establish respect for human rights. Soon after it was organized, The U.N. approved the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* (1948). It provided the basis for modern ideas on human rights. It includes statements on the right of human beings to basic personal, civil, political, social, and economic rights. Included among those rights are the right to life, liberty, and security of person; freedom of movement and residence; and freedom of thought, religion, and opinion. Although the United Nations supports numerous organizations and humanitarian activities, its peacekeeping mission has three main organs:

- **Security Council** – primary responsibility for world peace; 5 permanent members each with veto power (U.S., Russia, China, Britain, France) plus 10 non-permanent members from various areas of world elected for 2-year terms

- **General Assembly** – includes all U.N. members with 1 vote each; discusses and makes recommendations on world problems, can act if the Security Council is blocked by the veto of a permanent member

- **Secretariat** – administers daily operations under the Secretary General who calls attention to world peace threats, heads U.N. Emergency Forces, and carries out special missions

  Like the League of Nations, most of the U.N. successes are in the economic and social fields. Specialized agencies such as the Food and Agriculture Organization (famines, improvement of food production) and the World Health Organization (vaccinations against smallpox, polio, aids epidemic, etc.) improve the quality of life of countless people.

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**Mini Assessment**

1. The Cold War between the United States and the Soviet Union was characterized by
   - war between the superpowers
   - a spirit of cooperation and disarmament
   - competition to influence newly independent nations
   - an exchange of technological developments

2. The formation of the Coal and Steel Community (1952) was an initial step toward European
   - containment
   - military alliance
   - economic unity
   - disarmament

3. In the years since 1945, United Nations has been most successful in
   - solving disputes between the superpowers
   - solving its budget problems
   - ending the crises in the Middle East
   - improving the global standard of living

**Constructed Response:**

Use the quotation below and your knowledge of global history to answer the following questions.

"Civilized people of the world: The Soviet Army is attempting to crush our troubled hearts. Their tasks and guns are roaring over Hungarian soil. Our women...are sitting in dread. Listen to our cry. Extend to us brotherly hands..."

- A broadcast from Hungarian freedom fighters
  as reported in the *Daily Mail*, 5 Nov. 1956

1. How did the Soviet Union react to the revolt of the Hungarian freedom fighters?

2. In 1956, there was considerable dissatisfaction in the Soviet Eastern European satellites. Why?
### Key Differences Between Market and Command Systems

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Market</th>
<th>Command</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Maker of economic decisions</td>
<td>Market forces</td>
<td>Government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ownership of businesses and means of production</td>
<td>Private ownership</td>
<td>Government ownership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profit recipient</td>
<td>Private owner</td>
<td>Mostly to government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determination of prices</td>
<td>Market forces of supply and demand</td>
<td>Mostly by government</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, the U.N. Security Council experiences problems with big power veto. Its resolutions are ignored at times as was the case of the Indian annexation of Goa (1961), Soviet intervention in Hungary (1956), and South African apartheid (until 1994). The U.N. Army preserved the independence of the Republic of South Korea (1950-1953). U.N. peacekeeping forces have been helpful in places such as the Congo, Cyprus, and Somalia. Budget problems and the power of small nations in the General Assembly continue to be issues (see Unit 9 for additional U.N. information).

### Economic Issues in the Cold War and Post-Cold War Eras

Cold War rivalries led to intense economic competition between communist-dominated U.S.S.R. / Eastern Europe and the market-oriented U.S. / Western Europe. The modern free market system owes its origins to the writings of Adam Smith; the modern command system originated with Josef Stalin’s first Five Year Plan. The two economic systems differ in important respects (see chart above).

### Democratic Socialism Develops

After World War II, many countries combined a free market system with aspects of socialism and developed a type of mixed economic system called democratic socialism. This allowed them to use market forces in conjunction with extensive social welfare programs and some government ownership of industries.

For example, after independence, India adopted a mixed economy and the government implemented a five-year plan in 1951. Foreign aid from the United States, the Soviet Union, and international groups such as the World Bank helped the capital-starved country. The infrastructure left by the British provided a base from which to build. Initially, the government supported small industries, and there was a resurgence in handicrafts. However, textiles, jute, iron, and steel quickly became important industries. The Indian government-owned Tata Iron and Steel Company (founded 1907) led the way. However, in 1956, the government decided to nationalize major economic sectors and increase its control over others, as well.

The Green Revolution played a major role in Indian economic development. The increased use of fertilizers, irrigation, and newly developed seeds increased production where the program was implemented. Rice and wheat accounted for about 33% of the gross domestic product (GDP). Production increased faster than the population and reduced the famine threat. This also made possible the development of more commercial farming including cotton, jute, coffee, and tea.

Along with most areas in the developing world, India began a movement toward the free market system and privatization in the early 1990s. A more positive atmosphere toward foreign investment emerged. By the mid-1990s, decreased inflation and increased exports created positive economic conditions. India is among the ten largest industrial nations today.

Government willingness to accept increased responsibility for citizens’ welfare goes back to the 19th century. In countries such as Britain,
the government passed legislation governing working conditions and provided for public education and unemployment insurance. The British Beveridge Report, issued during World War II, called for a comprehensive program of social welfare benefits.

After the Labor Party victory in 1945, the British Parliament passed the National Insurance Act and the National Health Service Act. The first act provided for sickness, accident, disability, and old age protection. The second act made provision for free medical and dental care. Later, the high taxes necessary to pay for these programs caused many in Britain to question their continuance.

The British Labor Party Government took the additional step of nationalizing major industries such as transportation, communication, coal, and steel. Small industries remained in private hands. When the Conservative Party was in office, it privatized some of the government-owned industries and tried to limit the welfare program. Inflation problems and labor discontent marked the mid 1960s and most of the 1970s. Conservative Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher (in office 1979-1990) used high interest rates and budget cuts to deal with inflation. From 1982-1988, Britain experienced an economic boom—along with most of the rest of the industrialized world. The standard of living increased, unemployment decreased, and industrial efficiency improved. However, a revival of unemployment problems and an unpopular tax policy eventually cost Thatcher her party leadership.

**COMMAND SYSTEMS:**
**THE SOVIET MODEL**

The command economies of Eastern Europe also had extensive welfare programs, but the governments paid little attention to the demand for consumer goods. Under Soviet dominance, the main emphasis was on heavy industry. Citizens were expected to sacrifice for the good of future generations. The satellite countries were required to put the needs of the Soviet economy before theirs. Successes were achieved in the heavy industry sector, but agriculture and consumer industry lagged.

In these command systems, central planners established production quotas. Managers who exceeded quotas were awarded bonuses and promotions. However, the quotas resulted in poor workmanship and an unwillingness to innovate. For example, the quotas for a particular type of pipe were set in tons. The factories refused to switch from metal to plastic pipe because the lighter plastic made it difficult to reach their tonnage quotas.

The traditional emphasis on military and heavy industry caused consumer industries to fail in meeting demand. The government approved production of radios and TVs, because they could be used for propaganda purposes. But, other products suffered because political planners deemed them less important.
Consumers wanted clothes and shoes, but their poor quality kept sales low. To purchase a car, an order had to be placed with full payment in advance, but delivery could take five or six years. Car owners routinely removed windshield wipers, hub caps, and any other easily stolen parts before parking. It was almost impossible to get replacement parts.

Other lesser developed countries (LDCs) opted for mixed economies blending capitalism with some form of socialism. Foreign capital investment was needed by those countries without vital resources to sell in the global market. Sometimes capital could be obtained from the U.S. or the Soviet Union as they competed against each other to buy influence in the new countries. However, the superpowers often attached unwanted conditions to this aid. Economic nationalists in the new countries rejected such foreign interference. They leaned toward more neutral international financial institutions such as the U.N.'s World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) which financed projects with few "political strings."

The oil crisis of 1973 resulted in large increases in the price of petroleum. LDCs did not have the necessary financial reserves to meet the higher prices. As a result, many LDCs took on heavy debts and were close to bankruptcy. Their inability to meet the terms of the loans forced the international community to decrease interest rates and restructure loans. One condition attached to these loans was a promise to move toward a free market economy. As a consequence, the number of free market economies rose substantially, but their success rate varied considerably.

**STRUGGLES OF DEVELOPING NATIONS**

After World War II, newly independent developing nations wished to modernize quickly. To focus on the task, they looked for models. Some nations adopted the Soviet approach. Historically, the Soviet Union was not associated with the hated imperialist powers. Its economic development had been rapid, and strong centralized control appealed to many leaders of developing countries.

**EMERGENCE OF THE PACIFIC RIM COUNTRIES**

In the 1980s, the "Pacific Rim" became a popular name for countries bordering the Pacific Ocean. Nations along the Asian edge of the Rim had experienced tremendous economic growth beginning in the 1970s. Low pay work forces and a large Asian market for low priced goods fueled the expansion. Most of these Pacific Rim countries started out producing inexpensive consumer products, processing local natural resources, and labor intensive products.
resources, and assembling imported parts for foreign manufacturers in Japan, the United States, and West Germany.

South Korea, Hong Kong, Singapore, and Taiwan became known as the "Asian Tigers." (also known as the "Four Little Dragons.") The Pacific Rim's development rested on the rapid growth of the Tigers' economies. In the late 1980s and early 1990s, other Pacific Rim countries such as Thailand, Vietnam, Indonesia, China, and the Philippines began to prosper.

However, in 1997, the "economic bubble" burst. Many of the Asian countries faced economic crises. Banks, often influenced by close ties with business, made unwise loans. A lack of faith in governments' ability to bring about necessary reforms and open the economies to competition undermined international confidence. These factors caused stock market declines and shrank currency values. This made international transactions difficult and sent the region into a recession.

South Korea is one of the more successful of the Asian Tigers. In the last forty years, it has gone from a relatively poor country with few natural resources and subsistence agriculture to rapid industrialization.

By the 1970s, heavy industry emerged with automobiles, electronics, and shipbuilding leading the development. The Gross Domestic Product increased by over 9 percent yearly between the 1960s and early 1990s. Government policies (e.g., tax breaks and low interest financing) encouraged exports and rapid development, combined with low labor wages, fueled the expansion.

However, the chaebol dominated. These economic groupings developed close ties with banks and the government. These ties led to charges of corruption and favoritism. By 1997, inability to reform placed the South Korean economy in difficulty. The country sought economic aid from the international financial com-

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1 chaebol (large conglomerates with holdings in many fields)

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City of Singapore and harbor. With its high per capita income, Singapore has the leading economy of the South and Southeast Asian region. Due to its strict laws, the city is virtually crime free, very clean, and has no slums and no unemployment. ©PhotoDisc, 1994
Mini Assessment

The government owns the means of production, makes economic decisions, and receives much of the profit. These are characteristics of a
1. traditional economy
2. mixed economy
3. free market economy
4. command economy

2. The economic crisis beginning in 1997 in the Pacific Rim countries was primarily caused by
1. high debt levels and governmental corruption
2. withdrawal of foreign capital and technological aid
3. failures in agricultural and consumer industries
4. declines in tourism and development funds

3. West Germany and Japan became economic powerhouses in the aftermath of World War II because
1. they had large supplies of coal and iron
2. their rebuilt industries provided a technological edge
3. their governments nationalized all major industries
4. they used immigrant "guest workers" from other countries

Constructed Response:

Use the cartoon below to answer the following questions:

1. Why is the guillotine's blade labeled "loans"?

2. What conditions led LCDs to be in this position?

Thailand is another growing Pacific Rim economy. The rich alluvial soil from the Chao Phraya River made rice the traditional cash crop. After World War II, the government started programs to diversify the economy. By the 1980s, Japanese and other foreign investments in textiles, electronics, and rubber production decreased Thailand's reliance on one crop. Tourism remained the key earner of foreign capital, but manufacturing increased 9.4 percent annually in the 1980s and early 1990s. However, rapid growth and high debt levels led to a loss of confidence in the baht (Thai currency) in the summer of 1997. This triggered an economic crisis that spread throughout Asia.

After World War II, communist rebels took control of Northern Vietnam from French colonial forces. In 1954, a treaty partitioned former French Indochina. North Vietnam adopted a command economy, but South Vietnam chose a free market system. North Vietnam began a long war to reunite the two countries. South Vietnam fell to the communists in 1975, and the countries were reunified under a communist command system. Beginning in 1986, government reforms edged the country toward the market system. Rapid growth of over 8 percent per year in the early 1990s was fueled by the paper, cement, textile, and tourist industries.
Chinese Communist Revolution

China is the world's third largest country by area and the largest by population. Difficult terrain in the western part of China results in most people living in the eastern third of China. Mountains compose about 43 percent of China, plateaus are about 26 percent, and only about 10 percent of the land is arable. The early isolation of China led to a largely homogeneous population. About 95 percent of the population is Han. Most of the minority groups reside on the fringes of the country.

As was true throughout Chinese history, rivers play a major role in modern China. The Huang He (Yellow) River is known as "China's Sorrow" because it frequently floods its banks, often causing widespread destruction. The Xi (West) River is a major trade artery. It is navigable to Guangzhou (Canton) making the city a major port. The Yangtze River is currently the subject of controversy. The government's $3 billion Three Gorges hydroelectric program is designed to increase power, but the dam -- now under construction -- will cost thousands of acres of farmland and force many families to move.

Modern transportation reduced isolation resulting from physical features such as the Gobi Desert, the Himalayas, and the plateaus of Mongolia and Tibet. However, areas in western China have limited contact with the east and with outside nations. Away from major population centers, the roads are often unpaved and impassable during inclement weather. Bicycles remain the most popular form of transportation. Frequent bicycle traffic jams are visible in cities such as Shanghai. New train connections are being established, but the service is not yet up to western standards. Airplane safety and technology have undergone rapid updating. Most of the planes currently in service are Western-made. However, in 1998, the U.S. government had approved "high tech" manufacturing contracts (including airplane assembly) between U.S. and Chinese corporations.

Climate and geography affects crop selection. Northern parts of China produce wheat and millet\(^1\) as major food sources; the south relies on rice. Natural disasters cause major problems. Agriculture remains a weak economic sector despite government efforts to increase crop yield.

\(^1\) millet (annual grass, cultivated in Europe for its white grains)
\(^2\) terraced (raised bank of earth having vertical or sloping sides and a flat top, turning a hillside into a series of ascending terraces for farming in rugged terrain)
COMMUNIST RISE TO POWER

Marxist communism attracted the interest of some leaders during the Revolution of 1911-1912. In the 1920s, in a gesture of friendship, the Soviet communists returned some Chinese territory taken earlier by the tsars. Its aid to the government of Sun Yixian increased friendship between the two nations.

The Chinese Communist Party (CCP) was founded in 1921. In 1928, it allied with the Guomindang to fight the warlords and foreign influence. However, in 1927, Jiang Jieshi (Chiang Kai-shek) expelled communists from the Guomindang and began a purge against them.

To escape the armies of Jiang, Mao Zedong (1893-1976) led about 100,000 communist guerrillas on a trek of 6,000 miles to Shaanxi in northwestern China. Only about 20,000 completed the Long March (1934). In Mao’s view, the Chinese peasants were the revolutionary group, critical to the success of his communist movement. He focused on gaining their support. Throughout the March, the communists paid peasants for food and treated them fairly. The Long March enabled Mao to forge the leadership of a revolution that eventually changed China.

The Japanese invasions of Manchuria in 1931 and the main part of China in 1937 brought about an uneasy union between the communists and the Guomindang. The two armies used different approaches. The communists used guerrilla tactics and often operated behind Japanese lines. They implemented land reform programs in territories they controlled. They increased their support among the peasants, and many joined their army. The Guomindang employed conventional military tactics and had limited success against the Japanese. They retreated from coastal areas and established inland bases. The morale of their forces dropped, and their leadership employed harsh authoritarian methods in the areas they controlled.

At the end of World War II, Mao’s communists controlled much of the north, and the Guomindang occupied the south. The Guomindang maintained power with aid received from the United States. In 1949, the communists established the People’s Republic of China. For the first time in many years, a central government provided stability for China. Jiang Jieshi and the Guomindang fled to Taiwan and established the Republic of China.
Mao's Communist Revolution

- Centralized economic planning
- Collectivized\(^1\) most land and property
- Destroyed the landlord class
- Weakened the urban bourgeoisie
- Raised the status of peasants and industrial workers
- Harsh, totalitarian government abused individual rights

COMMUNISTS ACHIEVE POWER UNDER MAO

As leader, Mao Zedong (the "Great Helmsman") followed the Russian communist model in some respects. He created a totalitarian government which had little respect for basic human rights. Censorship, repression, imprisonment of opposition, propaganda, and restrictions on religious freedom, and the right of assembly became commonplace. However, the government also made progress in some fields. Literacy increased from 20 percent in 1949 to 78 percent in 1990. Crime and corruption decreased. Improved health care increased life expectancy from 45 years in 1949 to 68 years for men and 74 years for women in the mid-1990s.

However, China's economy presented enormous problems. In 1953, Mao implemented his first Five Year Plan. Its primary goal, the development of heavy industry, was largely successful. By 1960, China was among the top ten industrial powers. However, agricultural production lagged.

Mao called the Second Five Year Plan the Great Leap Forward. It continued the development of heavy industry, but also proposed the mobilization of peasants to increase agricultural production. The Plan established "People's Communes\(^2\)" of thousands of acres staffed with over 20,000 people. China's central planners established production quotas and attempted to mechanize farming. Each commune was designed as a self-sufficient community with local industries, schools, housing, and child care for working mothers.

By 1960, peasant opposition to this extreme regimentation undermined production. Combined with natural disasters, opposition led to famine. The government finally responded. Peasants were still required to sell set amounts of produce to the government, but they could sell surpluses for personal gain.

