CHAPTERS IN BRIEF  Enlightenment and Revolution, 1550–1789

CHAPTER OVERVIEW Starting in the 1500s, European thinkers overturned old ideas about the physical world with a new approach to science. Thinkers of the Enlightenment hoped to use reason to make a better society in which people were free. Enlightenment ideas spread throughout Europe. They had a profound effect in North America, forming the basis of the new government of the United States.

The Scientific Revolution

KEY IDEA In the mid-1500s, scientists began to question accepted beliefs and make new theories based on experimentation.

During the Middle Ages, few scholars questioned ideas that had always been accepted. Europeans based ideas about the physical world on what ancient Greeks and Romans believed or what was said in the Bible. Therefore, people still thought that the earth was the center of the universe. To them, the sun, moon, other planets, and stars moved around it.

In the mid-1500s, however, attitudes changed. Scholars now started a scientific revolution drawn from a spirit of curiosity. One factor was the new focus on careful observation. Another was the willingness to question old beliefs. European explorations were a third factor. When they reached new lands, Europeans saw new plants and animals never seen by ancient writers. These discoveries led to the opening of new courses of study in universities.

The first challenge came in astronomy. In the early 1500s, Nicolaus Copernicus studied the stars and planets for many years. He concluded that the earth, like the other planets, revolved around the sun, and the moon revolved around the earth. Fearing attack, he did not publish his findings until just before his death. In the early 1600s, Johannes Kepler used mathematics to confirm Copernicus's basic idea.

An Italian scientist—Galileo Galilei—made several discoveries that undercut ancient ideas. He made one of the first telescopes and used it to study the planets. He found that Jupiter had moons, the sun had spots, and Earth's moon was rough. These statements went against church teaching, and Galileo was forced to deny their truth. Still, his ideas spread.

Interest in science led to a new approach, the scientific method. With this method, scientists ask a question based on something they have seen in the physical world. They form a hypothesis, or an attempt to answer the question. Then they test the hypothesis by making experiments or checking other facts. Finally, they change the hypothesis if needed. The English writer Francis Bacon helped foster this new approach to knowledge by telling scientists they should base their ideas on what they can see and test in the world. The French mathematician René Descartes also had great influence. His thinking was based on logic and mathematics.

In the mid-1600s, the English scientist Isaac Newton described the law of gravity. Using mathematics, Newton showed that the same force ruled the motion of planets and the action of bodies on the earth.

Scientists made new tools to study the world around them. One invented a microscope to study creatures too small for the naked eye to see. Others invented tools for understanding weather.

Doctors also made advances. One made drawings that showed the different parts of the human body. Another learned how the heart pumped blood through the body. In the late 1700s, Edward Jenner first used the process called vaccination to prevent disease. By giving a person the germs from a cattle disease called cowpox, he helped that person avoid getting the more serious human disease of smallpox. Scientists made advances in chemistry as well. One challenged the old idea that things were made of only four elements—earth, air, fire, and water. He and other scientists were able to separate oxygen from air.

The Enlightenment in Europe

KEY IDEA A revolution in intellectual activity changed Europeans' view of government and society.

New ways of thinking arose in other areas. In the intellectual movement called the
Enlightenment, thinkers tried to apply reason and scientific method to laws that shaped human actions. They hoped to build a society founded on ideas of the Scientific Revolution.

Two English writers were important to this movement. Thomas Hobbes wrote that without a government, there would be a war of “every man against every man.” As a result, Hobbes said, people formed a social contract—an agreement—in which they gave up their rights so they could secure order and safety. The best government, he said, is that of a strong king who can force people to obey. John Locke believed that all people have the rights to life, liberty, and property. The purpose of government is to protect those rights. When it fails to do so, he said, people have a right to overthrow the government.

A group of French thinkers had wide influence. They had five main beliefs: (1) thinkers can find the truth by using reason; (2) what is natural is good and reasonable, and human actions are shaped by natural laws; (3) acting according to nature can bring happiness; (4) by taking a scientific view, people and society can make progress and advance to a better life; and (5) by using reason, people can gain freedom.

Three French thinkers had great influence. Voltaire wrote against intolerance and criticized the laws and customs of France. The Baron de Montesquieu made a long study of laws and governments. He thought government power should be separated into different branches. Each should be able to check the other branches to prevent them from abusing their power. Jean Jacques Rousseau wrote strongly in favor of human freedom. He wanted a society in which all people were equal. The Italian Cesare Beccaria wrote about crime and justice. Trials should be fair, he said, and punishments should be made to fit the crime.

Many Enlightenment thinkers held traditional views about women’s place in society. They urged equal rights for all men but ignored the fact that women did not enjoy such rights. Some women protested this unfairness. “If all men are born free,” wrote one, “how is it that all women are born slaves?”

Enlightenment ideas had strong influence on the American and French Revolutions, which came at the end of the 1700s. They had three other effects. They helped spread the idea of progress. By using reason, people thought, it is possible to make society better. These ideas also helped make Western society more secular—that is, more worldly and less spiritual. Finally, Enlightenment ideas promoted the notion that the individual person was important.

**The Enlightenment Spreads**

**KEY IDEA** Enlightenment ideas spread through the Western world, and influenced the arts and government.

In the 1700s, Paris was the cultural center of Europe. People came there from other countries in Europe and from the Americas to hear the new ideas of the Enlightenment. Writers and artists gathered in the homes of wealthy people to talk about ideas. A woman named Marie-Thérèse Geoffrin became famous for hosting these discussions. She also supplied the money for one of the major projects of the Enlightenment. With her funds, Denis Diderot and other thinkers wrote and published a huge set of books called the Encyclopedia. Their aim was to gather together all that was known about the world. The French government and officials in the Catholic Church did not like many of the ideas that were published in the Encyclopedia. They banned the books at first, but later they revoked the ban.

Through the meetings in homes and works like the Encyclopedia, the ideas of the Enlightenment spread throughout Europe. The ideas also spread to the growing middle class. This group of people was becoming wealthy but had less social status than nobles and had very little political power. Ideas about equality sounded good to them.

Art moved in new directions, inspired by the Enlightenment ideas of order and reason. Artists and architects worked to show balance and elegance. Composers wrote music of great appeal for their creative richness. In this period, the novel became a popular form of literature. This new form told lengthy stories with many twists of plot that explored the thoughts and feelings of characters.

Some Enlightenment thinkers believed that the best form of government was a monarchy. In it, a ruler respected the rights of people. They tried to influence rulers to rule fairly. Rulers followed these ideas in part but were unwilling to give up much power. Frederick the Great made changes in Prussia. He gave his people religious freedom, improved schooling, and reformed the justice system. However, he did nothing to end serfdom, which made peasants slaves to the wealthy
landowners. Joseph II of Austria did end serfdom. Once he died, though, the nobles who owned the land were able to undo his reform.

Catherine the Great of Russia was another of the rulers influenced by Enlightenment ideas. She tried to reform Russia’s laws but met resistance. She hoped to end serfdom, but a bloody peasants’ revolt convinced her to change her mind. Instead, she gave the nobles even more power over serfs. Catherine did manage to gain new land for Russia. Russia, Prussia, and Austria agreed to divide Poland among themselves. As a result, Poland disappeared as a separate nation for almost 150 years.

The American Revolution

The British colonies in North America grew in population and wealth during the 1700s. The 13 colonies also enjoyed a kind of self-government. People in the colonies began to see themselves less and less as British subjects. Still, Parliament passed laws that governed the colonies. One set of laws banned trade with any nation other than Britain.

The high cost of the French and Indian War, which ended in 1763, led Parliament to pass laws that put taxes on the colonists. The colonists became very angry. They had never paid taxes directly to the British government before. They said that the taxes violated their rights. Since Parliament had no members from the colonies, they said, Parliament had no right to pass tax laws that affected the colonies. They met the first tax, passed in 1765, with a boycott of British goods. Their refusal to buy British products was very effective and forced Parliament to repeal the law.

Over the next decade, colonists and Britain grew further apart. Some colonists wanted to push the colonies to independence. They took actions that caused Britain to act harshly. These harsh responses, in turn, angered some moderate colonists. Eventually, the conflict led to shooting. Representatives of the colonists met in a congress and formed an army. In July of 1776, they announced that they were independent of Britain. They issued a Declaration of Independence that was based on the ideas of the Enlightenment.

From 1775 to 1781, the colonists and Britain fought a war in North America. The colonists had a poorly equipped army and the British were pow-
The French Revolution Begins

**KEY IDEA** Economic and social inequalities in the Old Regime helped cause the French Revolution.

In the 1700s, France was the leading country of Europe. It was the center of the new ideas of the Enlightenment. However, beneath the surface there were major problems causing unrest. Soon the nation would be torn by a violent revolution.

One problem was that people were not treated equally in French society. The French were divided into three classes, or estates. The First Estate consisted of the Roman Catholic clergy. The Second Estate was made up of rich nobles. Only about two percent of the people belonged to these two estates. Yet they owned 20 percent of the land and paid little or no taxes. They had easy lives.

Everybody else belonged to the Third Estate. This huge group included three types of people:
- the bourgeoisie—mostly well-off merchants and skilled workers who lacked the status of nobles
- city workers—cooks, servants, and others who were poorly paid and often out of work
- peasants—farm workers, making up more than 80 percent of the French people

Members of the Third Estate were angry. They had few rights. They paid up to half of their income in taxes, while the rich paid almost none.

Three factors led to revolution. First, the Enlightenment spread the idea that everyone should be equal. The powerless people in the Third Estate liked that. Second, the French economy was failing. High taxes kept profits low, and food supplies were short. The government owed money. Third, King Louis XVI was a weak, unconcerned leader. His wife, Marie Antoinette, was a big spender and was disliked.

In the 1780s, deeply in debt, France needed money. Louis tried to tax the nobles. Instead, they forced the king to call a meeting of delegates of the three estates to decide tax issues. The meeting began in May 1789 with arguments over how to count votes. In the past, each estate had cast one vote. The top two estates always voted together and got their way. Now the Third Estate delegates wanted to change the system. The Third Estate had as many delegates as the other two estates combined. They wanted each delegate to have a vote. The king and the other estates did not agree to the plan.

The Third Estate then broke with the others and met separately. In June 1789, its delegates voted to rename themselves the National Assembly. They claimed to represent all the people. This was the beginning of representative government for France.

Louis tried to make peace. He ordered the clergy and nobles to join the National Assembly. However, trouble erupted. Rumors flew that Swiss soldiers paid by Louis were going to attack French citizens. On July 14, an angry crowd captured the Bastille, a Paris prison. The mob wanted to get gunpowder for their weapons in order to defend the city.

A wave of violence called the Great Fear swept the country. Peasants broke into and burned nobles' houses. They tore up documents that had forced them to pay fees to the nobles. Late in 1789, a mob of women marched from Paris to the king's palace at Versailles. They were angry about high bread prices and demanded that the king move to Paris. They hoped he would end hunger in the city. The king and queen left Versailles, never to return.

Revolution Brings Reform and Terror

**KEY IDEA** The revolutionary government of France made reforms but also used terror and violence to retain power.

In August 1789, the National Assembly took steps to change France. One new law ended all the special privileges that members of the First and Second Estates had enjoyed. Another law gave all French men equal rights. Though women did not get these rights, it was a bold step. Other laws cut the power of the Catholic Church. The government...
took over church lands, hoping to sell them and raise money.

The new laws about the church divided people who had backed the Revolution. Catholic peasants remained loyal to the church. They were angry that the church would be part of the state. Thereafter, many of them opposed the Revolution's reforms.

For months the assembly worked on plans for a new government. During this time, Louis was fearful for his safety in France. One night he and his family tried to escape the country. They were caught, brought back to Paris, and lived under guard. After this, the king and queen were even less popular.

In the fall of 1791, the assembly drew up a new constitution that gave the king very little power. The assembly then handed over its power to a new assembly, the Legislative Assembly. After the new assembly began to meet, however, it divided into opposing groups. Some wanted an end to revolutionary changes. Others wanted even more radical changes.

At the same time, France faced serious trouble on its borders. Kings in other countries feared that the French Revolution would spread to their lands. They wanted to use force to restore control of France to Louis XVI. Soon France found itself at war—a war it quickly began to lose. Foreign soldiers were coming near to Paris. Many people thought that the king and queen were ready to help the enemy. Angry French citizens imprisoned them. Many nobles were killed in other mob action.