Still, the problems in the agricultural sector led to divisions within the Chinese Communist Party. Mao felt that the communist revolution was under attack from reactionaries in the Party. He launched the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution (1966-1969) under the direction of his wife, Jiang Qing. She fashioned a fanatical ideological movement in which young teens were organized into the Red Guard. Often citing Quotations of Chairman Mao (the "Little Red Book"), the Red Guard attacked "counterrevolutionary elements" — those thought to have a bourgeoisie outlook.

The Red Guard's victims were educated party leaders and factory managers. These targets were subjected to humiliation, beatings,
and in some cases, execution. They were sent to rural areas to work as farm laborers. About three million people were sent to labor camps. Educational institutions were closed and economic disruption occurred.

In 1969, the army finally acted to end the disturbances. Many Red Guard members were sent to communes, and moderates in the Politburo asserted their power. However, after Mao’s death in 1976, the “Gang of Four,” a radical group in the Politburo led by Jiang Qing tried to rekindle the Cultural Revolution. They were arrested, tried, and found guilty of actions against the Party and the government. In the next decade, China’s more moderate leaders praised some aspects of Mao’s policies, but slowly acknowledged his failures.

There were foreign relations problems during Mao’s rule. For twenty-six years (1949-1974), the United States refused to recognize the communist government of the People’s Republic of China. It supported the Guomindang government in Taiwan. The U.S. led the debate to keep the People’s Republic of China out of the U.N., using China’s involvement in the Korean War as one of the main reasons. However, in 1971, the U.S. began to shift its policies. It ceased to block U.N. membership for Communist China. U.S. President Richard Nixon visited Beijing in 1972, and tensions eased between the two countries. The U.S. formally recognized the communist government in 1974. Since that time, relations between the two countries have fluctuated. Chinese human rights policies, copyright infringements, and market accessibility continue to be controversial. Despite these issues, President Jiang Zemin (1926- ) visited the U.S. in 1997.

During the early years of the communist government in China, the Soviets gave considerable technological and economic aid. However, a number of areas of disagreement developed and the assistance was withdrawn in 1960. After Mao’s death relations remained cool, but in the 1980s, the more moderate leaders worked with Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev to develop closer ties between the two communist powers.

SINO-SOVIET AREAS OF DISAGREEMENT

- role of peasantry in revolution
- rivalry for influence in developing areas
- border disputes
- accommodations to capitalists

MISERATION UNDER DENG XIAOPENING

After Mao’s death in 1976, Deng Xiaoping (1904-1997) emerged as foremost leader in the communist oligarchy. Deng’s main concerns were modernization and economic progress. He vowed to quadruple agricultural and industrial output by the millennium. He believed that economic reform, not class struggle, was the key to progress. Deng opened China to new ideas by allowing many Chinese to study in the West and by easing restrictions on foreign investment.

Agriculture remained a problem area. Deng instituted the Responsibility System. Each

DENG’S FOUR MODERNIZATION PROGRAMS

- modernizing agriculture
- Improving the military
- Increasing industrialization
- developing technology and science
Problems with crime and corruption multiplied. Many people felt that relatives of leaders received unfair favors and advantages. Ties between banks and government businesses resulted in unwise lending practices which threatened the financial structure. In 1998, President Jiang Zemin proposed a new program of reform to increase private ownership of business, decrease central planning, and reform financial practices.

Concern over human rights in China continues to be a major issue. Beijing’s Tiananmen Square became a focal point in 1989. Deng’s reforms helped China’s economy, but they were conservative. They unleashed demands for greater freedom among groups of students and workers. In May of 1989, these groups occupied Tiananmen Square, erected a “Goddess of Democracy” statue, and refused to leave.

The protest movement spread to other major cities. The participants used faxes to keep in contact because of government control of the media. On June 3rd and 4th, People’s Liberation Army troops and tanks opened fire. In the Tiananmen Square Massacre, 800 to 1000 people were killed, and countless others were wounded. Later, the government imprisoned or executed many protest leaders. These actions were carried out on Deng Xiaoping’s orders. The imprisonment of dissidents and the use of forced labor in factories producing goods for export continue to concern the international community.

In 1989, a Chinese student defies the government’s power during pro-democracy demonstrations in Tiananmen Square – “Gate of Heavenly Peace”, Beijing.
Visitors to China today are impressed by the amount of small entrepreneurship. Small shops are everywhere. Barber shops and bicycle repair shops operate on the sidewalk. Open air markets for virtually anything can be found in every city. Hawkers present their wares to foreign visitors at tourist destinations. Small children dress in costumes of various types to pose for tourist cameras. Almost everyone seems to have a small business in addition to a regular job.

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This concern for freedom was reflected in anxiety over the return of Hong Kong to China on 1 July 1997. The city had become a colony of Britain as a result of the First Opium War. Hong Kong had become a trade, light industry, and financial center for East Asia. Prior to its return to China, it was the major link between the People’s Republic and the outside world.

In the Joint Declaration of 1984, Britain and People’s Republic of China promised to keep the existing social and economic system for 50 years. They also pledged self-government for the former colony. However, events after the signing of the Declaration made clear that Beijing intended to exercise final control. Many Chinese in Hong Kong became apprehensive about the future, but they were also proud of China’s achievements. Concerned that conditions would worsen caused as many as one million individuals to try for one of the 350,000 passports offered by the British.

Nationalism in China made the return of Hong Kong a major event. Major cities had clocks which counted down the years, months, days, minutes, and seconds until the colony’s return.

In the area of women’s rights prior to 1949, women were regarded as inferior to men and often secluded in the home. Few received an education, and most were not allowed to own property under the communists. Mao and other communist leaders altered women’s status, and women made considerable progress.

**COLLAPSE OF EUROPEAN IMPERIALISM**

In the aftermath of World War II, the European countries were seriously weakened and unable to maintain their control. During the War, promises of independence or increased self-government were made to colonies to gain their cooperation.

After the War, nationalism exploded in many colonies. The independence of India and Pakistan became role models. Colonial powers granted some colonies freedom (Nigeria) without much disruption; others fought long wars to gain it (Kenya). Despite independence, many of the former colonies continued to have close ties to their former mother countries. Economic and military aid as well as long-standing trade ties made it difficult to end the relationship.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WOMEN IN COMMUNIST CHINA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Progress</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Equal under the law</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Can own property</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Can receive at least an elementary education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Drawbacks</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Expected to work alongside men on farms and in factories</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Must do most of household work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Face discrimination; promotions, pay, higher education</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Mini Assessment

1. The success of Mao Zedong and the communists in gaining power in China is explained in part by
   1. aid obtained from Japan
   2. assistance of large landowners
   3. land reform promises to the peasants
   4. use of standard military tactics

2. Deng Xiaoping's policies stressed the
   1. need for economic reform
   2. importance of the class struggle
   3. necessity of central planning
   4. nationalizing of foreign-owned industry

3. The events in Tiananmen Square in 1989 indicated that the Chinese government was willing to
   1. use force to keep control
   2. relinquish media control
   3. allow peaceful demonstrations
   4. accept student and worker demands

Constructed Response:

Use the two photos below and your knowledge of global history to answer the following questions.

1. Which picture (photo A or photo B) represents life in traditional China?

2. What do the two pictures reveal about change in modern China?

Many former colonies experienced problems related to their colonial era. The British policy of “divide and rule” continued to damage Hindu-Muslim relationships in India. Boundaries established by the Europeans often separated ethnic and religious groups. This led to civil wars in nations such as Nigeria and Rwanda. Europeans often encouraged the production of cash crops for export at the expense of agricultural products needed locally.

They also exploited the colony’s natural resources. After receiving independence, countries found it difficult to break these patterns and diversify their economies. Developing the local expertise and capital necessary to modernize without foreign help was nearly impossible.

INDEPENDENCE FOR INDIA

Great Britain granted independence to India on 15 August 1947. The agreement established two separate nations, Hindu India and Muslim Pakistan.

The Indian independence movement dated back to the 1800s, but the pressure for a separate Muslim state came from the Muslim
The boundary lines drawn by the British left large minority populations in areas controlled by another religion. This triggered a mass migration of some 10 million refugees. Independence leader Mohandas Gandhi opposed the partition. In January 1948, a disillusioned Hindu fanatic assassinated the “Great Soul.” Despite the migrations and the 200,000 plus deaths they caused, about 100 million Muslims reside in India.

Perhaps the most troubling problem in India was the caste system. Gandhi strongly opposed discrimination against the harijans (untouchables). India’s 1947 constitution forbids discrimination, and the government tried to provide this group with opportunities. Nevertheless, discrimination remained strong in rural areas.

League under the leadership of Mohammed Ali Jinnah. Muslims feared discrimination and persecution in a Hindu-dominated nation.

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1. refugees (One who flee in search of refuge, as in times of war, political oppression, or religious persecution)
2. caste (any of four classes, comprised of numerous subcastes, constituting traditional Hindu society)
POST-INDEPENDENCE PROBLEMS
FACING INDIA AND PAKISTAN

- Religious differences (Hindu v. Muslim plus Sikhs, Buddhists, Christians)
- Poverty
- Overpopulation
- Border disputes
- Women’s rights
- Language differences
- Princely states within their borders
- Cold War foreign policy issues
- Caste System

Increasing modernization and population growth in urban areas led to some improvement for the harijans. In the 1990s, the government tried to increase the number of jobs for them, but high caste opposition was strong, and the plan was dropped.

Foreign policy differences developed between India and Pakistan as each sought to insure its future. The Indians, under the leadership of Jawaharlal Nehru (1889-1964), adopted a policy of non-alignment. The Indians refused to join the SEATO (Southeast Asian Treaty Organization, 1954-1977), a regional multilateral defense alliance sponsored by the United States. They accepted aid from both the Soviet Union and the U.S. The Indians were concerned about Pakistani-U.S. ties.

Pakistan joined SEATO and the British-led Baghdad Pact (later called CENTO – the Central Treaty Organization). CENTO was an alliance among Turkey, Iran, Pakistan, and Great Britain for mutual defense (1955-1979). As a consequence, Pakistan received considerable Western aid and assistance in the development of peaceful uses of atomic energy. Later, India and Pakistan developed nuclear weapons. The continuing tensions between the two nations makes their possession of atomic weapons a threat to world peace (see pg. 271).

Within India, two separatist groups have threatened stability – the Sikhs and the Tamils. The Sikhs combine elements of Hinduism and Islam and are a majority in the state of Punjab. They gained a reputation as fierce warriors prepared to defend their religion. Sikhs feel that they are not obtaining a fair share of central government revenue and have demanded a separate state.

In 1984, Sikhs occupied the Golden Temple in Amritsar, sacred in their religious beliefs. Indira Gandhi (1917-1984), the Indian prime minister, ordered Indian troops to retake the Temple. Thousands died. Shortly after, Sikh bodyguards assassinated her in retaliation. The Sikh problems are not solved, and outbursts of terrorism still occur.

The Tamils are an ethnic group of about 45 million who live in southern India and Sri Lanka. They played a major role in government and business under the British, but post-independence laws in Sri Lanka gave preferences to the majority Sinhalese. The Tamils have demanded an independent state. The most radical Tamil group, the Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam, continue terrorist activities and a guerrilla war in India and Sri Lanka. By 1997, approximately 50,000 had died in the 25-year dispute. One of the victims was the assassinated Indian Prime Minister Rajiv Gandhi (1944-1990), son of Indira and grandson of Nehru.

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1 non-alignment (refusing to take the same side on all issues)
2 multilateral (involving more than two nations or parties)
3 Sikhism (doctrines and practices of a monothestic religion founded in northern India in the 16th century and combining elements of Hinduism and Islam)
4 Tamils or Tamils (member of a Dravidian people of southern India and northern Sri Lanka)
AFRICAN INDEPENDENCE
AND POST-COLONIAL MOVEMENTS

African people also sought independence after World War II. Using the Indian and Pakistani models, they demanded "Uhuru!" – "Freedom Now" – in the post-war period. The major colonial powers – Britain, France, Portugal, and Belgium – took differing approaches. Sometimes, Britain provided training for self-government and granted home-rule; in others, long wars resulted. Belgium provided virtually no training and few secondary education opportunities for the people in the Belgian Congo.
France has tried to maintain its ties with former colonies through currency linkage, aid programs, and in some instances, military intervention. Portugal simply tried to hold on to its colonies as long as possible.

Ghana (Gold Coast) was the first African colony to gain independence in 1957. Nationalist leader Kwame Nkrumah established a political party and employed strikes, boycotts, and riots to achieve his goal. He was arrested by the British, but after his release and the achievement of independence, he became prime minister of the new country.

In Nigeria, Britain did some training for self-government, but the hostility among ethnic groups was hard to overcome. The Muslim Hausa and Fulani peoples lived in the north, the Yoruba in the southwest, and the Ibo in the southeast. Initially, anti-British nationalism helped to unite these groups, but after independence was achieved in 1960, problems developed among them. The Ibo seceded in 1967 and established the state of Biafra.

Biafrans feared Muslim domination and wanted to keep control of the resources in the southeast. Over a million died as a result of starvation and the civil war which followed. By 1970, Biafra was united with the rest of the country, but religious and ethnic loyalties remain strong.

Although Nigeria had a large oil income in the 1970s, its leaders spent money on wasteful projects. During the 1980s, the country faced hard economic times. Since achieving independence, the country has alternated between military and civilian governments.

After declaring a 1993 election void, Sani Abacha’s repressive military government postponed numerous promises to hold new democratic elections and restore civilian rule. The powerful dictator died from a heart attack in mid-1998. His place was filled by General Adulsalam Abubakar. However, the death of a key opposition leader while in prison dashed early hopes for greater democracy.

In Kenya, the drive for independence was complicated by the large number of European settlers remaining in its highland areas. They refused to give up power. Jomo Kenyatta (1891-1978), a Kikuyu leader, tried a non-violent approach to changing laws and restoring land to the native people. However, the Mau Mau – an anti-European guerrilla movement among the Kikuyu people – used a campaign of violence and terrorism (1962-1959) to achieve its goals.

By 1956, the Mau Mau movement killed nearly 100 Europeans and 2,000 Kikuyu "loyalists." Kenyatta was jailed and many of the Kikuyu were sent to concentration camps. Ultimately, Kenyatta was freed and like Nkrumah of Ghana, became prime minister of the independent country. Kenyatta set up a one-party state and limited individual rights. After Kenyatta’s death in 1978, Daniel arap Moi succeeded him. Moi’s rule experienced ethnic violence, corruption, and election and civil rights abuses.

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1 boycotts (group action in abstaining from using, buying, or dealing with as an expression of protest)
Kenya has experienced economic difficulties. The period from 1991-1993 was the worst economic performance since 1963. This led to reforms with the aid of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank. Economic restrictions were loosened and some industry was privatized. Recently, the two international organizations expressed satisfaction with the progress to date, but indicated continued effort was crucial.

Apartheid was the issue which plagued South Africa. After the Boer War, Britain granted the area independence (1910). The White-controlled government instituted apartheid. The 1913 Native Land Act provided that the Bantus (native people) could own land only on reservations which usually contained poor soil. Bantus were required to carry passes. Later, Bantus found themselves barred from the best mine jobs.

Mandela to life imprisonment. He became the symbolic leader of the nationalist movement. A 1976 protest in Soweto over the required use of Afrikaans in schools touched off months of racial violence which drew international attention to the apartheid issue.

The international community opposed apartheid. The United Nations passed resolutions against South Africa and placed an arms embargo on it. The International Olympic Committee barred South African athletes from participation. International corporations, under pressure from civil rights groups in their home bases, left the country. Many large pension funds, insurance companies, and mutual funds divested their financial interests and holdings in South Africa.

Prior to the constitutional reforms of the 1990s, apartheid policies supported white dominance and racial injustice.

In 1912, middle class, urban-based professionals and chiefs organized the African National Congress (ANC), the foremost South African nonviolent civil rights organization. The ANC tried to use legal means to bring about change but without success. Two major leaders of this organization were Bishop Desmond Tutu (1931- ) and Nelson Mandela (1918- ). The 1950 Group Areas Act created ten homelands for Blacks, but they contained only 20 percent of the land for the Blacks who were 80 percent of the population.

This restrictive legislation led to the Sharpeville Massacres in 1960. Peaceful demonstrators were fired upon and over sixty died. In response, Mandela formed the "Spear of the Nation" movement, an underground military command. It campaigned against the symbols of apartheid. In 1964, the government sentenced

1 Apartheid (official policy of racial segregation practiced until the 1990s in the Republic of South Africa, involving political, legal, and economic discrimination against nonwhites)
2 Afrikaans (language of the Afrikaners)
3 Divested (to sell off or otherwise dispose of financial interests and investments)
number of riots in Johannesburg by Coloureds who claimed discrimination from the Blacks.

Politically, movements to unite people of African descent began in the 1920s. The first Pan-African Congress met in 1919. Its hope of persuading the participants in the Paris Peace Conference after World War I to recognize African rights was not realized. In 1963, as African nations became independent, the Organization of African Unity (OAU) was established. It hoped to eliminate colonialism, defend the independence of African nations, and establish a basis for cooperation and solution of problems among African nations.

Despite the desire of Africans to stand on their own, they continue to have close ties with their former colonial powers. Many former French colonies link their currencies to the French franc and continue to trade mainly with France.

Major French companies have virtual monopolies in former colonies. At different times, the French government has sent in troops to quell disturbances or help preserve independence. Often the former colonial power is a source of economic and military aid. A number of former British colonies continue membership in the Commonwealth of Nations. Regular meetings discuss matters of mutual concern, and members receive preferential trade treatment with Britain as well as aid of various types.

Kenya and Tanzania lead in the effort to decrease foreign influence. Both are trying to move from reliance on one crop or resource and to diversify their economies. Tanzania is shifting from exports to the production of domestic goods and services. In 1960, when Senegal became independent, 83 percent of its exports were peanuts and 75 percent of its exports went to France, Senegal’s former colonial power. By 1990, only 25 percent of its exports were peanuts and only one-third went to France.