The government took strong steps to meet the danger from foreign troops. It took away the king's powers. In 1792, the National Convention—anew government—was formed. It declared Louis a common citizen and then put him to death. It also ordered thousands of French people into the army.

Soon one man, Maximilien Robespierre, began to lead France. He made many changes. He ordered the death of many people who did not agree with him. His rule, which began in 1793, was called the Reign of Terror. It ended in July 1794, when Robespierre himself was put to death.

France got a new, but less revolutionary, plan of government. Tired of the killing and unrest, the French people wanted a return to order.
invading and conquering Britain. That failure would be costly.

**Napoleon’s Empire Collapses**

**KEY IDEA** Napoleon's conquests aroused nationalistic feelings across Europe and contributed to his downfall.

Napoleon loved power. He took steps to make his empire larger. However, these steps led to mistakes that brought about his downfall.

Napoleon’s first mistake was caused by his desire to crush Britain. He wanted to hurt the British economy. So in 1806 he tried stopping all trade between Britain and the lands he controlled. The effort failed, for some Europeans secretly brought in British goods. At the same time, the British put their own blockade around Europe. Because their navy was so strong, it worked very well. Soon the French economy, along with others, began to grow weak.

Napoleon’s second mistake was to make his brother king of Spain in 1808. The Spanish people were loyal to their own king. With help from Britain, they fought back against Napoleon for five years. Napoleon lost 300,000 troops.

Napoleon’s third mistake was perhaps his worst. In 1812, he tried to conquer Russia, far to the east. He entered Russia with more than 400,000 soldiers. He got as far as Moscow, which was deserted and on fire. His soldiers found no food or supplies there. Winter was coming, and Napoleon ordered them to head back to France. As the soldiers marched west, bitter cold, hunger, and attacks by Russian troops killed thousands. Thousands more deserted. By the time the army exited Russian territory, only 10,000 of its men were able to fight.

Other leaders saw that Napoleon was weaker now, and they moved to attack. He was defeated in Germany in 1813. In 1814, Napoleon gave up his throne and was sent away. Nevertheless, in March 1815, he boldly returned to France. He took power and raised another army. By June, though, Napoleon had lost his final battle near a Belgian town called Waterloo. This time he was sent to a far-off island in the southern Atlantic Ocean. He died there in 1821.

**The Congress of Vienna**

**KEY IDEA** After exiling Napoleon, European leaders at the Congress of Vienna tried to restore order and reestablish peace.

After Napoleon’s first defeat, in 1814, leaders of many nations met for months. They tried to draw up a peace plan for Europe that would last many years. They called the meeting the Congress of Vienna. The key person there was the foreign minister of Austria, Klemens von Metternich. He shaped the peace conditions that were accepted.

Metternich insisted on three goals. First, he wanted to make sure that the French would not attack another country again. Second, he wanted a balance of power in which no one nation was too strong. Third, he wanted to put kings back in charge of the countries from which they had been removed. The leaders agreed with Metternich’s ideas. An age of European peace began.

Across Europe, kings and princes reclaimed their thrones. Most of them were conservatives and did not encourage individual liberties. They did not want any calls for equal rights. However, many people still believed in the ideals of the French Revolution. They thought that all people should be equal and share in power. Later they would fight for these rights again.

People in the Americas also felt the desire for freedom. Spanish colonies in the Americas revolted against the restored Spanish king. Many nations won independence from Spain. National feeling grew in many places in Europe, too. Soon people in areas such as Italy, Germany, and Greece would rebel and form new countries. The French Revolution had changed the politics of Europe and beyond.

**Review**

1. **Analyzing Causes** What factors led to the French Revolution?
2. **Following Chronological Order** Trace the fate of Louis XVI during the Revolution.
3. **Summarizing** What did Napoleon do to restore order in France?
4. **Making Inferences** Why did Napoleon’s empire collapse?
5. **Determining Main Ideas** What were the goals of the Congress of Vienna?
Latin American Peoples Win Independence

KEY IDEA Spurred by discontent and Enlightenment ideas, peoples in Latin America fought colonial rule.

In the early 1800s, colonial peoples throughout Latin America followed the example of the French Revolution. In the name of freedom and equality, they fought for their independence.

In Latin America, society was divided into six classes of people. *Peninsulares*—those born in Spain—were at the top. Next came creoles, or Spaniards who had been born in Latin America. Below them were mestizos, with mixed European and Indian ancestry. Next were mulattos, with mixed European and African ancestry, and Africans. At the bottom were Indians.

The first movement for independence was the French colony of Saint Domingue, on the island of Hispaniola. Almost all of the people who lived in the colony were slaves of African origin. In 1791, about 100,000 of them rose in revolt. Toussaint L’Ouverture became the leader. By 1801, he had moved to the eastern part of the island and freed the slaves there. In 1804, the former colony declared its independence as Haiti.

Meanwhile in other parts of Latin America, creoles felt that they were unfairly treated by the government and the *peninsulares*. This bad feeling boiled over when Napoleon overthrew the king of Spain and named his own brother as king. Creoles united with the Spanish government to put down this revolt by the lower classes, whom they feared. Fighting continued until 1815, when the creoles won. In 1820, a new government took charge in Spain. Fearing that they would lose their rights this time, the creoles now united with the rebels and fought for independence. In 1821, Spain accepted Mexico’s independence. In 1823, the region of Central America separated itself from Mexico. In 1841, the United Provinces of Central America split into five republics.

In Brazil, independence took a different turn. When Napoleon’s armies entered Portugal in 1807, the royal family escaped to Brazil, its largest colony. For the next 14 years, it was the center of the Portuguese empire. By the time Napoleon was defeated, the people of Brazil wanted their independence. In 1822, 8,000 creoles signed a paper asking the son of Portugal’s king to rule an independent Brazil. He agreed, and Brazil became free that year through a bloodless revolt.

Europe Faces Revolutions

KEY IDEA Liberal and nationalist uprisings challenged the old conservative order of Europe.

In the first half of the 1800s, three forces struggled for power within the countries of Europe. Conservatives supported the kings who had ruled these lands for many centuries. These were nobles and other people who owned large amounts of
property. Liberals wanted to give more power to elected legislatures. They were typically middle-class merchants and business people. They wanted to limit voting rights to people who were educated and owned property. Radicals wanted the end of rule by kings and full voting rights for all people, even the poor.