Despite progress toward economic independence, almost all mines and petroleum operations are foreign owned. Some are joint ventures (foreign and African owners), with the African nations trying to increase their shares.

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1 Coloureds (group of racially mixed South Africans, are largely the descendants of European settlers, Khoikhoi, and slaves from Madagascar and Asia).
2 Blanks (racial group having brown to black skin, being of African origin, for example, the Zulu – Bantu people inhabiting northeast Natal province in South Africa).
SOUTHEAST ASIAN INDEPENDENCE MOVEMENTS

Southeast Asian countries faced many of the same problems in achieving independence as the African nations. Vietnam's effort was led by Ho Chi Minh (1890-1969). He was present at the Paris Peace Conference after World War I when France denied Vietnam independence. During the 1920s and 1930s, he turned to communism and received training in the Soviet Union and China. During World War II, he organized the Viet Minh with other nationalists. They harassed the Japanese occupiers with guerrilla tactics. At the end of the War, his forces occupied parts of North Vietnam, and he declared the Democratic Republic of Vietnam an independent nation. France refused to recognize the new nation and began a war to regain control.

The first phase of the Vietnam War might be called "the French phase" (1946-1954). The United States gave aid to France because of its belief in the domino theory¹. However, the French campaigns against communist insurgents² floundered. The surrender of French forces at the Battle of Dien Bien Phu led to peace talks in Switzerland. The Geneva Agreement (1954) divided Vietnam at the 17th parallel with elections to be held within two years to unite the country.

Ho Chi Minh and his communist followers established a totalitarian government in North Vietnam, copying the examples of Soviet and Eastern European regimes. He carried out land reform and won the support of many peasants. South Vietnam came under the control of a non-communist government led by Ngo Dinh Diem (1901-1963). However, Diem refused to hold the scheduled elections, because he feared losing to the communists.

The second phase of the war might be called "the American phase" (1959-1975). At first, the United States sent only military advisers to help Diem resist the Viet Cong (communist insurgents). The Viet Cong guerrillas received aid from North Vietnam and harassed the South Vietnamese government. Diem's dictatorial policies, corruption, lack of land reform, and pro-Catholic policies made his government unpopular. A 1963 military coup resulted in Diem's assassination. As North Vietnam sent troops to aid the Viet Cong, the war intensified. In 1964, North Vietnamese attack on U.S. warships prompted action. The U.S. Congress passed the Gulf of Tonkin Resolution giving President Lyndon Johnson the power to use force if necessary. Johnson sent U.S. combat forces to Vietnam. The War became unpopular in the U.S. and led to Johnson's decision not to run for reelection in 1968. He was followed by Richard Nixon who promised to end the War.

U.S. Troop Escalation During The Vietnam War

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Troops</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1966</td>
<td>1000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1969</td>
<td>1500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972</td>
<td>6000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1974</td>
<td>600</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Steps Ending U.S. Involvement in Vietnam

1972 - began withdrawal of U.S. troops, "Vietnamizing" the war
1973 - secret talks led to a cease-fire and withdrawal of U.S. troops
1975 - Saigon fell and North and South united under communist government

1 domino theory (often cited belief for U.S. troop involvement in Vietnam, if one nation fell to communism, others would follow like dominoes)
2 insurgents (rising in revolt against civil or governmental authority)
3 vietnamizing (turning over responsibility for their own future and defense — military operations, for example — to the South Vietnamese)
The effects of bombing, chemical warfare, and unexploded mines and munitions devastated Vietnam. Many Vietnamese fled communism and the problems at home. These “boat people” sought refuge in Thailand, Hong Kong, and other neighboring countries. Some eventually immigrated to the U.S. It was not until 1997 that the U.S. sent an ambassador to Vietnam and reestablished full diplomatic ties.

At first, Vietnam adopted a series of 5-Year Plans similar to those of the U.S.S.R. and its satellites. However, in the late 1970s, it began a move from heavy industry to agriculture and light industry in an attempt to improve the standard of living. The lack of foreign aid and its large defense budget limited its progress. In 1988, Vietnam changed economic policy. The government decreased central planning, increased local decision making, and actively sought foreign investment. The impressive progress led to speculation that Vietnam might be the next “Asian Tiger.”

Cambodia was also a victim of the Vietnam War. Viet Cong bases in Cambodia were bombed, and U.S. and Vietnamese troops entered the country. The Chinese-backed Khmer Rouge supported their fellow communists. At the end of the Vietnam War, Khmer Rouge leader Pol Pot seized power.

In 1975, he ordered the population of the national capital, Phnom Penh, into the countryside. In his plan to develop an agrarian-based (farming) economy, almost all were assigned work as peasants. Between one and two million Cambodians died in this relocation. Many were executed as enemies of the state, others died from disease, overwork, or starvation. It is estimated that about one-third of the population died in the genocidal “Killing Fields” of Cambodia.

In 1979, Soviet-backed Vietnamese troops invaded Cambodia, unseated Pol Pot, and installed a pro-Soviet communist regime under the leadership of Heng Samrin. The government changed the name of the country to Kampuchea. Civil war ensued between the forces of Vietnam-backed Heng Samrin and Khmer Rouge factions. In 1989, a new constitution restored the right to private property.

The United Nations arranged a cease-fire, secured the withdrawal of the Vietnamese forces and the agreement of China and the United States to cease aiding warring factions. In 1990, the U.N. Security Council drew up a comprehensive peace plan and supervised an interim government. The U.N. conducted elections in 1993 resulted in Prince Norodom Sihanouk's selection as king. However, fighting with the Khmer Rouge continued.

As the decade of the 1990's closed, the UN forces withdrew, and the Khmer Rouge retreated into the hills. Its leadership split, with some defecting to the government. In 1998, Pol Pot was captured by a rival Khmer Rouge faction and died in captivity.

Conflicts and Change in the Middle East

Physical Setting

The Middle East remains a crossroads in the global setting of the late 20th century and is likely to remain so in the 21st century. This meeting ground of Africa, Asia, and Europe is also the location of major waterways important to world trade and international relationships. The Straits of the Dardanelles and Bosporus, under Turkish control, command the approach to the Aegean and Mediterranean Seas from the Black
Mini Assessment

Answer question 1 based on the outline below and your knowledge of global history.

I. ________________
   A. Pass Laws enforced
   B. Group Areas Act
   C. Afrikaans only

1 Which heading is the most appropriate for the partial outline above?
   1 Salt March  3 Holocaust
   2 Apartheid  4 October Manifesto

2 The Vietnam and Boer Wars are similar because in both cases
   1 war quickly ended with few casualties
   2 authoritarian, communist regimes emerged
   3 colonial people established independent democracies
   4 a major power suffered embarrassing losses

3 The current status of the harijans (untouchables) in India might best be described as
   1 rapidly improving because of government jobs programs
   2 little changed in rural areas, but with some improvement in cities
   3 basically unchanged from pre-independence India
   4 declining because modernization has cost them jobs

Constructed Response:

Base your answer to the following questions on the two speaker statements below and your knowledge of global history.

Speaker A

“The Hindus and Muslims belong to two different religions, philosophies, social customs, literatures. They neither intermarry nor interline together and, indeed, they belong to two different civilizations which are based mainly on conflicting ideas and conceptions.”

Speaker B

“Pakistan is... impracticable. Such a Pakistan would comprise two main areas, one in the north-west and one in the north-east. Yet the north-west areas would have a non-Muslim minority of 37.93 per cent and the north-east a non-Muslim minority of 48.31 per cent.”

1 Which Speaker would support the establishment of separate nations, India and Pakistan?

2 Although the Speakers do not agree, each indirectly predicted problems that would face the Indian subcontinent. Select one of the two Speakers and explain why this statement is true.

Sea. Russia still needs access to the seas for warm water ports. The Suez Canal links the Mediterranean with the Red Sea and the Indian Ocean. Although the largest oil tankers no longer fit through the Canal, a considerable amount of the world’s shipping passes through the Canal. Also in the region, the Persian Gulf and the Strait of Hormuz, at the Gulf’s mouth, are the routes for much of Middle Eastern oil.

Oil is also responsible for much of the global focus on the Middle East. Petroleum resources first assumed importance during World War I. European countries established the mandate system for this area at the Paris Peace Conference, in part, to maintain control over this vital resource. After World War II, the superpowers struggled to influence the area as colonialism declined. With the increased demand for petroleum in developed Western countries, the Middle East became increasingly important.

The Middle East is an area of cultural diversity and diffusion. Over thirty different languages are spoken. Borders drawn by colonial
powers often placed different ethnic and religious groups within one country. For example, the hostility of Kurds and Arabs in Iraq continues to plague world affairs today. Islam is the dominant religion. Most Arabs follow Islam, but so do many Iranians, Turks, and Kurds. The major sects of Islam are Sunni and Shi'ite. Different sects are apparent in the Christian communities also. There are Eastern Orthodox, Roman Catholic, and Coptic Christians. Even within Israel, different approaches to Judaism range from Reformed to Orthodox and influence everything from politics to culture. Differences among and within the three major religions influence the affairs of the region.

CREATION OF THE STATE OF ISRAEL

Although the Middle East has seen historic clashes of culture, modern Israel’s creation as a homeland for Jews in the post-World War II era destabilized the region. Both the Arabs and Jews have early historic claims to the area. The Hebrew people lived on this land about 4,000 years ago. In the World War I period, Britain gave both groups promises of nationhood. Jewish migration to Palestine, which began in the late 19th century, intensified with the rise of Hitler and anti-Semitism in the 1930s, and further increased in the post World War II period. Arab opposition increased because of concern over becoming a minority in what they regarded as their homeland.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>War / Terrorist Campaign</th>
<th>Causes</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Suez Canal Crisis</td>
<td>President Nasser of Egypt nationalized the Suez Canal and denied Israel access</td>
<td>Britain, France, and Israel attacked Egypt. U.N. arranged truce and sent peacekeepers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Egypt demanded withdrawal of U.N. peacekeepers, terrorist attacks on Israel, closure of Gulf of Aqaba to Israel</td>
<td>Israel won control of and occupied West Bank, Golan Heights, Gaza Strip, Sinai Peninsula, and all of Jerusalem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Six Day War</td>
<td>Desire of Arabs to regain lost territories led to attack on Israeli troops in Gaza and Galil. U.S. aided Israel; U.S.S.R. aided Syria</td>
<td>U.N. arranged a cease fire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1967</td>
<td>Young Palestinians protested Israeli rule of occupied areas with attacks on troops and selected targets</td>
<td>Israeli retaliated by arrests, imprisonment, destruction of homes of Arabs involved, and closure of access to Israeli controlled areas to Arab employees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yom Kippur War</td>
<td></td>
<td>Transjordan, Egypt, Iraq, and Lebanon attacked. Israel won the war and doubled its territory gaining about one-half of Jerusalem in the process. About 700,000 Palestinian Arabs fled to neighboring states. Many of them ended up in refugee camps under U.N. protection and support. Generations of Arabs grew up in these camps, and they became fertile recruitment ground for radical Arab terrorist groups.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973</td>
<td></td>
<td>Since the U.N. arranged truce in 1949, a number of other wars or terrorist campaigns have marred Middle East peace. There have also been numerous attempts to stabilize the area and preserve the peace.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intifada</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After World War I, Britain and France ruled areas of the former Ottoman Empire as mandates. They created several independent Arab states. Iraq became a nation in 1932, and Jordan, Syria, and Lebanon reached the same status after World War II. However, Britain was too weak to deal with the crisis in Palestine. As a consequence, it turned the problem over to the United Nations. The U.N. came up with a plan to partition the area between Arabs and Jews in 1947. The plan also called for making Jerusalem an international zone under U.N. supervision.

In May 1948, Britain withdrew from Palestine. Israel declared its independence and was immediately recognized by the United States. In what became known as the War for Independence, Arab forces from Syria, Transjordan, Egypt, Iraq, and Lebanon attacked. Israel won the war and doubled its territory gaining about one-half of Jerusalem in the process. About 700,000 Palestinian Arabs fled to neighboring states. Many of them ended up in refugee camps under U.N. protection and support. Generations of Arabs grew up in these camps, and they became fertile recruitment ground for radical Arab terrorist groups.

Since the U.N. arranged truce in 1949, a number of other wars or terrorist campaigns have marred Middle East peace. There have also been numerous attempts to stabilize the area and preserve the peace.
Israel has a mixed economy with government and private ownership of business. Much of the development capital has come from the U.S. government and Jews living outside of the country. Important industries include processed foods, electrical machinery, precision instruments, and diamond cutting. During the 1970s and 1980s, high inflation\(^1\), provisions for a large number of immigrants, a large defense budget, and an unfavorable balance of trade limited progress. However, through the use of science, technology, land reclamation, and irrigation, Israel is close to being self-sufficient in agriculture. Various forms of organization are evident in the agricultural sector:

- **kibbutz** – farmers share work and profits
- **moshav** – farmers work individually, but the settlement markets products
- **moshava** – individual farmers work as private entrepreneurs

**KEY MIDDLE EAST STATES**

**EGYPT**

Egypt's greatest economic challenge is feeding its growing population. After Gamal Abdel Nasser (1918-1970) emerged from the coup that overthrew King Farouk in 1952, he moved the country toward a mixed economy. Nasser nationalized the Suez Canal, alienating Britain, France, and the U.S. In 1958, he entered a federation with Syria (United Arab Republic, 1958-1961). Land reform and increased irrigation became important goals, but they did not remove

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\(^1\) Inflation (persistent increase in the level of consumer prices or a persistent decline in the purchasing power of money, caused by an increase in available currency and credit beyond the proportion of available goods and services)
the differences between middle class farmers and the fellahin (peasants). However, construction of the Aswan High Dam (completed in 1970 with Soviet funding), did provide for more irrigation, opened additional land for farming, controlled Nile flooding, and increased hydroelectric power. In 1961, Nasser began the nationalization of business and began the use of plans to encourage economic development. He tried to resign after Egypt's defeat in the 1967 Six-Day War, but his popularity kept him in office until his death in 1970.

Nasser's successor, Anwar al-Sadat (1918-1981) broke with the Soviets and encouraged an "open door" regarding foreign investment — especially from the U.S. — and some businesses were privatized. Egypt's economic problems may have motivated Sadat's peace efforts, but he was assassinated before seeing their results.

Mohammed Hosni Mubarak (1928-) replaced Sadat as president. In the early 1990s, Mubarak undertook a program of economic reforms advocated by the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank. He decreased price controls and government subsidies and moved to liberalize trade and investment. Key industries include food processing, textile production, and refined petroleum. Serious problems involving population growth, foreign debts, and terrorism of Islamic fundamentalists continue to hurt economic development.

Egypt contends with a weak economy unable to feed an increasing population. The economic problems create fertile ground for discord. Islamic fundamentalists constantly criticize the modernist government's policies. To further destabilize Mubarak's government, the fundamentalists have carried out several attacks on tourists, a major source of income for the government.

Turkey's economy continues to have strong government influence. Manufacturing has increased considerably since the 1950s. Key products are textiles, processed food, and petroleum products. However, in the early 1990s, agriculture remained a key component of the economy. About 50 percent of the labor force was involved in farming, and the country was self-sufficient in the production of basic foods. By the mid-1990s, increasing budget problems were evident, and annual inflation reached as high as 150 per cent. This led the government to privatize some of the industries and reduce the price of some goods produced by government-owned industry.

In the period after World War II, countries of the region sought to modernize. To many leaders, this meant Westernization. Many aspects of Western culture were adopted as cultural diffusion occurred. This movement was particularly strong among the young. However, the high expectations of improvement were not met, and many became disillusioned. During the 1970s, there were calls for a return to Islam and the Shari'a. Some factions blamed problems on Western ways. In many countries, a struggle ensued between secularism and Westernization on one side and Islam and tradition on the
other. **Islamic fundamentalism** appeared in both Shi'ite and Sunni Muslim countries. In some instances, fundamentalists gained control of the government; in others, they used terrorism to bring about change. When fundamentalists gained governmental control, major restrictions were placed on the rights of women, but the movement also tried to ease the problems of the poor.

**Iran**

The fundamentalist movement first attracted global attention in Iran. The Shah of Iran, **Mohammed Reza Pahlavi** (1910-1980), wished to modernize his country with the oil wealth and aid from the West. However, he tried to separate religion and the state and did not consult the Muslim clerics (clergymen) about his changes. He also used the Savak (secret police) and army to deal strictly with opposition. When a parliamentary leader, **Muhammad Mossadegh** (1880-1967) led the fight to nationalize the foreign owned petroleum in 1953, he was ousted by the Shah with U.S. help.

**Reform Goals of the Shah**

- Improvement of education, medical care, and the infrastructure
- Increase women's rights
- Implement a land reform program

Opposition to the dictatorial government of the Shah increased. Its focal point was a Shi'ite religious leader Ayatollah **Ruhollah Khomeini** (1900-1989), who lived in exile. In 1979, Shah Pahlavi was forced to flee Iran and his government was overthrown. Khomeini established an Islamic Republic, made religion the dominant force in life for all, repealed Westernized aspects of culture, and revoked women's rights legislation. After the Shah was granted entry to the United States for health reasons, the U.S. embassy was seized and fifty-three hostages were taken. After a 444 days of captivity and a failed U.S. military rescue attempt, negotiations secured their release.

Khomeini died in 1989, and new leaders pursued slightly more moderate policies. Attempts were made to improve the economy and relations with some Western nations. The 1997 election of President **Mohammed Khatami** brought some promise of a lessening of tensions in U.S.-Iranian relations. Khatami defeated his conservative opponent by a vote of 3 to 1. His support came from women, the educated, the poor, and the young. It sent a message to the conservative parliament. However, high unemployment and a 24 percent inflation rate presented barriers to progress.