At the same time, another movement arose in Europe—nationalism. This was the belief that a person’s loyalty should go not to the country’s ruler but to the nation itself. Nationalists thought that many factors linked people to one another. First was nationality, or a common ethnic ancestry. Shared language, culture, history, and religion were also seen as ties that connected people. People sharing these traits were thought to have a right to a land they could call their own. Groups with their own government were called nation-states. Leaders began to see that this feeling could be a powerful force for uniting a people. The French Revolution was a prime example of this.

The first people to win self-rule during this period were the Greeks. For centuries, Greece had been part of the Ottoman Empire. In 1821, Greeks revolted against this Turkish rule. Rulers in Europe did not like the idea of revolts, but the Greek cause was popular. Other nations gave aid to the Greeks, helping to defeat the Ottomans’ forces in 1827. The Greeks won their independence by 1830.

Other revolts broke out. In 1830, the Belgians declared their independence from rule by the Dutch. Nationalists began a long struggle to unify all of Italy, which had been broken into many different states. Poles revolted against Russian rule. Conservatives managed to put down these rebellions. However, new ones broke out again in 1848 among Hungarians and Czechs. Once again, they were put down forcefully.

Events differed in France. Riots in 1830 forced the king to flee and put a new king in his place. A new revolt broke out in 1848 that overthrew the king and established a republic. However, the radicals who had won this victory began arguing over how much France should be changed. Some wanted only political changes. Others wanted social and economic changes that would help the poor. When these forces fought in the streets, the French gave up on the radical program. They introduced a new government, with a legislature and a strong president. The new president was Louis-Napoleon, Napoleon Bonaparte’s nephew. He later named himself emperor of France. He built railroads and promoted the growth of France’s industry. The economy revived and more people had jobs.

Russia in the early 1800s had yet to build an industrial economy. The biggest problem was that serfdom still existed there. Peasants were bound to the nobles whose land they worked. Russia’s rulers did not wish to free the serfs, though. They feared they would lose the support of the nobles. In the 1850s, the Russian army lost a war to take over part of the Ottoman Empire. The new ruler of Russia, Alexander II, decided that Russia’s lack of a modern economy caused the defeat. He decided to begin many reforms.

The first, in 1861, was to free the serfs. Though it seemed bold, Alexander’s move went only part way. Nobles kept half their land and were paid for the half that went to the peasants. The former serfs were not given the land. They had to pay for it, and this debt kept them still tied to the land. The czar’s efforts to make changes ended short when he was assassinated in 1881. Alexander III, his successor, brought back tight control over the country and moved to make the economy more industrial.

Nationalism Case Study: Italy and Germany

**Key Idea** The force of nationalism contributed to the formation of two new nations and a new political order in Europe.

Nationalism can be a force uniting people who are divided from others like themselves. The case studies on Germany and Italy will show this. However, nationalism can also cause the break-up of a state. This may occur when a group resists being part of a state. The Greeks in the Ottoman empire are an example. Finally, nationalism can pull different groups together to build a nation-state. The United States is a good example of this.

In the late 1800s, feelings of nationalism threatened to break apart three aging empires. The Austrian Empire was forced to split in two parts, Austria and Hungary. However, nationalist feeling continued to plague these rulers for 40 years and the kingdoms later broke up into several smaller states. In Russia, harsh rule and a policy of forcing other peoples to adopt Russian ways helped produce a revolution in 1917 that overthrew the czar. The Ottoman Empire, like the other two, broke apart around the time of World War I.
Italians used national feeling to build a nation, not destroy an empire. Large parts of Italy were ruled by the kings of Austria and Spain. Nationalists tried to unite the nation in 1848, but the revolt was beaten down. Hopes rested with the Italian king of the state of Piedmont-Sardinia. His chief minister, Count Cavour, worked to expand the king's control over other areas of the north. Meanwhile, Giuseppi Garibaldi led an army of patriots that won control of southern areas. He put those areas under control of the king. In 1866, the area around Venice was added to the king's control. Four years later, the king completed the uniting of Italy.

Germany had also been divided into many different states for many centuries. Since 1815, 39 states had joined in a league called the German Confederation. Prussia and Austria-Hungary controlled this group. Over time, Prussia rose to become more powerful. Leading this move was prime minister Otto von Bismarck. He joined with Austria to gain control of new lands. He then quickly turned against Austria, defeating it in war to gain even more territory. Other German states formed a new confederation that Prussia alone controlled. Bismarck's next step was to win the loyalty of the remaining German areas in the south. He purposefully angered a weak France so that it would declare war on Prussia. When the Prussian army won, Bismarck reached his goal. The war with France had given the southern German states a nationalistic feeling. They joined the other states in naming the king of Prussia as head of united Germany.

As a result of these events, the balance of power in Europe had changed. Germany and Britain were the strongest powers, followed by France. Austria, Russia, and Italy were all even weaker.

Revolutions in the Arts

KEY IDEA Artistic and intellectual movements both reflected and fueled changes in Europe in the 1800s.

In the early 1800s, the Enlightenment was replaced by another movement, called romanticism. This movement in art and ideas showed great interest in nature and in the thoughts and feelings of the individual person. Gone was the idea that reason and order were good things. Romantic thinkers valued feeling, not reason, and nature, not society. Romantic thinkers held idealized views of the past as simpler, better times. They valued the common people. As a result, they enjoyed folk stories, songs, and traditions. They also supported calls for democracy. However, not all romantic artists and thinkers supported these ideas.

Romantic writers had different themes. French writer Victor Hugo—who wrote The Hunchback of Notre Dame—told stories of the poor individual who fights against an unfair society. English poet William Wordsworth celebrated the beauty of nature. Novels such as Mary Shelley's Frankenstein were horror tales about good and evil.

Romanticism was important in music as well. Composers wrote music that tried to appeal to the hearts and souls of listeners. The German Ludwig van Beethoven was the foremost of these composers.

In the middle 1800s, however, the grim realities of industrial life made the dreams of romanticism seem silly. A new movement arose—realism. Artists and writers tried to show life as it really was. They used their art to protest social conditions that they thought were unfair. French writer Emile Zola's books revealed harsh working conditions for the poor, which led to new laws aimed at helping those people. In England, Charles Dickens wrote many novels that showed how poor people suffered in the new industrial economy.