**Fundamentalism in Other Middle East Nations**

Other nations are also coping with Islamic fundamentalist groups. In Algeria, there is an ongoing civil war between the Islamic Salvation Front and the military. The 1991 elections which promised an Islamic party victory were canceled by the army. The civil war began in 1992, and it is estimated that there are approximately 30,000 guerrillas operating in the country.

Each year, the Muslim month of Ramadan brings major violence. On the average, over 600 people have been killed during this month in each year of the war. In 1997-1998, entire villages were wiped out. The government blames the Islamic fundamentalists; they blame the government. Given limited access to the areas involved by foreign observers, it is difficult to determine responsibility.

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1 Islamic fundamentalism (adherence to basic principles of Islamic Law and observance in public affairs)
Muammar al Qaddafi (1942- ) and his followers seized power from the monarchy in 1969. In 1972, he was given the position of head of state. Government policies are derived from his “Green Book,” which proclaims Islamic socialism to be the goal. Petroleum revenue is used to build housing, roads, and educational and communications systems. However, much of the wealth is used for the military and terrorism activities. Libyans are believed responsible for a bombing attack on a West Berlin nightclub used by American servicemen. They are also blamed for the sabotage on Pan Am Flight 102 on which all 259 people were killed over Scotland in 1988. Initially, the Libyan government was unwilling to surrender the two men accused in the Pan Am attack. This led to a U.N. ban on arms sales and airline flights to Libya in 1992. Yielding to international pressure, Libya later agreed to turn over the suspects for trial in a neutral country.

TURKEY

Terrorism is also used by Islamic fundamentalists in Turkey. In 1996, an Islamic-led coalition government ended the secular rule of Turkey that had lasted 70 years. The government strengthened ties to Iran and Libya and carried out some minor pro-Islamic reforms. In 1997, the Islamic Welfare Party gave up control of the government when threatened by a military coup. In early 1998, the highest court in Turkey banned the Party saying that it violated the constitutional separation of religion and state. Terrorist incidents increased and appeared to be related to the fundamentalist movement. Islamic Party leadership vowed to return for future elections.

AFGHANISTAN

The Taliban fighters in Afghanistan combine the ideas of Sunni Muslims with those of Mao Zedong. The movement started in the 1980s in refugee camps in Pakistan where people fled the fighting during the Soviet occupation of Afghanistan. The brutal Soviet-backed communist government established in Kabul in 1978 turned the youth against Marxist-Leninist ideas. They turned instead to the ideas of Mao and stated that their goal was to serve the people. After the U.S.S.R. withdrew its troops in 1989, the various resistance groups began to fight among themselves for control. This enabled the Taliban to seize Kabul in 1996, but fighting continued in other areas of the country.

The Taliban imposed severe restrictions on women. Initially, they were not allowed to work outside the home, leave home without an escort by a male relative, and forced to wear the burqa. Later, the order was altered to allow women doctors and nurses to work but under very restrictive conditions. War widows often found themselves with no means of support. Men were given 45 days to grow a Muslim beard (untrimmed) and to wear traditional clothing. Special religious police enforced these orders.

Economic problems continue throughout the Middle East. Frequently, Islamic fundamentalist groups provide food, housing, health care, and education to the population. The takeover of normal governmental services by these religious groups explains the support they enjoy in many countries of the region.

LEBANON

Tensions in the Middle East between religious groups have also led to wars. In post-World War II Lebanon, the Christians were the majority with Muslims sects (Suni, Shi'ites, Druze) and others forming minority groups. The government was balanced with a Christian president and a Muslim prime minister. However, during the Arab/Israeli wars, floods of Muslim

1 burqa (body covering garment with a mesh opening to see and breath)
refugees entered Lebanon. The Muslims then became a majority. The PLO and other more radical groups were active in the refugee camps. They used them as bases to attack Israel, and this led to Israeli attacks on Lebanon. Militia groups fought each other, and Syria and Israel intervened to protect their differing interests.

1992, a truce was signed. Beirut, the capital of Lebanon, began to revive economically. However, both Syria and Israel continue their involvement and outbursts of violence occur.

**IRAQ**

During the 1980s when there was turmoil in Iran, Saddam Hussein, president of Iraq, took the opportunity to seize a disputed, oil-rich border area. Khomeini rallied the Shi'ite minority in Iraq against Saddam and his Sunni majority. However, the Iraqi tanks, planes, and poison gas proved to be too much for Iran and its Shi'ite supporters. About 500,000 people died, and both sides lost important oil facilities. In 1988, the U.N. arranged a truce.
In 1990, Hussein turned his attention to Kuwait, another oil-rich neighbor, with which he claimed a border area. In “Operation Desert Shield,” a United Nations-approved, U.S.-led coalition of 28 nations won the 4-day ground Persian Gulf War against Iraq. After the War, “no fly zones” were established in parts of Iraq to protect the Shi’ite and Kurd minorities from further brutality at the hands of Hussein. The United Nations also levied economic sanctions against Iraq, but later modified them for humanitarian reasons to allow some oil to be sold to purchase medicine and food.

Problems continued. In 1998, Hussein started another crisis when he denied access to buildings which an international team of inspectors wished to enter to search for forbidden nuclear, biological, and chemical weapons.

After a U.S. military buildup in the area, he allowed the inspectors to enter the areas previously denied. However, suspicions remained that the Iraqi government moved its weapons production facilities in advance of U.N. inspectors’ arrivals.

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**Mini Assessment**

1. The Israeli War for Independence (1948) resulted in:

   1. Israeli control of vast petroleum reserves
   2. a loss of Israeli territory to Arab nations
   3. an embargo on U.S. military sales to Israel
   4. the establishment of U.N. refugee camps for Palestinian Arabs

2. U.S. President Jimmy Carter, Egyptian President Anwar Sadat, and Israeli Prime Minister Menachem Begin cooperated to:

   1. reopen the Suez Canal to commercial vessels
   2. end nuclear weapons research in the Middle East
   3. complete Palestinian self-rule
   4. negotiate the Camp David Accords

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3. Which do Turkey, Egypt, and Algeria have in common?
   1. nuclear weaponry
   2. NATO membership
   3. Islamic Fundamentalist opposition
   4. large petroleum reserves

**Constructed Response:**

Use the sketch below and your knowledge of global history to answer the following questions.

**1.** What struggle do the right and left hand sides of the sketch represent?

**2.** Why is this struggle particularly intense in Islamic areas?
COLLAPSE OF COMMUNISM AND BREAKUP OF THE SOVIET UNION

Cold War tensions between the Soviet Union and the Western powers fluctuated during the period that Nikita Khrushchev (1954-1971) was the Soviet leader. His denunciation of Stalin led to considerable divisions in the communist world. His attempts to improve the standard of living by shifting production from heavy industry to consumer goods and agriculture appeared to be an acknowledgment of weaknesses in the command system. Internationally, his policy of "peaceful co-existence" promised to decelerate the arms race. On the other hand, his suppression of the Hungarian Revolution of 1956, his demand for construction of the Berlin Wall, and the Cuban Missile Crisis (1962) heightened tensions. Economic failures and foreign policy problems forced Khrushchev from office in 1964. His monument in the Novodevichy Convent cemetery is half black and half white stone, acknowledging his mixed record.

DÉTENTE: EASING TENSIONS IN THE 1970'S

Khrushchev's successor, Leonid Brezhnev (1906-1982), also had a variable record. His attempts to increase production of consumer goods resulted in quality improvement, but insufficient quantity. During the 1980s, production shifted back to an emphasis on heavy industry. He followed a harsh policy against dissidents (government critics). Some, like the renowned physicist, Andrei Sakharov, were sentenced to internal exile. Others were imprisoned or sent to mental institutions.

Brezhnev's foreign policy was called détente (a period of more cordial relations). In the 1970s, it led to the signing of the SALT (Strategic Arms Limitation Treaty) and the Helsinki Accords in 1975. However, it was Brezhnev's government that ordered the 1968 invasion of Czechoslovakia. He also announced the Brezhnev Doctrine, stating that the Soviets had the right to intervene in any communist country whose actions threatened the international communist movement. In 1979, he unleashed an invasion of Afghanistan. The war was costly in terms of lives and expenditures, and it aroused much opposition within the U.S.S.R. After Brezhnev's death in 1982, his elderly successors - Konstantin Chernenko and Yuri Andropov - had little effect on domestic or foreign policies because they each died shortly after taking office.

SOVIET SETBACK IN AFGHANISTAN

Brezhnev's decision to invade Afghanistan came after a group of leftist military officers overthrew the Afghan government in 1978. They attempted to carry out a land reform program, fight illiteracy, and increase women's rights. Islamic leaders and conservatives opposed these actions and led a revolt against the government. The Soviets feared a spread of the revolution to the large Muslim populations of their Central Asia republics.
The Soviets began to aid the communist government against the Mujahadin rebels. Initially, the rebels received aid from the U.S. and some Muslim nations. The aid was filtered through Pakistan where the Mujahadin had bases. The Soviets used conventional military forces against the guerrilla tactics of the rebels with little success. In many ways, the Afghan invasion for the Soviets was similar to the U.S. experience in Vietnam. The war was unpopular in the Soviet Union. After protests, the government negotiated a truce in 1988, and Soviet troops began withdrawing in 1989. It is estimated that combat deaths totaled 700,000. Civil war continued after the Soviet withdrawal as various Mujahadin groups competed for power.

**GORBACHEV'S REFORMS**

While Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev's (1931- ) decision to withdraw from Afghanistan was popular at home, some of his other changes led to dissension. His policy of glasnost (openness) resulted in an increase in freedom to criticize the government. The government moved in a more democratic direction—some dissidents were allowed to leave the country, more Jews were allowed to emigrate to Israel, and some political prisoners were freed.

Politically, reforms increased the power of the national legislature, the Congress of the People's Deputies, and the power of the president. Rival groups were allowed to form opposition political parties. Many in the Soviet Union interpreted these changes as a sign of weakness. **Perestroika** — Gorbachev's policy of economic reform—sought movement toward a free market while keeping the basic elements of communism.

Gorbachev had his greatest impact in the area of foreign policy. He repealed the Brezhnev Doctrine, indicating that the Soviets would not intervene in the internal affairs of Eastern Europe satellites. This signaled the development of pro-democracy movements. Communist regimes were overturned and, in many cases, replaced by freely elected non-communist governments.

The Warsaw Pact disintegrated in 1991. Gorbachev also signed agreements to decrease missiles and Soviet troops stationed outside national boundaries. For his efforts, he was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize in 1990.

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1. glasnost (official policy of the Soviet government emphasizing candor with regard to discussion of social problems and shortcomings)
2. perestroika (organizational restructuring of the Soviet economy and bureaucracy that was begun in the mid 1980's)

At home in Russia, reforms brought frustration to Gorbachev and social pain to the Russians. His popularity and power diminished, and he resigned.
Gorbachev was very popular abroad, but not at home. His policies caused economic dislocation and confusion. Gorbachev agreed to the Treaty of Union which gave considerable power to the republics. Fearing the disintegration of the nation, conservative politburo members captured Gorbachev and launched an unsuccessful coup in mid-1991. Russian Federation President Boris Yeltsin (1931-) rallied resistance to the plotters, and the Red Army refused to fire on his supporters. After the coup, the republics declared independence. The U.S.S.R. declared an end to end its existence in 1991, and Gorbachev resigned as President.

RUSSIA IN TRANSITION

Boris Yeltsin was Gorbachev’s protégé and became the first popularly-elected President of Russia. He resigned from the Communist Party in 1987 because of its resistance to reform and was then elected President of the Russian Federation on a reform platform. After the coup attempt, Gorbachev also resigned from the Party and briefly shared power with Yeltsin. Today, the Communist Party remains strong in Russia and the former Soviet republics. It controls the lower house of the Duma (Russian Parliament) and a number of local governments.

Party members or former members often remain at the top of the newly independent republics. A loose union of some of the former Soviet republics, called the Commonwealth of Independent States was formed in 1991. However, strong nationalism and fear of Russian domination limit the amount of cooperation among the former Soviet republics.

Economic problems threaten to overwhelm Yeltsin’s government. Reforms to establish a free market economy started in 1991. Privatization of industry faced the opposition of industry managers and conservatives. By 1995 however, 14,000 state and municipally-owned factories were privatized. The speed of the priva-
The Gross Domestic Product reflected the chaos of the early 1990s. In 1994, the GDP was about half of what it was in 1991. Between 1990 and 1993, agricultural output decreased by an average 5 percent per year. Industrial production decreased by 16 percent in 1993 alone. Inflation reached as high as 2600 percent annually in the early years of reform. Pensioners\(^1\) and others on fixed incomes experienced serious difficulty. Many people, including government workers, found themselves working for no pay. However, by the mid-1990s, signs indicated that the economic decline had slowed. The Central Bank became more cautious in its loans to former state enterprises, and production of consumer goods increased. Russians sent less capital to foreign banks and the young, professional class was prospering.

Corruption and crime became serious in Russia. The people sensed the free market reforms were not improving their quality of life. Many yearned for the return of communism and the "safety net" of welfare programs and benefits. This was particularly true of the older generation. Boris Yeltsin's health was also a concern. His heart problems and withdrawals from public view posed questions about the future. His frequent cabinet changes led to concerns about policy continuity.

Some of the former republics of the U.S.S.R. experienced ethnic violence. The Abkhazia and South Ossetia areas of Georgia revolted. The government of Eduard Shevardnadze, former Soviet foreign minister, was unable to halt the violence. In 1994, a cease-fire was negotiated. In early 1998, there was no active fighting, but a final solution was elusive.

Armenia and Azerbaijan resorted to war over Nagorno-Karabakh, an Armenian-inhabited area located within Azerbaijan. Having experienced the Turkish Massacres of 1915, Armenians were determined to protect their fel-

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\(^1\) pensioners (those who live on fixed state retirement allowances)
1995 brought former communist Alexander Kwasiniewski to power largely because of the economic problems caused by the change to a free market economy. However, the communist government simply slowed the pace of reform, rather than reversing it.

One of the most dramatic pro-democracy incidents involved the dismantling of the Berlin Wall in 1990. Originally constructed in 1961 to prevent the flow of educated East Germans to the West, the Wall was a symbol of the division between the democratic, free market of the West and the totalitarian, command systems of the East.

After the opening of the East German border, about 2,000 people per day moved to West Germany. The immigrants created housing and employment problems in West Germany. After reunification was official in 1990, Germany moved to improve conditions in the eastern half. About $70 billion was spent to help the economy, but despite the aid, a period of hardship occurred during the transition to the free market economy. About 50 percent of the population of the east was unemployed and 75 percent of the businesses failed by the end of 1991. Germany also helped to pay for the withdrawal of Soviet troops from the east and provided new housing for them on their return home. By the late 1990s, conditions were slowly improving in the former East Germany. However, the costs created problems for the economy of the former West Germany, and many West Germans resented the higher tax burden created by the need to help.

Ethnic conflicts also broke out in the former satellites and republics of the U.S.S.R. Authoritarian communist governments stifled the nationalism of various ethnic minorities, but with increased political freedom, many of these groups demanded independence.

In Czechoslovakia, the 1948 constitution recognized two major ethnic groups, the Czechs and the Slovaks. However, the western or Czech part was industrial, and the eastern or Slovak part was agricultural. It was difficult to have

Soviet Satellites Break Free

In the late 1980s, a pro-democracy movement swept through the Soviet Eastern European satellites triggered by Gorbachev's policies of glasnost and non-intervention. People in many of these countries moved to free themselves of communist control. Poland made a successful transition to democracy under the leadership of the Solidarity union and Lech Walesa (1943-).

Solidarity won 99 of 100 seats in the Senate in 1989 elections, and Walesa was elected President in 1991. Democratic elections in

low nationals in Azerbaijan. Armenia appears to have won with Russian aid; however, its deteriorating economic and political situation lead to questions of continuing control. Azerbaijan, with its considerable oil wealth, may be able to regain control in the long run. A 1994 cease fire was enforced by Russian peacekeepers, but incidents of violence still occur.

Glasnost, "a new openness," was like opening a window, bringing in a era of "freshness."
economic policies that benefitted both equally. In 1992, the "Velvet Revolution" occurred. Czechoslovakia divided peacefully into the Czech Republic and the Slovak Republic. The Czech Republic made considerable economic and political progress under the leadership of President Vaclav Havel (1936- ), but the agrarian Slovak Republic maintained a slower pace of development.

In Yugoslavia, change was violent. This Balkan federation ruled an area torn by ethnic strife for centuries. After World War II the forceful presence of independent communist leader, Marshal Tito held it together. After his death in 1980, the country experimented with collective leadership. Top positions rotated among the major ethnic groups: Serbs (Orthodox religion), Croats (Roman Catholics), and Muslims. In May, 1991, the Serbs blocked the Croat candidate from assuming the presidency, and a civil war erupted.

The parliaments of Croatia and Slovenia declared independence, followed by Bosnia and Herzegovina. In 1992, Serbia and Montenegro united as a new Yugoslavia. The Civil War was marked by "ethnic cleansing". The atrocities horrified the world. Between 1992 and 1995, U.N. and European Union diplomats' attempts to end the violence met with little success. In 1995, a truce was negotiated which called for NATO troops to act as peacekeepers until stability could be restored. The 1996 elections provided no solution to the problem, and the peacekeeping troops remained. Attempts by the United Nations' International War Crimes Tribunal to bring those accused of committing atrocities met with limited success.