A new device, the camera, was developed in this period. Photographers could use it to capture a real moment on film. In the 1860s, Parisian painters reacted against the realistic style. This new art style—impressionism—used light and shimmering colors to produce an “impression” of a subject or moment. Composers created moods with their music. They used combinations of musical instruments and tone patterns to create mental pictures. Things like the sight of the sea or a warm day were favorites of the composers.

Review

1. Making Inferences How did the divisions of Mexican society affect the movement to independence?

2. Explain how the freeing of Russia's serfs in 1861 was an example of both liberal and conservative thought.

3. Give one example of how nationalism was a unifying and a destructive force.

4. Determining Main Ideas How did artistic ideas change in the 1800s?
CHAPTERS IN BRIEF  The Industrial Revolution, 1700–1900

CHAPTER OVERVIEW Britain fueled an Industrial Revolution, which changed society. Workers benefited eventually, but at first they suffered bad working and living conditions. Other nations followed Britain’s example and industrialized. Thinkers reacted to these changes by developing new views of society. Reformers pushed for changes to make society better.

○ The Beginnings of Industrialization

KEY IDEA The Industrial Revolution started in Great Britain and soon spread elsewhere.

In the early 1700s, large landowners in Britain bought much of the land that had been owned by poorer farmers. They introduced new ways of farming. One technique was to use a seed drill. This machine planted seeds in well-spaced rows. Before this, seeds were scattered by hand over the ground. As a result, more seeds sprouted. Another technique was to rotate crops annually. Those who raised livestock used new methods to increase the size of their animals. As a result of these improvements, farm output increased. More food was available, and people enjoyed healthier diets. The population of Britain grew. The agricultural revolution helped produce the Industrial Revolution.

The Industrial Revolution refers to the greatly increased output of machine-made goods that began in Great Britain in the mid–1700s.

For several reasons, Britain was the first country to have an economy based on industry. It had 1) coal and water to power machines, 2) iron ore to make machines and tools, 3) rivers to move people and goods, and 4) good harbors for shipping goods to other lands. Britain also had a system of banks that could fund new businesses. Finally, the British government was stable, which gave the country a positive attitude.

The Industrial Revolution began in the textile industry. Several new inventions helped businesses produce cloth and clothing more quickly. Business owners built huge buildings—factories—that housed large machines powered by water.

The invention of the steam engine in 1705 brought in a new source of power. The steam engine used fire to heat water and produce steam, which was used to drive the engine. Eventually steam-driven machines were used to run factories.

At the same time, improvements were being made in transportation. An American invented the first steam-driven boat. This allowed people to send goods more quickly over rivers and canals. The British also built better roads that included layers of stone and rock to prevent wagons from being stuck in the mud.

Starting in the 1820s, steam fueled a new burst of industrial growth. At that time, a British engineer set up the world’s first railroad line. It used a steam-driven locomotive. Soon, railroads were being built all over Britain. The railroad boom helped business owners move their goods to market more quickly. The boom in railroad building created thousands of new jobs in several different industries. The railroad had a deep effect on British society. For instance, people who lived in the country moved to cities.

○ Industrialization Case Study: Manchester

KEY IDEA The factory system changed the way people lived and worked, bringing both benefits and problems.

The change to an industrial economy brought many benefits to British people. They used coal to heat their homes, ate better food, and wore better clothing. Many people also suffered, however. Industrialization caused many changes.

One change was a rise in the proportion of people who lived in cities. For centuries, most people in Europe had lived in the country. Now more and more lived in cities. The number of cities with more than 100,000 people doubled between 1800 and 1850. Because they grew quickly, cities were not ideal places to live. People could not find good housing, schools, or police protection. The cities were filthy with garbage, and sickness swept through slum areas. The average life span of a person living in a city was 17 years—compared to 38 years in the countryside.
Working conditions were harsh as well. The average worker spent 14 hours a day on the job, 6 days a week. Factories were dark, and the powerful machines were dangerous. Many workers were killed or seriously injured in accidents. Some rioted against the poor living and working conditions.

Some people improved their lives in the new economy. The middle class—made up of skilled workers, professionals, business people, and wealthy farmers—did well. They enjoyed comfortable lives in pleasant homes. This class began to grow in size, and some people in it grew wealthier than the nobles who had dominated society for many centuries. Still, nobles looked down on the people who gained their wealth from business. They, in turn, looked down on the poor workers.

Overall, the Industrial Revolution had many good effects. It increased the amount of goods and services a nation could produce and added to its wealth. It created jobs for workers and over time helped them live better lives. It produced better diets, better housing, and cheaper, better clothing. Many of these benefits were far in the future, however.

The English city of Manchester showed how industrialization changed society. Rapid growth made the city crowded and filthy. The factory owners risked their money and worked long hours to make their businesses grow. In return, they enjoyed huge profits and built huge houses. The workers also worked long hours, but had few benefits.

Many workers were children, some only six years old. Not until 1819 did the British government put limits on using children as workers. With so much industry in one place, Manchester suffered in another way. Coal smoke and cloth dyes polluted the air and water. Yet, Manchester also created many jobs, a variety of consumer goods, and great wealth.

Industrialization Spreads

Other countries followed the example of Britain and began to change their economies to an industrial base. The United States was one of the first. Like Britain, it had water power, sources of coal and iron, and a ready supply of workers. The United States also benefited from conflict with Britain. During the War of 1812, Britain stopped shipping goods to the United States. As a result, American industries had a chance to supply the goods that Americans wanted.

The switch to an industrial economy began in the United States in the textile industry. In 1799, based on memory and a partial design, a British worker brought the secret of Britain’s textile machines to North America. He built a machine to spin thread. In 1813, a group of Massachusetts investors built a complex of factories that made cloth. Just a few years later they built an even larger complex in the town of Lowell. Thousands of workers, mostly young girls, came to these towns to work in the factories.

In the United States, industry grew first in the Northeast. In the last decades of the 1800s, a rapid burst of industrial growth took place that was more widespread. This boom was fueled by large supplies of coal, oil, and iron. Helping, too, was the appearance of a number of new inventions, including the electric light. As in Britain, railroad building was also a big part of this industrial growth.

Businesses needed huge sums of money to take on big projects. To raise money, companies sold shares of ownership, called stock. All those who held stock were part owners of the company. This form of organizing a business is called a corporation.

Industrial growth spread to Europe as well. Belgium was the first to adopt British ways. It was rich in iron and coal and had good waterways. It had the resources needed.

Germany was politically divided until the late 1800s. As a result, it could not develop a wide industrial economy. However, west-central Germany was rich in coal and did become a leading industrial site.

Across Europe, small areas began to change to the new industries. Industrial growth did not occur in France until after 1830. It was helped by the government’s construction of a large network of railroads. Some countries—such as Austria-Hungary and Spain—had problems that stopped them from building new industries.

The Industrial Revolution changed the world. Countries that had adopted an industrial economy enjoyed more wealth and power than those that had not. The countries of Europe soon began to take advantage of lands in Africa and Asia. They used these lands as sources of raw materials needed for their factories. They saw the people only as markets for the goods they made. They took control of these lands, a practice called imperialism.

The Industrial Revolution changed life forever in the countries that industrialized. Problems
caused by industrialization led to movements for social reform.

Reforming the Industrial World

KEY IDEA The Industrial Revolution led to economic, social, and political reforms.

The new industrial economy led to new ways of thinking about society. Some economists thought that the government should leave business owners alone. Their view was called laissez-faire, from a French phrase meaning “let people do as they please.” Adam Smith argued that putting no limits on business or on trade would help a nation’s economy grow the most. He and other economists supported a system called capitalism. In a capitalist economy, people invest their money in businesses to make a profit. Over time, society as a whole would benefit, said Smith and the others. These people warned the government not to make laws trying to protect workers. Such laws would upset the workings of the economy, they said.

Other thinkers challenged these ideas. One group was called the Utilitarians. They thought that an idea or practice was good only as it proved useful. They thought it was unfair that workers should work so hard for such little pay and live in such poor conditions. They thought the government should do away with great differences in wealth among people.

Some thinkers went farther and urged that businesses should be owned by society as a whole, not by individuals. Then a few people would not grow wealthy at the expense of many. Instead, all would enjoy the benefits of increased production. This view—called socialism—grew out of a belief in progress and a concern for justice and fairness.

A German thinker named Karl Marx wrote about a radical form of socialism called Marxism. He said that factory owners and workers were bound to oppose one another in the struggle for power. Over time, he said, the capitalist system would destroy itself. The great mass of workers would rebel against the wealthy few. Marx wrote The Communist Manifesto in which he described communism, a form of complete socialism in which all production is owned by the people. Private property would not exist. In the early 1900s, these ideas would inspire revolution.

While thinkers discussed these different ideas, workers took action to try to improve their lives. Many formed into unions that tried to bargain with business owners for better pay and better working conditions. When business owners resisted these efforts, the workers went on strike, or refused to work. The struggle to win the right to form unions was long and hard for workers in Britain and the United States. Still, by the late 1800s, workers in both countries had made some progress.

The British Parliament and reformers in the United States also took steps to try to fix some of the worst features of industrialism. Britain passed laws that put limits on how much women and children could work. Groups in the United States pushed for similar laws.

Another major reform movement of the 1800s was the drive to abolish slavery. The British Parliament took the first step by ending the slave trade in 1807. It abolished slavery completely in 1833. Slavery was finally ended in the United States in 1865, after the Civil War. Spain ended slavery in Puerto Rico in 1873 and in Cuba in 1886. Brazil became the last country to ban slavery, which it did in 1888.

Women were active in these and other reform movements. As they fought for the end of slavery, many women launched an effort to win equal rights for women. The movement for equality began in the United States in 1848. In 1888, women from around the world formed a group dedicated to this cause.

Reformers took on other projects as well. Some pushed for—and won—improved education. Others hoped to improve conditions in prisons.

Review

1. Analyzing Causes and Recognizing Effects
   Why did the Industrial Revolution begin in Britain?

2. Determining Main Ideas
   2. What was the impact of the railroad?
   3. What reforms were popular in the 1800s?
   4. Analyzing Causes and Recognizing Effects
      What effects did industrialization have on society?
   5. Developing Historical Perspective
      How did industrialization spread in the United States?
CHAPTER OVERVIEW Several factors led Europeans to claim control of almost all of Africa. Some Africans resisted, but most efforts failed. The Ottoman Empire broke apart, and European powers took some of its lands. The British took control of India, where they modernized the economy to benefit themselves. Europeans gained lands in Southeast Asia, and the United States sought colonies.

Summary

The Scramble for Africa

KEY IDEA Ignoring the claims of African ethnic groups, kingdoms, and city-states, Europeans established colonial claims.

In the early 1800s, European nations had just a toehold in Africa, holding only areas along the coast. In the mid-1800s, though, Europeans had renewed interest in Africa. This rose, in part, from a desire to create overseas empires, a movement called imperialism. European nations wanted to control lands that had raw materials they needed for their industrial economies. They also wanted to open up markets for the goods they made. Nationalism fed the drive for empires as well. A nation often felt that gaining colonies was a measure of its greatness. Racism was another reason. Europeans thought that they were better than Africans. Finally, Christian missionaries supported imperialism. They thought that European rule would end the slave trade and help them convert native peoples.

As a result of these factors, the nations of Europe began to seize lands in Africa. Technology helped them succeed. Steamships, railroads, and telegraphs made them able to penetrate deep into Africa and still have contact with the home country. Machine guns gave them a weapon of far greater power than any African peoples possessed. Finally, the drug quinine gave doctors a weapon against malaria, which struck Europeans. They were also helped by the lack of unity among African peoples.

The competition for African land, called the “scramble for Africa” began in the 1880s. The discovery of gold and diamonds in Africa increased European interest in the continent. So that they would not fight over the land, European powers met in Berlin in 1884–85. They agreed that any nation could claim any part of Africa simply by telling the others and by showing that it had control of the area. They then moved quickly to grab land.

By 1914, only Liberia and Ethiopia were independent of European control.

The Europeans began to build plantations where they grew peanuts, palm oil, cocoa, and rubber. They also mined Africa’s important minerals. The Congo produced copper and tin. South Africa had gold and diamonds.