1 ethnic cleansing (attempt to eliminate a racial, religious, tribal or cultural group)
Mini Assessment

Khrushchev and Brezhnev both tried to decrease economic dissatisfaction in the Soviet Union by
1. increasing the production of consumer goods
2. abandoning collective farms for private ownership of land
3. stopping economic aid to the satellites and Cuba
4. ending the role of central planners in setting quotas

2. The destructive force of nationalism can best be seen in the
1. "Velvet Revolution" in Czechoslovakia
2. breakup of Yugoslavia
3. union of East and West Germany
4. establishment of the Commonwealth of Independent States

3. Long term results of the reforms of Mikhail Gorbachev led to
1. an improvement in his popularity at home, but a decline in foreign respect
2. more privatization of agriculture, but increased nationalization of industry
3. more Russian control of the satellites, but a smaller military force in Eastern Europe
4. increase in democracy, but many serious economic problems

Constructed Response:

Base your answer to the following questions on the cartoon below and your knowledge of global history.

1. What does the sinking ship symbolize?

2. How did the sinking of the ship change global politics?

New problems developed in 1998. The Kosovo area, with a 90 percent Albanian population, exploded into violence against its Serb government. The Kosovo Liberation Army resorted to attacks on the Serb military which retaliated with massacres of ethnic Albanian villagers. The international community feared a spread of violence into other areas of the Balkans. U.N. peacekeepers were on alert and hoped to preserve the peace.

Political Unrest in Latin America

Physical Setting

Latin America experienced considerable unrest in the post-World War II period. It is composed of 33 independent nations and 3 colonies. Generally, geographers divide it into South America, Central America, Mexico, and the Caribbean. Geographic features such as the
Andes Mountains and the coastal Sierras in Central America, along with the great Amazon, Rio de la Plata, and Orinoco River systems make regional unity difficult. Resources such as the petroleum and natural gas of Mexico, Venezuela, and Ecuador along with minerals such as iron, tin, copper, and silver provide natural wealth. However, many make their living agriculturally. Products such as coffee, bananas, sugar cane, and livestock account for much of the national income.

Despite the importance of farming, many countries of the region import food. Technology is good for export crops, but many of the subsistence farmers still use traditional methods. Frequently, land is in the hands of an elite few, and large, multinational corporations often gain most of the profit. Attempted land reforms fail when insufficient funds and training are made available to the campesinos (peasants) who become new landowners.

The major Latin American population groups are the Indians, Europeans, and Africans. However, intermarriage among the groups diminishes differences. Mestizos (Indian-European mix) make up about one-third of the population. In many areas, racial discrimination is less important than economic differences.

The gaps between rich and poor are most evident in urban areas. The wealthy live in large homes or expensive apartments while the poor live in barrios (shanty towns). The barrios often lack the basics — electricity, inside plumbing, and sewage disposal. The widespread movement from rural to urban areas increases the problems. It is estimated that 70 per cent of the population is urban and over 20 cities have populations in excess of 1 million. The migration to urban areas is fueled by the hope of jobs, better education for children, and a higher standard of living. Similar hopes lead many to leave Central America for Mexico and Mexico for the United States.
The middle class and the city workers increase in numbers. Both groups are more sympathetic to the urban poor than the wealthy landowners and the military. As a consequence, a shift in the political balance of power is occurring in some areas.

**CHANGE IN ARGENTINA**

During the early 20th century, Argentina made good economic progress. Its development was aided by relative political stability and beef and wheat exports. However, a wealthy elite was in control of the country. The Great Depression of the 1930s ended the period of relative prosperity and led to a military coup.

In 1946, Colonel Juan D. Peron (1895-1974) was elected President. He instituted 5-Year Plans with a goal of making the country self-sufficient industrially. He won the support of poor workers (descamisados, "shirtless ones"), and nationalists.

**PERON'S ECONOMIC PROGRAM**

- nationalization of many industries
- improved wages and benefits for workers
- financing of public works programs
- restrictions on foreign influence in the economy

Peron's wife, Eva Duarte Peron (1919-1952), was a valuable political asset. "Evita's" origins were humble, yet she rose to enjoy an extravagant lifestyle. Her beautiful clothes and jewels seemed to say to the poor, "you can do it too." She also helped women to gain the right to vote and sponsored various education and welfare programs. Her death in 1952 deprived Peron of a shrewd political partner.

In 1955, Peron was overthrown by a military coup. The authoritarian nature of his government, the high national debt, inflation problems, and challenges to the Roman Catholic Church increased opposition. Military and civilian governments alternated in power until Peron was restored in 1973. He was then elected President with his third wife, Isabel, as Vice President. He died the next year, and his wife briefly succeeded him until she was deposed by a military coup in 1976.

The military regime faced an ongoing battle with leftist guerrillas. In an attempt to control the situation, the military embarked on the "Dirty War." The military kidnapped, arrested, tortured, and murdered opponents or imagined opponents. The victims — the desaparecidos ("disappeared ones") — may number 20-30,000, in addition to an estimated 2300 other political murders and 10,000 political arrests.

A group of Argentine mothers whose children disappeared organized the Mothers of Plaza De Mayo. This group met every Thursday in the Plaza De Mayo to demand information about the children's fate. Many victims were thrown from planes or helicopters into the Atlantic Ocean. Eventually, the military admitted responsibility for the murders. Despite strong criticism, in 1989, President Menem pardoned the 277 military and civilians thought to be involved.

Carlos Saul Menem (1930- ) was elected President in 1989 after the Argentine loss to Britain in the Falklands / Malvinas Islands War and the development of a severe economic crisis. By the 1990s, the economy was growing with increasing privatization. However, the gulf between the rich and poor remained. Mexican economic problems and the 1997 problems in Asia adversely affected the Argentine economic progress. By 1997, unemployment reached 20 percent and protests occurred in major cities.

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1. leftist (people who advocate liberal, often socially radical, measures to change government to achieve equality and freedom sometimes at the expense of order)
FALTERING COMMUNISM IN CUBA

Cuba also faced serious economic problems in the 1990s. The causes can be found in its earlier history. As a result of the United States defeating Spain in the Spanish American War (1898), Cuba received independence in 1902. However, the Platt Amendment to Cuba's constitution gave the U.S. the right to intervene in Cuban affairs, if necessary, and rights to maintain a naval base in Guantanamo Bay.

After independence, Cuba fell under the control of a series of dictators who accomplished little. However in 1953, Fulgencio Batista (1901-1973) seized power. The Batista regime had close ties to U.S. investors who dominated the sugar cane and tobacco industries. U.S. government influence was also strong. However, little was done to bridge the gap between the rich and the poor, and disenchantment with the Batista government increased.

In 1956, Fidel Castro (1926- ) started a leftist revolution and promised to improve conditions for the poor. By 1959, Batista fled and Castro established the first communist state in the Western Hemisphere. After announcing the Marxist-Leninist state, Castro embarked on a reform program.

Many Cubans refused to live under a communist regime and fled the country. Many came to the U.S. and formed large Cuban communities in major cities. Some of these people became involved in plans to overthrow the Castro government. The Bay of Pigs Invasion in 1961 was one result. The U.S. covertly aided the plotters, but the plan was betrayed. Cuba's military easily defeated the landing parties. This victory against the "Colossus of the North" increased Castro's popularity at home.

U.S. concerns about its communist neighbor were heightened when it discovered that the Soviet Union was placing missiles with nuclear capability in Cuba. The Cuban Missile Crisis (1962) was resolved when President Kennedy ordered a naval blockade of Cuba to force their removal. Soviet Premier Khrushchev agreed to remove the missiles in exchange for Kennedy's promise that the U.S. would not invade Cuba.

Cuba was economically isolated by a U.S. trade embargo1 adhered to by most other nations of the Western Hemisphere. Yet, Castro received considerable trade benefits and aid from the Soviet Union and its Eastern European satellites. This aid enabled him to carry out domestic reforms and spread the communist revolution abroad. Cuban troops were sent to Angola, and aid was given to leftist guerrillas in El Salvador and Nicaragua.

Beginning in the 1980s, Soviet aid decreased, and Castro ceased his assistance to others. As the Cuban economy deteriorated, Castro began to allow some aspects of the free market and encouraged foreign investment. By 1994, Cuba was experiencing an economic crisis. Boatloads of refugees tried to escape to the U.S., often dying before reaching their destination. The Cuban government agreed to curtail the exodus after the U.S. promised to accept 20,000 immigrants annually. In 1996, the U.S. tightened an existing embargo against Cuba after two private

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1 embargo (government order prohibiting the movement of merchant ships into or out of its ports)
planes piloted by Cuban refugees were shot down by the Cuban Air Force over international waters. However, in 1998 after Pope John Paul II denounced the embargo, President Clinton announced plans to ease restrictions for humanitarian reasons.

**Instability in Central America**

Between 1936 and 1979, the Somoza family controlled Nicaragua. Conditions were similar to those found in Cuba. The family was anti-communist and had the support of the military, large landowners, and the United States. However, by the 1970s, the leftist Sandinista movement began to use guerrilla tactics to harass the Somoza government.

In 1979, Anastasio Somoza (1925-1980) was overthrown by the Sandinistas. In 1984, the Sandinista candidate, Daniel Ortega (1945- ) was elected President. The Sandinistas also won the Vice Presidency and control of the National Assembly and began a land reform program.

The new government received assistance from Cuba and the Soviet Union. However, the United States extended aid to the Contras, the opponents of the Sandinistas. This resulted in a civil war and economic disaster.

Several Central American countries were able to work out a compromise between the Sandinistas and the Contras and new elections were held in 1990. Violeta Charmorro (1929- ), a moderate, unseated Ortega and the Sandinistas. The 1996 elections were also won by a moderate, Arnold Alemán, but the Sandinistas continue to be an important political force.

**Mini Assessment**

1. Argentinian President Juan Perón won support from many of the people because he
   1. decreased the influence of the military
   2. kept inflation and national debt under control
   3. helped the poorest groups in the population
   4. had the support of the Roman Catholic Church

2. Initially, the Cuban regime of Fidel Castro was able to
   1. promote democratic reform
   2. modernize without foreign assistance
   3. win support from the Roman Catholic Church
   4. bring about social and economic progress

3. Leftists and communists have been able to win support in Central America because they
   1. have backing of religious interests
   2. promise land reform for the poor
   3. receive aid from multinational corporations
   4. oppose the interests of Native Americans

**Constructed Response:**

![Percent of Population Living in Cities 1960 to 1990](image)

Base your answer to the following questions on the graph above and your knowledge of global history.

1. Which area had the largest per cent of its population in urban areas in 1990?

2. Identify at least two possible solutions to the problem of increasing urbanization in LDCs.
Guatemala also experienced instability. With U.S. assistance, Col. Carlos Castillo Armas overthrew a left-leaning government with strong ties to the Guatemalan Communist Party in 1954. The military and landowners assumed control. Leftist guerrilla groups formed to harass the government. This led to government use of the military and rightist \(^1\) death squads to deal with opposition.

The group most affected were the native Indians. It is estimated that 30,000 of them were killed. By the mid-1980s, civilian government was restored, but the military held much of the power. The 1990s saw a decrease in fighting, and by 1994, the revolutionaries and the government agreed to end the 30-year civil war. Later, they agreed to change the constitution to protect Indian rights. The 1996 elections brought Alvaro Arzu Irigoyen to power. He moved quickly to rid the military of its most corrupt members and announced privatization plans.

The continuing differences between the rich and the poor in Latin America are likely to lead to additional outbreaks of violence. Going back to colonial days, the large landowners, the military, and often the leaders of the Roman Catholic Church – “the iron triangle” – have come from the same families. The three groups have supported each other and often refused to take steps to alleviate conditions for the poorest groups in the population. The growth of the middle class and the urban workers may lead to the change that the “iron triangle” of the old elite resisted.

**POST-COLD WAR “HOT SPOTS”**

As previously mentioned, “hot spots” flared all over the globe since the end of World War II. In many cases, violence and civil war have led to international intervention by the U.N. or concerned countries. In many instances, the treatment of ethnic minorities by the majority was the root cause of the problem. Friction among such groups went back centuries and was manipulated by foreign powers or authoritarian governments in order to maintain control.

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\(^1\) rightist (people or groups that advocate conservative or reactionary measures in government or politics)

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**NORTHERN IRELAND**

The history of the “Troubles” in Northern Ireland goes back centuries – to the early 1600s. At that time, England gave land in Ireland to the Protestant Scots and English in hopes that they would help to secure the area. They forced Irish Catholics off the land to become tenant
farmers. By the 19th and 20th centuries, the Irish Catholics were demanding independence and the Irish Protestants wished to remain with the United Kingdom to ensure their continued dominance. In 1921, Britain established the Irish Free State in the Catholic South while Ulster, the Protestant North, remained part of the U.K.

In Northern Ireland, approximately 50 percent of the population is Protestant, 38.4 percent is Catholic, and 11 percent claims no religious affiliation. However, higher Catholic birth rates made Protestants fearful of losing their majority. The Catholics felt that the Protestant-dominated government was responsible for their poor standard of living. Housing, job, and education opportunities were limited for the Catholics.

In 1968, Catholic civil rights demonstrators resorted to violence. In 1969, Britain sent in troops to stop the violence of the Irish Republican Army (IRA) and the Protestant Defense League (PDL). Despite numerous cease-fires and promises to end the conflict, the violence persisted.

In June 1996, a new round of peace talks started under the leadership of former U.S. Senator George Mitchell. The British and Republic of Ireland governments want Protestants and Catholics to rule Northern Ireland jointly and to establish a joint cross-border council with the Republic of Ireland. Negotiators promised a bill of rights, justice and equality for all, and police reforms in the North. Outbursts of violence continued during the talks.

However in May 1998, an agreement for proposed union of the two parts of Ireland was approved by a referendum on both sides of the border. Voters in the Republic of Ireland approved by over 90%; voters in Northern Ireland approved by over 70%. The vote in Northern Ireland indicated that a significant number of Protestants voted in favor of the agreement, and this reinforced hopes for a peaceful end to “The Troubles.” However, violent incidents continue, carried out by extremists on both sides.
CHECHNYA

After the breakup of the Soviet Union, the Russian Federation consisted of 21 autonomous republics and regions. These areas were inhabited by many different ethnic groups. In Chechnya, a province in the Caucasus Mountains, the largely Muslim population resented control by the Great Russians. Chechnya declared its independence in 1991, but Russia refused to recognize its new status. In 1994, Russian military forces were sent to restore control. Twenty months of bitter fighting followed. In 1996, with the increasing unpopularity of the action in Russia, a peace agreement was signed. Russian troops began their withdrawal. However, clashes between Chechen and Russian forces still occur in southern Russia.

With the large number of minorities within Russia and the long history of domination by the Great Russians, the possibility of more Chechen-type actions is strong. The continuation of economic problems in Russia, the high unemployment, the lack of capital for improvements, and the general disintegration of the economy and social welfare safety net may lead other minorities to conclude that their best hope for a more prosperous future may involve independence.

MEXICO

Mexico also has a problem with its largest (29 percent) ethnic minority, the Native Americans. The southernmost state of Chiapas has been the site of a peasant revolt against the central government. The Zapatista National Liberation Army began the revolt in 1994. They demanded improved living conditions and greater rights of autonomy for poor Indian communities. Clashes between the Zapatistas and paramilitary groups linked to the government have cost many lives.

In 1998, President Zedillo's government proposed to change the constitution to recognize the existence of Native Americans and allow them to appoint some of their village leaders. In a country which often ignored Native American rights, this represented a step forward. However, it did not go far enough for the Zapatistas, and the government refused to grant total autonomy, saying it would hurt national unity. Outbreaks of violence continue.

Again, economic conditions played a role in the crisis. The wealthy landowners view the peasant revolt as a threat to their status. With their influence in the military and the government, the landowners continue to oppose major change. The economic crisis in Mexico which began in 1994 limits the ability of the government to aid the Native Americans without slighting others in the population who also need assistance.

RWANDA

Rwanda, a small country in east-central Africa, has seen some of the worse ethnic violence of modern history. Prior to the colonial period, Rwanda was governed by a Tutsi king and an elite who controlled the Hutu farmer majority.

The Tutsis remained in power under German and Belgian control. After the death of the moderate Tutsi king in 1959, Hutu violence increased. Finally in 1961, the Hutus seized control and declared independence. Many Tutsis fled and ethnic violence increased.

In 1990, Tutsi troops invaded Rwanda from bases outside the country. They waged a guerrilla war against the government and occupied parts of north Rwanda. Hutus labeled all Tutsis
traitors and killed upwards of 50,000. The shooting down of a plane carrying the President of Rwanda in 1994 led to a massacre of Tutsis and moderate Hutus. The resulting civil war led to Tutsi control of the country, genocide of one million people, and the flight of one and a half to two million Hutu to Zaire and Tanzania – the greatest mass flight of refugees in recent history. In 1996, the Hutu refugees were forced out of Zaire and their return to Rwanda led to thousands more deaths in rebel attacks and army reprisals. U.N. attempts to end the violence have not been completely successful.

**Congo**

Congo, the largest nation in central Africa, received its independence from Belgium in 1960 only to face a period of violence and civil war. In 1965 an army general, Joseph Mobutu, established a dictatorship that lasted until 1997. Changing his name to Mobutu Sese Seko, the President changed the name of the country to Zaire in 1971. The problems of the early independence period combined with Mobutu's decision to nationalize the vast mineral resources led to an economic crisis in the early 1970s. To distract attention from the economy, Mobutu used ethnic violence to divide his opposition. Promises to hold elections were broken and inflation skyrocketed out of control in 1994.

In 1996, Rwandan Hutus in Zaire refugee camps attacked Tutsis. The Zairian Tutsis and the Rwandan Army defeated the Zairian Army and took over parts of eastern Zaire, driving the Hutus out. While Mobutu was in Europe for cancer treatment, the combined Zairian Tutsi / Rwandan Army seized control of more of Zaire. In 1997, Laurent Kabila, the leader of the seven-month rebellion, ousted Mobutu and established himself as the new president and changed the country's name to Democratic Republic of Congo. In 1998, he restricted opposition groups and demanded the withdrawal of U.N. investigators examining Tutsi graves for evidence of genocide. Later, army groups originally supporting Kabila, joined with Rwandan army elements trying to drive Kabila from power.

**Korea**

North Korea is a "hot spot" for different reasons. The country is one of the few remaining Marxist-Leninist countries in the world. In the 1990s, South Korea, Japan, the U.S., and other nations became very concerned about the development of nuclear capability and a missile delivery system under the leadership of President Kim Il Sung. Initially, the government denied entrance to U.N. inspectors. However, former U.S. President Jimmy Carter negotiated a freeze on nuclear weapons development in 1994.

In 1994, Kim Jong Il succeeded his father as president. He immediately faced an economic crisis. After the Korean War (1950-1953), North Korea tried to establish “self-reliance.” Although the country has a good resource base, the war, the nationalization of industry, and the collectivization of agriculture led to economic problems
Mini Assessment

1. Problems in Chechnya, Georgia, Azerbaijan, and Armenia are primarily caused by
   1. privatization of industry and agriculture
   2. nationalism and ethnic strife
   3. price inflation from the 1973 oil crisis
   4. loss of the Soviet nuclear umbrella

2. The crisis in the Mexican state of Chiapas can be viewed as part of the long term Latin American problem of
   1. a lack of mineral resources and the wealth they provide
   2. geographic factors which hinder development of unity
   3. wealthy, upper class opposition to reform benefiting the poor
   4. division between Native Americans and the Roman Catholic Church

3. In the late 1990s, conditions in North Korea might best be described as
   1. demonstrating the positive results of a command economy
   2. at near starvation levels caused by floods and drought
   3. meeting the people's need for consumer products
   4. positive with little need to enter negotiations with South Korea

To distract the people, Kim sent troops into the demilitarized zone between the two Koreas. He also dispatched a submarine into South Korean waters for a commando raid. Both attempts were checked.

By early 1998, famine threatened the North. Floods and drought conditions limited agricultural production; food stocks were almost gone. The Food and Agriculture Organization of the U.N. urged countries to participate in an international relief program. However, some were suspicious that the food might be diverted to the military rather than aiding the civilian population. Faced with impending crisis and under international pressure, the North Koreans entered peace talks with the South. With U.S. and Chinese diplomats in attendance, the goal was a peace treaty to replace the 45-year-old armistice which ended the Korean War.

Constructive Response:

"In Derry, Northern Ireland in 1968, the heads of all City Council departments were Protestant. Of 177 salaried employees, 145 - earning £124,424 - were Protestant, and only thirty-two - earning £20, 420 - were Catholic."

"There are several ways in which Protestant Councils have discriminated against Catholics. One has been to put Protestants in better houses than Catholics, but charge the same rent. . . Another way has simply been to house more Protestants than Catholics."

— Sunday Times, Insight Team, Ulster

1. What do the quotations indicate about some of the causes of "The Troubles" in Northern Ireland?

2. Why are economic and social issues often to blame for "Hot Spots" in global affairs?
This development was considered a real threat to world peace since both countries have also tested medium range missiles, although it was not clear whether they can carry nuclear warheads. The countries share a common border. In addition, there are years of Hindu-Muslim hatreds that have resulted in three wars since 1947. The state of Kashmir has been a constant source of dispute between the two nations, and increased tensions were immediately apparent in the region. A 1992 study by the U.S. Air Force predicted the possibility of 100 million dead in a full-scale nuclear war between the two nations. The explosions ended the fragile global hope for nuclear non-proliferation.

**TIME CAPSULE**

In the generations since the end of World War II, political and social change swept the globe. Desires of ethnic groups for equality, justice, and in some cases, autonomy lead to many crises in international affairs. Few of these problems are easily resolved, and some threaten regional peace. Historically, small splinter countries often have difficulty surviving after independence. Large, powerful countries seek to expand their areas of control, and the smaller countries fall victim to dominance. The Russian Empire in the 19th century and the German Empire in the 19th and 20th centuries are examples of this type of expansion.

The period since 1945 witnessed the emergence of two superpowers, the U.S. and the U.S.S.R. Their competition for power, influence, and economic, technological, scientific, cultural, and athletic success did much to shape the post-war world. However, the late 1980s saw the beginning of the decline of the communist system, and countries increasingly turned to the free market approach. It has also seen the rise of Asian countries as economic powerhouses. Despite the economic downturn which began in 1997, most economists expect not only recovery, but further advances in Asia.

This time period also noted a change in imperialism – from political to economic. Country after country acquired independence either because it was granted by the colonial power or because violence and war forced the relinquishment of foreign control. Many of the new countries struggled to establish stable governments and often resulted in authoritarian regimes. The desire to modernize quickly and improve the standard of living for their people led many of the new governments to adopt mixed economies with considerable government control. However, large government bureaucracies staffed by poorly prepared officials led to corruption. Economic crises became common as governments struggled to diversify and reduce their reliance on a single crop or mineral resource.

Recently, ethnic violence has shaken global peace. Countries as far apart as Rwanda, Northern Ireland, India, Mexico, and Russia faced the demands of minority groups. Thousands have been killed in these struggles and more are likely to die before they end. Concern over human rights violations and threats to peace have frequently led to international intervention to curb the crises.

As the 21st century dawned, signs of optimism appeared. Long-standing problems in the Koreas and Northern Ireland showed promise of solution. International cooperation expanded, and agencies such as the U.N. worked to keep the peace in numerous areas and in different ways. However, there are reasons for pessimism. Low standards of living for much of the world’s population, ethnic disturbances, the drug traffic, and the spread of diseases such as AIDS are but a few of the issues which will trouble the peace of the 21st century.
11 Low defense costs, aided by the protection of the U.S. nuclear umbrella, help to explain the economic success of:
1. France
2. Japan
3. India
4. North Korea

12 The position of women in Communist China could best be described as:
1. improved compared with pre-1949 period
2. one of complete equality with men
3. equal with men outside of the home
4. providing equal pay for equal work

13 A major cause of problems in the command economy of the Soviet Union was:
1. an inability to increase heavy industry output
2. unwillingness of workers to meet quotas
3. central planners out of touch with production realities
4. the drain of satellite economic demands

14 On a global scale, when did the most European colonies achieve independence?
1. before 1900
2. between 1900 and World War I
3. between the World Wars
4. after World War II

Base your answer to question 15 on the cartoon below and your knowledge of global history.

15 Which is a correct conclusion based on the cartoon above and your knowledge of global history?
1. During the 1970s, control in South Africa alternated between Blacks and Whites.
2. Apartheid policies in South Africa pulled down the position of Whites.
3. A White minority dominated a Black majority through the use of apartheid.
4. Apartheid played little or no role in South Africa during the 1970s.

16 In the late 1990s, a major Egyptian economic problem was:
1. feeding its growing population
2. completing the High Aswan Dam
3. controlling Nile flooding
4. increasing usage fees for the Suez Canal

17 Which is true of countries controlled by Islamic Fundamentalists?
1. Secular forces dominate daily life.
2. Western culture is widespread.
3. Women's rights are very limited.
4. Close ties with the U.S. exist.

Base your answer to question 18 on the graph below and your knowledge of global history.

![Graph of Reserves of Oil (projected to 2030)]

18 Which action will help slow the trend indicated in the graph?
1. expanding food production
2. increasing industrialization in LCDs
3. using alternative energy sources
4. lowering worldwide oil prices

19 In the late 1990s, the position of the Communist Party in Russia might best be described as:
1. a party with support only from young voters
2. in control of the executive branch of the government
3. very weak with little chance of resurgence
4. dominant in the lower house of the Duma

20 The Mothers of Plaza De Mayo were concerned about:
1. cost of Eva Peron's jewels and clothes
2. fate of their children in the "dirty war"
3. violent opposition to President Peron
4. loss of the Falkland-Malvinas War to Britain
MULTI-CHOICE QUESTIONS

1. A shared goal of the Marshall Plan, Truman Doctrine, and COMECON was to
   1. prevent the spread of communism
   2. aid newly independent colonies
   3. improve the U.S. economy
   4. promote World War II recovery

2. The Hungarian Revolution (1956) and the Prague Spring (1968) indicated that the
   U.S.S.R. was willing to
   1. use force to control its satellites
   2. permit contested satellite elections
   3. encourage satellite economic independence
   4. disarm Warsaw Pact nations

3. Since the early 1970s, U.S.-Chinese relations could best be described as
   1. hostile with few governmental contacts
   2. fluctuating with economic and human rights disagreements
   3. cordial with adoption of a joint position toward the U.S.S.R./Russia
   4. cooperative, especially in the exchange of military technology

4. Jomo Kenyatta and Kwame Nkrumah are similar in that both were
   1. investors in heavy industry and agriculture
   2. leaders of independence movements and new nations
   3. followers of Gandhi and supporters of non-violence
   4. believers in free trade and open competition

5. The Gobi Desert, the Himalayas, and the plateaus of Mongolia and Tibet help to explain the
   1. extensive cultural diffusion from China to Russia
   2. relatively homogenous Chinese population
   3. separation of China from Korea
   4. lack of Chinese influence in S.E. Asia

6. After the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution, China’s government
   1. tried high ranking Red Army Officers
   2. adopted more moderate policies
   3. closed all institutions of higher learning
   4. refused to consider economic changes

7. During the 1990s, which economic trend was emerging in LDCs (Less Developed Countries)?
   1. increased reliance on foreign aid
   2. more dependence on oil exports
   3. movement toward a free market system
   4. lessened interest in industrialization

8. The Hausa and Tso of Nigeria and the Hutus and Tutsis of Rwanda are similar in that
   1. their differences led to catastrophic civil wars
   2. they failed to unite to oppose their colonial masters
   3. their economic wealth led to iterations of independence
   4. they quickly developed a common culture

9. The newly independent African nations south of the Sahara differed from Western European nations of the 20th century because the African nations have
   1. more industrial development
   2. more vulnerable to outside influence
   3. less common cultural characteristics
   4. less dependent on subsistence agriculture

10. Which statement about “The Troubles” in Northern Ireland is most accurate?
    1. The problems originated in events of the 20th century.
    2. Only the IRA has been guilty of terrorist tactics.
    3. Britain made no attempt to end the violence.
    4. Economic discrimination against Catholics was a key cause.
Document 1:

“...The younger people are adapting far more readily to the chaos - and opportunities - of the emerging market system...[Valeriy] Savitsky, 33, earns up to $1,000 a month working for a company that imports spare parts for foreign cars, a booming business...His salary...allows them [members of his family] to buy good food, clothes, and luxuries such as a VCR.”

- National Geographic, June 1996

Document 1 Question:

What advantages has the end of the U.S.S.R. brought to Savitsky and his family?

Document 2:

“Up to 40 million Russians — nearly a third of the population — require humanitarian help because of poverty as their vast country shifts to a market economy, a Red Cross official said...It [the figure of up to 40 million Russians] largely comprised the homeless and the disabled.”

- Reuters, 23 October 1996

Document 2 Question:

Why is the Red Cross involved in Russia?

Document 3:

“...The World Bank estimates that one-third of Russia’s...people live below the minimum means necessary for (a decent standard of living) compared to 10% in the Soviet era, when a patriarchal state lived up to its promise to provide jobs and enough to eat.”

- Los Angeles Times, 21 July 1996

Document 3 Question:

How has the number of people below the poverty level changed since the Soviet period?

Document 4:


Minimum income necessary for subsistence living - 363,000 rubles

Average monthly income - 773,000 rubles

Average monthly pension - 311,000 rubles

Document 4 Question:

According to the chart at the left and your knowledge of global history, which group of people is having difficulty obtaining even a subsistence standard of living?
THEMATIC ESSAY

Theme: Change

In the period after World War II, economic changes played a major role in global events.

Task:
- Identify one economic change that has affected the course of global history.
- Explain the nature of the change by including information about conditions before and after the change.
- Discuss the impact of the change on global history.

Suggestions:
You may use any economic change that occurred after the end of World War II (1945) that has had a major impact on global history. Some of the changes you may wish to consider include: the postwar resurgence of Japan and West Germany, the oil crisis of the 1970s, the development of regional economic unity, the decline of command economies, the rise of the Asian Tigers, the trend toward free market economies in the 1990s. You are not limited to these suggestions.

DOCUMENT BASED QUESTION

Directions:
The following question is based on the accompanying documents (1-8). Some of these documents have been edited for the purposes of this exercise. This question is designed to test your ability to work with historical documents. As you analyze the documents, take into account both the source of the document and the author's point of view.

- Write a well-organized essay that includes an introduction with a thesis statement, several paragraphs explaining the thesis, and a conclusion.
- Analyze the documents.
- Use all the documents.
- Use evidence from the documents to support your position.
- Do not simply repeat the contents of the documents.
- Include specific related outside information.

Historical Context:
The end of the Soviet Union (U.S.S.R.) had a profound effect on the lives of the people in Russia. Some benefitted and some suffered because of the change.

Task:
To what extent was the end of the Soviet Union (U.S.S.R.) a positive or negative factor in the lives of the Russian people? You may wish to include in your analysis the results of the change in relation to groups of people in the population. Support your opinion with the documents below and your knowledge of history.

Part A - Short Answer
The documents below relate to the question of positive and negative effects of the end of the Soviet Union (U.S.S.R.) on the Russian people. Examine each document carefully, and then answer the question which follows it.
Document 5:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Candidate</th>
<th>Percent of votes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yeltsin</td>
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<td>Zyuganov</td>
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<td>Lebed</td>
<td>14.52</td>
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<td>Yavlinsky</td>
<td>07.34</td>
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*Chart shows the five candidates with the highest per cent of vote. Actual candidate field numbered nine.

Document 5 Question:

In what way do these election results differ from those of the Soviet era?

Document 6 Question:

Why would this scene be less likely to have occurred when the U.S.S.R. existed?
Document 7:

above: typical urban housing of Soviet era for common people
(small 3-room apartment for 3-4 people)

below: vacation home for Soviet era communist official in
Khabarovsk, Russian Far East

Document 7 Question:

Why were there such differences in housing during the Soviet period?
**The Moscow Times**

1,000 PHONES DEAD AFTER CABLE THEFT

Some 1,000 phones were cut off this week in Moscow's northwestern Tushino district when vandals cut out sections from eight underground telephone cables. Such thefts of telephone cables occur from time to time and are mostly people hoping to sell the copper cables.

**IN BRIEF: MOSENERGO SHARES**

MOSCOW – Moscow's heating and power utility, Mosenergo, said Wednesday that shareholders had authorized 3048 billion new shares and approved 1997 dividends of 0.05 new rubles, unchanged from last year.

**RUSSIAN TRAFFIC POLICE BEGIN TO POLISH IMAGE**

Russia's infamous traffic police, despised by motorists and widely perceived as some of the country's most corrupt officials, are finally taking steps to clean up their image.

**KREMLIN VOWS NO FORCE IN DAGESTAN**

Moscow learned its lesson in Chechnya and this time around will used the carrot instead of the stick in the restive province of Dagestan, Interior Minister Sergi Stepashin said today.

**Part B - Essay Response**

Discuss the extent to which the end of the Soviet Union (U.S.S.R.) was a positive or negative factor in the lives of the Russian people.

Your essay should be well organized with an introductory paragraph that states your thesis on the impact of the end of the Soviet Union (U.S.S.R.) on the lives of the Russian people. Develop and explain why you have reached this conclusion in the next paragraphs and then write a conclusion. In your essay, include specific details and refer to the specific documents you analyzed in Part A. You may include additional information from your knowledge of global history.
TOWARD THE APOCALYPSE

GLOBAL CONNECTIONS & INTERACTIONS

AD
1970-
1975-
1980-
1985-
1990-
1995-
2000-

- computer processor invented (1971)
- Chernobyl nuclear accident (1986)
- Exxon Valdez oil spill (1989)
- Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro (1992)
- 1st American on Russian Mir Space Station (1995)
- Asian Economic Crisis (1997)
INTRODUCTION

Numerous issues face the global community as it enters the 21st century. Economic decisions involving the selection of a basic system to guide choices on how to use scarce resources, ways to resolve differences between the wealthy and the poor, and modernizing without losing traditional values must be addressed. At the same time, environmental questions, population trends, technological progress, and global migrations are issues that demand study and resolution both in the global context and on a national level.

ECONOMIC TRENDS

NORTH/SOUTH DICHOTOMY

The North/South Dichotomy\(^1\) is the division between the “have nations,” mostly in the Northern Hemisphere, and the “have-not nations,” mostly in the Southern Hemisphere. Most of the northern nations are wealthy compared to those of the south. The “have nations” have higher literacy\(^2\) rates, higher per capita incomes, longer life expectancies, and fewer children per family. These are all indicators of high standards of living. Many of the “have nations” have mixed economies, but in recent years their “mixes” have shifted in the direction of capitalism or free market. Most of the have-not nations—the less developed economies, referred to by economists as “LDCs”—struggle with a wide variety of problems. The differences between rich and poor make economic development difficult. They include factors such as: pressures of urbanization\(^3\), unstable governments, civil wars, lack of capital for investment and improving the infrastructure\(^4\), and ethnic rivalries.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Terms</th>
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<td>acid rain</td>
<td>hunger</td>
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<td>cartels</td>
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3. urbanization (to make in the nature or character of the city or city life)
4. infrastructure (basic facilities, services, and installations needed for the functioning of a community or society, such as transportation and communications systems, water and power lines, and public institutions including schools, post offices, and prisons)

THE “HAVE” AND “HAVE NOT” COUNTRIES

Based on per capita Gross Domestic Product

This location map shows the per capita Gross Domestic Product in world nations. In general, the lower the per capita GDP, the lower the standard of living and the poorer the country is. In most cases, the low GDP countries are the “have not” or LDCs.
# NORTH / SOUTH DICHOTOMY: A COMPARISON

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Most LDCs entered their post-colonial periods with a need to diversify¹ their economies and decrease reliance on a single crop or natural resource. In many instances, the colonial legacy of intensely developing cash crops² left them without sufficient food crops. Hunger and famines sapped the strength of the work force.