In South Africa, three groups struggled over the land. In the early 1800s, the Zulu chief Shaka created a large kingdom. The British seized control of this land in 1887. Meanwhile, the British won control of the Dutch colony on the southern coast. Many thousands of Dutch settlers, called Boers, moved north to escape the British. At the end of the century, the Boers fought a vicious war with the British. The Boers lost, and they joined the British-run Union of South Africa.

Imperialism Case Study: Nigeria

KEY IDEA Europeans embarked on a new phase of empire-building that affected both Africa and the rest of the world.

European nations wanted to control more of the life of their conquered peoples. As a result, each colonized region operated under one of these forms:

• colony—governed by a foreign power
• protectorate—allowed its own government but was under the control of a foreign power
• sphere of influence—claimed as the exclusive investment or trading realm of a foreign power
• economic imperialism—controlled by private businesses rather than by a foreign government

The imperialist powers had two main methods of running their colonies. Britain and the United States used indirect control. In this system, local rulers had power over day-to-day matters. There were also councils of native peoples and govern-
ment officials. These councils were a first step for native peoples to someday govern themselves.

Britain tried to rule Nigeria through indirect control. Because the area was huge and peopled by many different groups, it was difficult for the British to rule directly. They let local chiefs maintain order over their areas and collect taxes. The system did not always work. Chiefs had ruled before in the southeast and southwest of Nigeria. The chiefs resented having their power limited.

France and other European nations used the other method—direct control. Feeling that native peoples could not handle the complex business of running a country, the European power governed. The French also had a policy of assimilation. All institutions were patterned after their counterparts in France. They hoped that the native peoples would learn and adopt French ways.

Some Africans tried to resist imperialism. People in Algeria fought against the French for almost 50 years. In German East Africa, thousands died when they tried to use spiritual power to fight German machine guns. Only in Ethiopia did resistance succeed. There, Emperor Menelik II cleverly played one European country against another. In 1896, he used European weapons to defeat an invading Italian army. With this victory, Ethiopia stayed independent.

Africans did enjoy some benefits from colonial rule. European governments put an end to ethnic conflict. Colonial powers brought African economies fully into the world market and built railroads, dams, and telephone and telegraph lines.

For the most part, though, imperialism caused damage. Traditional African society was destroyed. People were forced out of their homes and made to work under horrible conditions. Finally, the political boundaries that Europeans drew had no relation to ethnic divisions in Africa. These boundaries created problems many decades later when the colonies became independent nations.

Europeans Claim Muslim Lands

KEY IDEA European nations expand their empires by seizing territories from Muslim states.

The Ottoman Empire, based in modern Turkey, had lasted for hundreds of years. By the 1800s, it was weak. In 1830, Greece won its independence and Serbia won the right to govern itself. European nations eyed what remained of the empire hungrily. Russia hoped to win control of the Black Sea so it could ship grain across the Mediterranean Sea. It fought a war with the Ottomans in the 1850s but lost when Britain and France joined against it. Still, the Ottomans later lost almost all of their land in Europe and parts of Africa. By 1914, the empire was much smaller than it had ever been. Muslim leaders, seeing this decline, decided to modernize their countries.

In Egypt, Muhammad Ali broke away from Ottoman control. He put in place reforms to change the army and the economy. He pushed Egypt’s farmers to grow cotton, a cash crop in demand in Europe. However, peasants suffered when they were turned away from growing food. His grandson continued to modernize. He joined with the French in building the Suez Canal, which connected the Mediterranean to the Red Sea. When Egypt had money troubles, Britain took control of the canal—and the country.

In Persia, the Russians and the British competed for control with local powers. Russia wanted to win Persia to have access to the Indian Ocean. Britain wanted some land there as a barrier between Russia and its colony in India. In the early 1900s, oil was discovered in Persia. A British company signed an agreement with Persia’s ruler to develop these oil fields. Persians rebelled against their ruler—who was corrupt—and the growing influence of Europeans. Then Russia and Britain stepped in and took control of the land.

British Imperialism in India

KEY IDEA As the Mughal Empire declined, Britain seized almost the whole subcontinent of India.

In the early 1700s, the Mughal Empire of India fell into decline. By the middle of the century, the British East India Company was becoming the most important power in India. It held huge amounts of land—almost the entire subcontinent.

British law forced India to supply raw materials such as tea, indigo (a dye), coffee, and cotton. The law also forced Indian manufacturing out of business. India became even more important when the East India Company built rail lines that linked growing regions in the interior with ports on the coast.

India enjoyed some gains from British rule. Its rail system was the third largest in the world and helped make the economy more modern. The
British made other improvements, too. They built telephone and telegraph lines, dams, bridges, and canals. They also improved sanitation and public health and built schools. More and more Indians learned to read.

British rule caused problems as well. Many economic benefits flowed out of India to Britain. Indian industry died out because of British trade laws. Many farmers and villages lost their ability to feed themselves because they were made to grow cash crops. Many peoples died when famines struck. British racist attitudes damaged Indian culture.

By the mid-1800s, many Indians felt growing resentment. When Indian soldiers heard rumors that offended their religious feelings, many rebelled. The East India Company needed a year—and British troops—to put it down. The Indians lost because of their own divisions. Muslims and Hindus did not trust each other. After the revolt, the British government took direct control of British India.

Indians tried other ways of resisting British control. Leaders such as Ram Mohun Roy urged changes in traditional Indian practices to make Indian society more modern. He hoped to free India of foreign control with these changes. Indians resented the fact that they were treated unfairly. They formed two groups—the Indian National Congress and the Muslim League. Both began to push the British to make changes. In the early 1900s, they called for self-government.

**Imperialism in Southeast Asia**

*KEY IDEA* Demand for Asian products drove Western imperialists to seek possession of Southeast Asian lands.