Even after independence, much of the best farmland was still controlled by large, multinational corporations or foreign investors. LDCs leaders feared that economic dominance by foreigners would replace political oppression³ they had just shed. They adopted a spirit of economic nationalism⁴ that often led the new countries to refuse extensive aid from the former mother country. During the Cold War, some LDCs solicited aid from the United States or the Soviet Union. In more recent times, they sought aid from the World Bank or prospering nations. Some incurred high debt and interest payments which hampered their growth.

The 1973 global oil crisis created major setback for LDCs. Most LDCs were oil importers, and oil was vital to their development. Many of them sought loans to pay the increased costs of oil imports. With so many LDCs demanding limited funds, interest rates rose. This compounded the LDCs' problems and led to recessions⁵ that lasted into the 1980s. International lenders required financial reform plans from the LDCs before lending. These "belt-tightening" reforms led to decreased government spending, fewer programs to help the poor, postponement of infrastructure development, and more economic suffering. In the 1980s, some LDCs recovered from these stringent reforms with stronger economies, but others continued to languish in debt.

## ECONOMIC DECISION-MAKING IN DEVELOPING ECONOMIES

In the post-colonial era, newly independent countries sought swift modernization and economic development. Some rejected capitalism, because they were bitter from the exploitation of their former colonial masters.

Some leaders admired the brutal, but rapid growth of the Soviet Union in the 1930s and of China in the 1950s. As a consequence, a number of the newly independent countries adopted various forms of socialism. They created centralized command systems. The governments maintained strong oversight and planning for the economy plus control of vital resources. Unfortunately, such far-reaching power led to

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¹ diversify (to distribute or invest among different companies or securities in order to limit losses in the event of a fall in a particular market or industry)
² cash crop (agricultural crop, such as tobacco, grown for direct sale rather than for livestock feed)
³ oppression (to keep down by severe and unjust use of force or authority)
⁴ economic nationalism (belief that nations will benefit from acting independently rather than collectively regarding management of their own resources)
⁵ recession (extended decline in general business activity for 3 or more consecutive quarters of falling real gross national product)
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greater corruption and abuse in the elaborate 
bureaucracies\footnote{bureaucracies (administrative system in which the need or inclination to follow complex procedures impedes effective action)} that they created.

After the economic crises of the 1980s, the reforms forced by financial lenders led many LDCs toward privatization\footnote{privatization (to change an industry or a business from governmental or public control to private enterprise)}. Many adopted more free market approaches. The “Asian Tigers” (Hong Kong, Singapore, South Korea, Taiwan) made considerable progress under such free market initiatives\footnote{free market initiatives}. Other nations, such as Brazil, Mexico, and Argentina, actually shed their LDC label for a “more developed” status. However, many “have-not nations” continued to struggle with problems remaining from their early years of independence.

\section*{World Hunger}

Famine and hunger continue to be global problems. Famine is caused by an insufficient amount of food for a long period of time. It can cause a rise in national death rates. Hunger is the result of an inadequate supply of food which can cause weakness or illness. Hunger exists in every country of the world, but famine is more apparent in LDCs. Famine conditions often bring a global relief response, but ongoing hunger problems rarely gain international attention. There are many causes of famine and hunger (see chart).

Unfortunately, some authoritarian leaders use control of food supplies to further their political ends. In the 1930s, Stalin used starvation to end kulak opposition to his regime in the Ukraine. Pol Pot’s determination to have complete control over Cambodia led to a 1970s famine. In the 1990s, Muslim forces in northern Sudan limited relief shipments to the Christian south to gain control of that area. These conditions limit the relief efforts of international organizations such as the U.N.'s FAO.

\section*{Drug Cartels}

For centuries, Native Americans in countries such as Bolivia, Peru, and Colombia grew coca leaves for their own consumption. However, the global increase in illicit narcotic use in the 1970s made cocaine and other drugs important and valuable export crops for poor countries. The elimination of border controls in Western Europe and the collapse of the Soviet Union increased the difficulty of stopping the drug traffic. As the number of disturbances, conflicts, and civil wars broke down order around the globe, more people were willing to participate in the lucrative drug traffic.

Groups of individuals formed organizations or \textit{cartels}\footnote{cartels (combinations of dealers who regulate production, pricing, and marketing by other)} to provide the necessary avenues for drugs to move from producers to users. Over the last few decades, drug cartels such as the Medellin Cartel of Colombia, purchased the raw drugs, processed them in its factories, and provided transportation to markets. Pablo Escobar, the Medellin Cartel leader, died in 1993. The Cali Cartel of Colombia emerged as the next major cocaine and heroin supplier to the U.S. market. It is estimated that it supplied 80% of...
the cocaine and 30% of the heroin in the United States in 1986.

International drug enforcement officials claim that groups such as Burma’s military junta, former Haitian and Panamanian military rulers, and Mexican and Colombian civilian and military officials take bribes to protect drug traffic. However, the very high profits lead to violence. Kidnapping and murder of government officials by rival traffickers occurs often.

The U.S. government’s war on drugs led to pressure on other countries. However, many believe that the U.S. needs to deal with the demand for drugs among its own citizens first. Drug-producing farmers in other lands were offered U.S. aid if they planted other crops. The U.S. Drug Enforcement Administration (DEA) stepped up border drug inspections. In addition, the Coast Guard began to intercept suspicious ships, and radar was used to track possible drug-carrying planes. Despite all these efforts, drug use in the U.S. remains high.

1 junta (group of military officers ruling a country after seizing power)

**Mini Assessment**

Before granting loans to LDCs in the 1990s, foreign bankers and international financial organizations frequently

1 imposed stringent reform requirements
2 demanded control of resources as security for loans
3 required a government to increase its economic control
4 seized control of the collection of tariffs

Governments of LDCs face serious problems resulting from the growth of urban areas because

1. the decline in rural population leads to food shortages
2. scarcity of resources limits their ability to provide necessary services
3. the new migrants lack the ambition necessary for urban success
4. urban birth rates are higher than those in rural areas

1 Which is an indicator of a high standard of living?
   1 high birth rate
   2 high illiteracy rate
   3 low death rate
   4 low life expectancy

**Constructed Response:**

Use the North/South Dichotomy chart on page 282 and your knowledge of global history to answer the following questions.

1 Based on the chart statistics, which country would have the highest standard of living?

2 Select one (1) of the three countries listed on the chart for the have-not nations and use your knowledge of global history to explain why it is a “have-not” nation.
The tremendous growth of urban areas in LDCs presents a challenge to governments. Many of the new urban dwellers live in shanty towns on the outskirts of the cities. Housing is inadequate, and basic services (water, sewers, electricity) are often non-existent. Unemployment\(^1\) and underemployment\(^2\) are high among people whose expectations for an improved standard of living are also high. This combination presents a dilemma of scarcity. If governments spend scarce resources to improve conditions in the shanty towns, they encourage more migration. On the other hand, if they spend resources to improve the rural quality of life to discourage migration, they will not have resources for the explosive urban situations.

### Examples of Rights found in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights

- Life, liberty, and security of person
- Freedom from slavery or servitude
- Equality before law
- Freedom from arbitrary arrest, detention, or exile

The U.N. Charter reaffirms “faith in fundamental human rights” and pledges “to promote social progress and better standards of life.” As a result of concern about human rights, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was adopted by the General Assembly in 1948. The document states: “all human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights.” They are entitled to the rights stated in the document regardless of “race, color, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, (or) birth.”

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\(^1\) unemployed (not having work; jobless)
\(^2\) underemployed (inadequately employed, especially employed at a low-paying job that requires less skill or training than one possesses)
the work of the specialized agencies such as the FAO (Food and Agriculture Organization), WHO (World Health Organization), and UNESCO (United Nations Education, Scientific, and Cultural Organization).

PATTERNS OF GLOBAL MIGRATIONS

TURKISH AND YUGOSLAV IMMIGRATION TO GERMANY

In the post-World War II period, war losses left West Germany with an insufficient labor supply. As a consequence, liberal immigration laws encouraged “guest workers” to come to West Germany. However, the reunification with East Germany has left the country with 4.5 million unemployed (c. late 1997). Approximately, 8% of the total workforce and 15% of the manual workers are immigrants. In 1993, 29% of the immigrants came from Turkey and 18% from the former Yugoslavia. Approximately 9% of the German population is foreign-born compared with 5.7% in France and 3.8% in Britain. The unemployment rate, combined with housing and economic conditions in the former East Germany, led to resentment against foreign workers. Neo-Nazi groups led attacks on foreigners. In 1992, there were reports of 2,300 such attacks.

In 1993, the German government changed the immigration law to limit immigrants. The new law seeks to eliminate those coming for economic reasons and limits those seeking political asylum. However, in 1994, the government also increased penalties for racially inspired attacks. Germany faces a moral dilemma. On one hand, it seeks redemption for the World War II genocide by helping people in need now; on the other hand, it faces problems potentially destructive to its social and economic fabric.

NORTH AFRICAN IMMIGRATION TO FRANCE

In 1990, there were an estimated 2.5 million North Africans living in France. High unemployment rates and poverty in immigrant areas led to increasing resentment against Blacks and Arabs from North Africa. There were a number of attacks on these groups by right-wing extremists resulting in violent retaliation. As a consequence, stricter immigration laws were passed in 1993. In 1994, government guidelines restricted the wearing of religious symbols in schools. Muslim girls were expelled for wearing head scarves. This led to widespread protests and law modifications. However, in 1995, plane loads of illegal immigrants were expelled as France tried to quell the violence and deal with extremists on both sides of the issue.

LATIN AMERICAN AND ASIAN IMMIGRATION TO THE U.S.

Latin American and Asian immigration to the U.S., legal and illegal, swelled during the 1970s and 1980s. Approximately, three-quarters of a million legal immigrants come to the U.S. yearly. Of that number, over 50% are of Hispanic and Asian ethnicity. Many experts view immigrants as essential to avoiding negative population growth by 2030. The decline in birth and fertility rates in the U.S. might be offset by immigrants and their higher birth rates. In 1986, a new immigration law made it possible for illegal immigrants already living in the U.S. to begin the citizenship process. Also, U.S. immigration laws have special provisions for those with valuable job skills, countries under-represented in its population, and those with immediate family members in the country.

Many immigrants enter the United States illegally. Estimates place the illegal immigrant total at more than 500,000 per year. Some come across the border illegally; others overstay visitor visas. Most of the illegal immigrants come across the border from Mexico aided by “coyotes” who sell their guide services.

Other immigrants come by boats from Caribbean islands such as Haiti and Cuba. Shiploads of illegal Chinese immigrants were discovered off both coasts of the U.S. There is evidence that organized groups bring in Chinese willing to pay high prices. Many illegal aliens

1 political asylum (protection and immunity from extradition granted by a government to a political refugee from another country)
2 extremists (one who advocates or resists measures beyond the norm, especially in politics)
3 ethnicity (people sharing a common and distinctive racial, national, religious, linguistic, or cultural heritage)
4 fertility (capable of initiating, sustaining, or supporting reproduction)
5 visa (official authorization appended to a passport, permitting entry into and travel within a particular country or region)
Mini Assessment

1. Which UN agency is a country likely to call for assistance when it experiences an outbreak of cholera?
   - FAO
   - UNESCO
   - Security Council
   - WHO

2. Foreign workers face discrimination in Germany and France because both countries
   1. lack laws to limit immigration
   2. oppose use of workers from Asian countries
   3. face unemployment and other economic problems
   4. have high native birth rates

3. Immigrants may be important to the U.S. economy in the next century because
   1. declining U.S. birth rates may lead to labor shortages
   2. unskilled labor will be the greatest economic need
   3. technology will replace most migrant farm labor
   4. mechanization will decline, creating a demand for labor

Constructed Response:

Use the cartoon below and your knowledge of global history to answer the following questions.

1. What does the cartoon tell you about a U.N. problem?

2. Select one (1) of the countries where U.N. forces have been active and explain the problems they faced.

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Science and Technology

Information Society / Computer Evolution / Internet

Many people think that the concept of the Information Society began during World War II when University of Pennsylvania scientists created an early computer to do calculations for the Manhattan Project (atomic bomb) and for artillery target estimates. The first computers were large enough to fill a warehouse-sized room, weighed 30 tons and were generally used for business purposes.

In 1953, there were about 100 computers in use world-wide; today that number exceeds 100 million. The key development was the personal computer, made possible by the invention of the microprocessor by Intel in 1971. The smaller computers expanded the market to small businesses.

---

1. sweat shops (shop or factory in which employees work long hours at low wages under poor conditions)
2. deportation (forced departure from a country by official decree, to banish)
3. assimilation (process whereby a minority group gradually adopts the customs and attitudes of the prevailing culture)
4. microprocessor (integrated circuit that contains the entire central processing unit of a computer on a single chip)
Computers, the key factor in the communications highway, have changed the nature of business, government, and life in general. PhotoDisc Inc. 1994

Impact of Satellites

Satellites\(^1\) circling the Earth provide a wealth of information. The "spy in the sky" or military satellite can provide information from nuclear explosion data to ship and troop movements. Much of the information that is used by U.N. weapons inspectors in Iraq is supplied by U.S. satellites. Weather forecasting is improved through the use of information gained from weather surveillance\(^2\) satellites that relay information from outer space. These satellites can provide information on hurricanes, clouds, and wind and temperature data. As a consequence, weather predictions are more accurate, and warning of impending natural disasters is improved.

Television signals, telephone conversations, and digital data can all be transmitted using

United States astronauts work from the cargo bay of the space shuttle during the repair of a satellite. PhotoDisc Inc. 1

---

1 satellites (objects launched to orbit Earth or another celestial body for the purpose of scientific research, communications, and information gathering)
2 surveillance (close observation from space of activities on the Earth, especially those under suspicion)
orbiting satellites. Communications satellites began operating in the 1960s. Their numbers have increased over a hundred times in twenty years. They make possible long distance communication of TV signals. Therefore, the whole world can view the Olympics held in Japan. It also makes it possible for areas that are poor or have few people to receive TV signals. Transcontinental and other long distance phone service has improved and become less expensive through the use of communications satellites.

**SPACE EXPLORATION**

Space exploration is regarded as the “new frontier,” and it is also an area of international cooperation. Spacecraft without human crews contain radio transmitters to send back information. Scientific data on the solar system and universe is obtained this way. Unmanned vehicles send back information on areas such as Mars, Venus, Mercury, Jupiter, Saturn, and Uranus.

Manned vehicles must make special provision for the air, food, water, and living accommodations for the crew. They also require a special heat shield to protect the crew during reentry into Earth’s atmosphere. The high costs of these programs leads to international cooperation.

Russia’s *Mir* space station was designed to be permanently staffed. In 1985, the first American, **Norman Thagard**, lived on board for three months. The U.S. space shuttle *Atlantis* docked with *Mir* to bring Thagard back. The old and unreliable *Mir* was taken out of service in 1999, with the promise of a new multinational space-lab station to take its place.

**LITERACY AND EDUCATION**

Literacy rates and levels of education are often used as economic indicators. In 1971, U.N. studies estimated that over 780 million people over 15 years of age were illiterate; the figures for 1989 were 1.3 billion. Most of the illiteracy was concentrated in Latin America, Africa, and Asia. It is more common in rural than urban areas because of differences in the availability of education. Poverty and illiteracy go together. The twenty-five poorest nations have illiteracy rates in excess of 80%. International agencies such as UNESCO, governments, churches and other private groups work to improve literacy rates. Countries such as Cuba, Tanzania, Nicaragua, and China have made considerable progress.

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**WORLD LITERACY**

This location map shows literacy in regions of the world. In general, the highest illiteracy is found in the “have not” or LDCs. These are the poorest nations, often with the highest birthrates and lowest standards of living.

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1 illiterate (unable to read and write, usually, having little or no formal education)
**GLOBAL ECONOMY AND EDUCATION**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>$1,130</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rwanda</td>
<td>$400</td>
<td>61%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laos</td>
<td>$1,100</td>
<td>57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haiti</td>
<td>$1,000</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mali</td>
<td>$600</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>$3,000</td>
<td>44%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td>$600</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>$17,900</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>$27,607</td>
<td>96%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Developed nations have high basic literacy rates, but there is increasing concern over functional literacy. Functional literacy requires meeting the reading and writing demands of a complex society. Studies show that anywhere from 10% to 50% of literate individuals may be functionally illiterate in today's modern societies.

**GREEN REVOLUTION**

The Green Revolution\(^1\) began in the late 1960s with the introduction of new hybrids of vital food crops such as rice, wheat, potatoes, and corn in LDCs. In order for these new types of seeds to be successful, special programs had to be established. These involved large amounts of expensive petrochemical fertilizers, irrigation, and pesticides. In the India states of Punjab and Haryana, where sizable amounts of the new crops are produced, there is considerable progress. In other areas of India where cost factors often limit implementation, producing enough food to feed the population remains a struggle. These same costs limit the use of the new seeds in other LDCs.

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\(^1\) Green Revolution (significant increase in agricultural productivity resulting from the introduction of high-yield varieties of grains, the use of pesticides, and improved management techniques)
American agronomist (agricultural scientist) Norman E. Borlaug (1914 - ) is sometimes regarded as the father of the Green Revolution. In 1970, he won the Nobel Prize\(^1\) for developing wheat strains adapted for the warmer, more arid soils of Mexico and India. Dr. Borlaug developed a program for the transfer of new procedures and programs to developing areas.

The U.N., individual nations, and private organizations took steps to implement the Green Revolution. In those areas where it could be implemented, considerable progress occurred in feeding the population, and in some cases, exporting surplus production. Where opposition to chemical fertilizers and pesticides has arisen, the U.N. and private aid agencies have launched natural, sustainable agriculture programs (see map on previous page).

**Medical Breakthroughs - Disease Control / Life Expectancy / Genetics**

The discovery of penicillin and the subsequent development of antibiotics during World War II brought about major progress in the treatment of diseases such as pneumonia, tuberculosis, and bacterial meningitis. However, the power of the new “wonder drugs” led to overuse. As a consequence, some types of infections developed a resistance to these drugs. By the 1980s, the market for antibiotics seemed to be saturated. Research for new “wonder drugs” has started, but development, testing, and approval times often cause long delays.

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\(^1\) Nobel Prizes (international prizes awarded annually by the Nobel Foundation for outstanding achievements in the fields of physics, chemistry, physiology or medicine, literature, and economics and for the promotion of world peace)

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**HIV - The Spread All Over the World**

This location map shows the areas of the world where the retrovirus HIV, which causes AIDS, has had the greatest effect. Based on these 1993 statistics, the World Health Organization expresses real concern for the worldwide spread of the disease.
nations pass laws requiring the treatment of household and industrial wastes before their release. However, accidents occur, and there is some evasion of the law.

Toxic wastes pose serious problems globally. The developed nations, well aware of their hazards, are reluctant to provide for the costly, proper treatment and disposal. As a consequence, they are often sent to LDCs where provisions for disposal are not safe.

**Deforestation**

Some of the dwindling tropical rain forests exist in parts of Indonesia, Thailand, Ghana, and the Ivory Coast. At the current rate of deforestation, tropical rain forests could disappear by 2030. With their destruction would go hundreds of species of plant and animal life. Some of the plants may contain the cure for deadly diseases such as cancer and AIDS. The destruction of the trees limits the removal of carbon dioxide from the air and increases the likelihood of problems from the greenhouse effect.

The area which attracts the most attention from environmentalists is the Amazon River Valley in Brazil. This rain forest was subjected to large scale development beginning in the 1980s. Slash-and-burn agriculture destroyed large areas of the rain forest as poor Brazilians tried to establish farms and ranches. Under international pressure, the Brazilian government tried to limit development and protect the resources of the rain forest. However, it is a difficult balancing act.

Economic development demands and heavy population pressure in northeast Brazil weigh heavily in favor of exploitation of the resources by domestic and foreign companies.

The world’s 1992 Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil called for a decrease in the emission of gases to limit global warming. It also included a biodiversity agreement which called on signatory nations to develop plans to protect endangered species and their habitats. The 1997 Kyoto Protocol called for a decrease in carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases from the 1990 levels. European Union members were to decrease their emissions by 8%, the U.S. by 7%, and Japan by 6%. LDCs were asked to set voluntary targets. The ratification process is not complete and sanctions are not established. International agreement on these issues is not easy. Frequently, LDCs accuse developed nations of using environmental limitations to hinder their development.

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1. deforestation (to cut down and clear away the trees or forests)
2. Slash-and-burn (systematic, mechanical method of felling and clearing large tracts of forested land)
3. biodiversity (the millions of species of plants and animals sustaining a harmonious relationship in the environment)
ENDANGERED SPECIES

Endangered species² disappear at a rate of a minimum of 4,000 every year, and the figure may be as high as 50,000. Most of this loss is caused by a destruction of habitats³, especially tropical rain forests and coral reefs. The giant pandas of China are threatened because their habitat and main food supply, bamboo, are being reduced by development. In addition, poachers⁴ kill members of those species with high economic value. For example, rhinoceros’ horns have a medicinal value in China. Despite laws protecting these animals, they are frequently killed, the horns removed, and the bodies left for scavengers. The 1973 Convention of International Trade in Endangered Species prohibited trade in plants and animals in danger of becoming extinct, but enforcement is difficult.

¹ Sahel (semi-arid region of north-central Africa south of the Sahara Desert. Since the 1960s it has been afflicted by prolonged periods of extensive drought)
² endangered species (plant or animal) threatened with extinction
³ habitat (native environment of a plant or animal)
⁴ poacher (one who hunts or fishes illegally on the property of another)

ENDANGERED BY HUMANS

Plastic is a large problem in our ocean. We (Marine Mammal Stranding Center) have found that dolphins, whales, sea turtles, and seals all have suffered from plastic, not to mention the countless sea birds and fish that have died as a result of plastic, either through ingestion or by their being entangled in it. Helium filled latex balloons, released into the air, often end up in the sea, where they may be eaten by some sea creature. Plastic ribbons from beer and soda six-packs as well as general litter also injure marine life. Please consider this before discarding these materials.

adapted from a flyer of the Marine Mammal Stranding Center

DESERIFICATION

Desertification, the transformation of arable or habitable land to desert, may be caused by a variety of factors. Some causes are natural, such as insufficient rainfall and strong winds. However, much of the desertification is caused by too many people, too much livestock, and over-cultivation of the fragile environment. Overgrazing on the edges of deserts damages the plants that hold the moisture and soil - the result is a spread of the desert. In a 1984 U.N. report, it was stated that 35% of the Earth’s land surface was at risk for desertification. The most serious problem developed in the Sahel¹ area of Africa between the late 1960s and the early 1980s. A drought depleted the minimal water supply, and economic conditions limited the ability of governments to decrease human and livestock use of the area. The result was a famine which required an international relief effort. Recent reports indicate a return to more normal rainfall and an easing of the famine conditions.
Nuclear Safety - Chernobyl

In 1986, the accident at the Chernobyl nuclear reactor in the western region of the former U.S.S.R. (now Ukraine) brought world attention to dangers from nuclear plants. Radioactive contamination spread over much of Europe, and over 135,000 people were evacuated from the area around Chernobyl. In a 1995 report, WHO stated that there was an "explosive increase" in childhood thyroid cancer in Belarus, Ukraine, and Russia. The report attributed the increase to the radioactive exposure from Chernobyl’s fallout. In the aftermath of the accident, the international community made plans for inspections, renovations, and closings of dangerous nuclear plants.

Plants similar in design to the one at Chernobyl were built throughout the Soviet Union and in the satellite countries. Many are near large population centers such as St. Petersburg, Russia. However, relatively little has been done to improve their safety or close them down. The cost of renovation is very high, and most of the countries involved cannot afford the expensive, high tech upgrades.

In addition, these countries depend on the nuclear plants for much of their electricity and do not have alternate sources of supply. Economic considerations have kept most of these plants in operation. Finally, in 1994, Western nations suggested an aid package to completely close the Chernobyl site, and Ukraine agreed to do so by the year 2000.

Global Fallout - The Spread of Radiation
Aftermath of the Explosion at Reactor #4,
26 April 1986 - Chernobyl, Ukraine (Former U.S.S.R.)
Source: Compilation of Satellite Data and Computer Models. Apr/May 1986

On 26 April 1986 after two years of operation and during a test "experiment" to improve the safety of Reactor #4, V.I. Lenin Nuclear Power Plant, Chernobyl, Ukraine (in 1986 part of the U.S.S.R.) overheated. Steam exploded blowing the 1000 ton roof off the reactor. Fires started, and the radioactive inventory of the reactor was thrust into the atmosphere. Radiation spread northward covering much of Eastern Europe by April 28; by the 30th, the radiation cloud spread further north, into Western Europe and Western Asia. By May 3rd the radiation had spread throughout most of Western Europe and Central and Southern Asia. By May 8th, radiation covered Europe, Asia, and into the Pacific Ocean. In three weeks, radiation had spread over much of the Northern Hemisphere.
The United States suffered a near disaster in 1979 at the Three Mile Island plant near Harrisburg, PA. The Nuclear Regulatory Commission moved to strictly regulate nuclear power plants. After this accident, power companies placed no new orders for plants, and the NRC denied certification (licensing) to many of those scheduled to open. However, countries such as France (obtains about 75% of its electricity from nuclear plants) continue to operate them and defend their safety.

**POPULATION PRESSURES AND POVERTY**

After thirty years of worry, it appears that population pressures are diminishing in the world as a whole. The global average replacement rate is 2.1 children per woman. In the 1950-1955 period the birth rate was 5 children per woman; in 1975-1990, it was 4; in 1995, it was 3; and in 1998, it was estimated at 2.8 and decreasing. The LDC birth rate was 6 children per woman between 1965 and 1970; it is now 3 and decreasing rapidly. However, with the exception of areas such as China, Cuba, and Thailand, the LDC birth rate remains above the global replacement rate. Although the rates are decreasing in sub-Saharan Africa, experts expect the area to have the highest population growth rate in the 21st century. The European rates are estimated at 1.4 per woman (see chart above).)

Experts attribute the decline in the population growth rate to a number of factors. As societies move from rural to urban, the concern is
another mouth to feed in the city as opposed to another worker on the farm. Later marriages, lower infant mortality rates\(^1\), improved contraception\(^2\), and women's rights and higher education for women figure in the decline. Also, economics is a growing consideration. However, religious pressures often work in the opposite direction. Heavily Roman Catholic countries and fundamentalist Islamic cultures often have higher birth rates.

Government policies and pressures also affect child bearing decisions. China's "one family, one child policy" in the 1980s and 1990s had built-in penalties for more children. While the government allowed exceptions for minorities and families in rural areas, the program is bringing down the birth rate in the world's most populous country. Later, China employed U.N. help to experiment with lifting this policy in certain areas of the country. The hope is that some of the social and medical factors mentioned above will take the place of government pressures.

There are close ties between population growth and poverty. Poverty areas with high infant mortality rates often have high birth rates. Parents are afraid that babies will not survive the rigors of growing up and tend to have additional children to insure that some survive to adulthood. For example, Afghanistan has an infant mortality rate of 154 per 1,000 live births; the figure for Chad is 115. The comparable rate for the U.S. and France is 7.

Concerns about population pressures continue for some of the LDCs. However, many of the developed countries are more concerned about declines in birth rates. The demographic\(^3\) changes in Europe, Japan, and North America indicate an increasing number of elderly. The aging of the existing population leads to concerns about who will take care of the them.

**INTERNATIONAL TERRORISM**

International terrorism continues to be a threat to world peace and stability. Terrorism seems to be the weapon of choice for those who wish to call world attention to their demands. It is a frequently used tool by groups who desire to establish their own independent nations. Although the PLO (Palestine Liberation Organization) renounced the use of terrorism to gain Palestinian autonomy, other radical Islamic fundamentalist groups such as Hamas, Hezbollah, and the Islamic Jihad movement commit acts of terrorism not only against Israel, but also against any who are considered supporters of the Jewish State. The Irish Republican Army frequently used violence in its struggle to unify Northern Ireland with the Republic of Ireland. Most of its violence occurred in Northern Ireland or against English targets. Deadly attacks on U.S. Embassies in Kenya and Tanzania in August 1998 provided evidence that terrorism continues. Most nations supported the unilateral bombing destruction by the United States of terrorist training camps in Afghanistan and a chemical factory in Sudan.

While older groups seem to be moderating, newer groups continue terrorist activities. The Zapatista National Liberation Army struggles against the government of Mexico to gain reforms to benefit the Native American population. The Kosovo Liberation Army demands freedom from Yugoslav rule, and the Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam want an independent nation in Southeast Asia. Sometimes, as in the case of the Islamic Salvation Front of Algeria and some groups in Turkey, the goal is control of the government. Many of the newer groups have confined their terrorism to a narrow geographic area and have not yet attempted global targets.

**STATUS OF WOMEN / WOMEN'S RIGHTS**

Traditionally, women's education was primarily in the area of domestic skills and obtained at home. Marriage was important for support and children, and there was often pressure to have children, especially males. The Industrial Revolution and the global wars of the 20th century accelerated change. Gains were made in political, social, and economic equality. Women gained the right to control property, to equal opportunity, and to vote in many areas of the world. However, complete equality proved elusive, and many traditional areas of the world fell behind on these issues.

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1. Infant mortality rate (number of deaths among children under one year of age per thousand births)
2. Contraception (intentional prevention of conception or impregnation through the use of various devices, agents, drugs, sexual practices, or surgical procedures)
3. Demography (study of the characteristics of human populations, such as size, growth, density, distribution, and vital statistics)
By the mid-1960s, improved contraception had become available in developed areas. This decreased child bearing and child rearing tasks. The global inflation in the early 1980s made two incomes a necessity for many families. By the mid-1980s, approximately 50% of the workers in England, France, Germany, and the U.S. were women. However, women found themselves in low paying jobs such as teaching, nursing, and clerical positions. Gradually, women began to break through the “glass ceiling” barrier to high paying corporate leadership positions. They made considerable progress in professions in the United States. Women lawyers and judges went from 7.1% in 1975 to 29% in 1996. The comparable figures for physicians were 13% and 26.4%.

Traditionally, communist regimes espoused the rights of women and proclaimed them equal. In reality, few women occupied high positions. In many of these countries, they received less pay than their male counterparts. Social expectations required them to shoulder the full responsibility of running the home, but they were expected to work outside the home.

In LDCs, many problems remain. Often industrialization in non-Western areas results in the end of some traditional economic arrangements which benefit women. This results in women becoming dependent on low paid factory labor, if they can get a job at all. Countries which embrace Islamic Fundamentalism often return to traditional values and limit educational and work opportunities for women.

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**Mini Assessment**

1. Destruction of rain forests is difficult to stop because
   1. international agreements are impossible to obtain.
   2. their fertile lands produce high yields for many years.
   3. developing nations want to exploit their resources.
   4. few political leaders realize their importance.

2. It is difficult to carry out the changes necessary to avoid another Chernobyl disaster because the
   1. economic costs of renovation or closing nuclear plants is high.
   2. nuclear energy is the least expensive source of power.
   3. nuclear plants have had no other operational problems.
   4. available capital is spent to build new nuclear plants.

3. Which statement is most accurate regarding the position of women in traditional countries?
   1. They are 50% of the work force.
   2. They face limited education and work opportunities.
   3. They have made considerable progress in the professions.
   4. They have achieved equal pay with men for equal work.

**Constructed Response:**

Use the *U.S. News* covers on page 294 and your knowledge of global history to answer the following questions.

1. What types of pollution are identified on the covers?

2. Select one (1) of the pollution types shown on the covers and explain why it is dangerous.
THEMATIC ESSAY

Theme: Science and Technology

Medical science has made tremendous strides in the 20th century, but new developments have led to controversy and moral dilemmas.

Task:
- Select one (1) area in which medical science has led to new developments, and identify the resulting controversy or moral dilemmas.
- Using factual information, explain both sides of the controversy or dilemma involving the development selected.

Suggestions:
You may use any example of a new development in medical science which occurred in the 20th century, but you must present facts for both sides of the controversy or dilemma surrounding the development. Some of the examples of medical developments you might wish to consider include: genetic engineering, cloning, use of life support systems, infertility treatments, and birth control. You are not limited to these suggestions.

DOCUMENT BASED QUESTION

Directions
The following question is based on the accompanying documents (1-6). Some of these documents have been edited for the purposes of this exercise. This question is designed to test your ability to work with historical documents. As you analyze the documents, take into account both the source of the document and the author's point of view.

- Write a well-organized essay that includes an introduction with a thesis statement, several paragraphs explaining the thesis, and a conclusion.
- Analyze the documents.
- Use all the documents.
- Use evidence from the documents to support your position.
- Do not simply repeat the contents of the documents.
- Include specific related outside information.

Historical Context:
Environmentalists are very concerned about development of the Amazon rain forest area.

Task:
Why is development of the Amazon rain forest of great concern to environmentalists? Answer this question using the documents below and your knowledge of global history.

Part A - Short Answer
The documents below relate to development of the Amazon rain forest. Examine each document carefully, and then answer the question which follows it.
Document 1:

GLOBAL WARMING PROJECTION

61°F
60°F
59°F
58°F
57°F
56°F

1850 1875 1900 1925 1950 1975 2000 2025 2050

Source: GFDL & NOAA

Document 1 Question:

If the data in the graph is accurate, what will be the effect on the environment in the year 2050?

Document 2:

“Because rain forests contain the Earth’s greatest diversity of plants and animals, they also represent giant gene banks that can provide new drugs, foods, and other products.”

— Michael Goulding

Document 2 Question:

If rain forests disappear, what would humanity lose?

Document 3:

“In the early 1970s the country (Brazil) built the Trans-Amazon Highway, a system of roads that ran west...toward the Peruvian border. The idea was to prompt a land rush similar to the...American West.”

— Time, 1989

Document 3 Question:

What danger is involved in the construction of the Trans-Amazon Highway?
Document 4:

New Look of the Amazon Rain Forest Following Deforestation – ©PhotoDisc 1994

Document 4 Question:
What effect does "slash and burn" agriculture have on a rain forest?

Document 5:

"Nearly half the world's 233 primate species are threatened, largely because of their dependence on large expanses of tropical forest. ...In hotspots of forest loss, ...such as the Atlantic rainforest of eastern Brazil ... roughly 70 percent of primate species face extinction."

– Worldwatch

Document 5 Question:
What effect has the forest loss in Brazil had on the primate population, some of which are endangered species?
The Greenhouse Effect on Earth

The layer of gases such as carbon dioxide surrounding the planet filters sunlight and maintains temperature levels.

Rising temperature levels may alter weather patterns, shift seasons, change ocean levels and currents, and cause droughts.

Deforestation, modern industries, and urbanized life produce too many waste gases that have radically altered the composition of the planet’s protective atmosphere.

Document 6 Question:

What effect does deforestation have on the Earth’s atmosphere? Why is this dangerous?

Part B - Essay Response

Why is the development of the Amazon rain forest of great concern to environmentalists?

Your essay should be well organized with an introductory paragraph that states your thesis about why development of the Amazon rain forest is of great concern to environmentalists. Develop and explain why you have arrived at this answer in the next paragraphs and the write a conclusion. In your essay, include specific details and refer to the specific documents you analyzed in Part A. You may include additional information from your knowledge of global history.