European nations also grabbed land in Southeast Asia and the islands on the edge of the Pacific Ocean. They wanted the area for its resources and because it was close to China. The United States joined this quest for colonies. Europeans found that these lands were good for growing such cash crops as sugar, coffee, cocoa, rubber, and fruit. As trade in these items grew, Europeans moved to take more land. The Dutch ran Indonesia, where their settlers remained at the top of society. The British took the port of Singapore plus Malaysia and Burma (modern Myanmar). Needing workers, the British brought many Chinese to Malaysia. France grabbed Indochina (modern Laos, Cambodia, and Vietnam). They made farmers grow rice for export. Because most of the rice was shipped away, the farmers had less to eat even though they were growing more rice than before. One land—Siam (modern Thailand)—stayed independent. King Mongkut and his son modernized Siam without giving up power. Colonialism brought some features of modern life to these regions. However, economic changes benefited European-run businesses, not local people. The native peoples did benefit from better schooling, health, and cleanliness. Plantation farming brought millions of people from other areas to Southeast Asia. The mix of cultures and religions did not always go smoothly. Even today, some conflict between groups results from this period.

In the late 1800s, the United States also began to seek colonies. In 1898, as a result of the Spanish-American War, the United States won possession of Puerto Rico, Guam, and the Philippine Islands. Filipino nationalists fought Americans for their freedom, just as they had fought the Spaniards before. The United States defeated the rebels and promised to give the Philippines self-rule later. In the meantime, American businesses took advantage of Filipino workers.

Some American businessmen grew wealthy from sugar plantations in Hawaii. In the 1890s, when Queen Liliuokalani tried to regain control of her country, they overthrew her. They declared a republic and asked the United States to annex—take possession of—Hawaii. In 1898, it became a territory of the United States.

**Review**

1. **Summarizing** What led to European imperialism, and why did it succeed?
2. **Analyzing Causes and Recognizing Effects** What happened when Africans tried to resist imperialism?
3. **Comparing and Contrasting** Contrast how the British and French ruled their colonies.
4. **Drawing Conclusions** How were the effects of imperialism in Southeast Asia typical of those for other regions?
CHAPTERS IN BRIEF

Transformations Around the Globe, 1800–1914

CHAPTER OVERVIEW In China, a weak government could not resist European power. In Japan, a reforming emperor modernized the country and launched imperialist expansion. The Latin American economies fell prey to European businesses, and the United States became the dominant power in the region. A revolution freed Mexico from France, but civil war raged for decades.

China Resists Outside Influence

KEY IDEA Western economic pressure forced China to open to foreign trade and influence.

In the late 1700s, China was self-sufficient. It had a strong farming economy based on growing rice. Other crops, introduced from the Americas, helped to feed its large population. Industry made silk, cotton, and ceramics. Mines produced salt, tin, silver, and iron. China needed nothing from the outside world.

China allowed only limited trade with European powers, and it all had to come through one port. Also, the trade at this port was in China’s favor. In other words, the Chinese sold more than they bought. Europeans, especially the British, were eager to find something that the Chinese would want in large quantities. In the early 1800s, they found it—the drug opium, shipped mostly from India. Soon millions of Chinese were addicted to opium, and the Chinese government complained. When the British refused to stop the trade, war broke out. Because British ships had more powerful guns, China lost the war. As a result, in 1842 the British took possession of Hong Kong. Later, the United States and European nations won the right to trade in five ports. The Chinese resented these treaties but could not stop them.

China had internal problems as well. The population had grown quickly. Yet food production had barely increased, so millions starved. The Chinese began to rebel against their government. A leader arose in southern China who hoped to save China. He launched a rebellion that won control of large parts of the south, including the city of Nanjing. The government needed 14 years to put down the Taiping Rebellion. The fighting resulted in the death of millions.

In the late 1800s, European powers and Japan each won a foothold in China—a “sphere of influence.” This is a region in which a foreign nation controls trade and investment. The United States opposed these steps. It urged an Open Door Policy, in which all powers had equal access to Chinese markets. While the Europeans agreed, the result had little benefit for China. Though it was not formally carved into colonies, it was clearly dominated by foreign powers.

The Empress Cixi ruled China in fact, even though younger emperors ruled in name. She supported some reforms. She backed the self-strengthening movement, which produced new ships for China. The program was not a complete success, though. In 1898, the young Emperor Guangxu tried to put in place broader reforms. Conservatives didn’t like this. The retired Cixi had him arrested and took back control of the government. China had lost a chance to change.

Many Chinese grew increasingly resentful of foreign influence. They formed the Society of Harmonious Fists, known as the Boxers. They wanted to get rid of all Western influence—including any Chinese who had accepted Western culture or the Christian religion. In early 1900, an army of Boxers surrounded Beijing’s European section. After many weeks, they were finally driven out by a multinational army of soldiers.

Finally Cixi began to allow major reforms. Change came slowly, though. In 1908, the court said that China would become a constitutional monarchy by 1917. However, unrest would soon return.

Modernization in Japan

KEY IDEA Japan followed the model of Western powers by expanding its foreign influence.

From the early 1600s to the mid-1800s, Japan was virtually isolated. It did have relations with China and Korea and had limited contact with Dutch traders. That changed in 1853 when American steamships, with cannons, entered Japanese waters.
The next year, Japan agreed to open up trade to the United States. Soon after, it made similar deals with European nations.

Many Japanese were upset with the shogun, the military dictator, who had agreed to these new treaties. The Emperor Mutsuhito rallied their support and managed to overthrow the shogun. For the first time in centuries, the emperor ruled Japan directly. He reigned for 45 years, from 1867 to 1912, in what is called the Meiji era. The name Meiji, which he chose for his reign, means “enlightened rule.”

The emperor was determined to modernize his country. He sent government officials to Europe and the United States. From what they saw, they shaped a new Japan. They modeled the government after the strong central government of Germany. They patterned the army after Germany’s and a new navy after Britain’s. They adapted the American system of schooling for all children. The emperor also supported changes to Japan’s economy. The country built railroads, mined coal, and constructed factories.

These steps had results. In just a few years, Japan’s industrial economy equaled almost any in the world. By 1890, it was the strongest military power in Asia. It asked foreigners to give up their special rights in Japan. The countries agreed, and a proud Japan felt equal to them. Now, it wanted to demonstrate its power.

Japan began to expand its influence like the European powers. When China broke an agreement not to send armies into Korea, Japan went to war. It drove China out of Korea and gained Taiwan and some other islands as new colonies. In 1904, Japan and Russia fought a war over China’s Manchurian territory. Japan surprised the world by defeating a larger power that was supposed to be stronger.

The next year, Japan attacked Korea, and by 1910 it had won complete control. The Japanese proved to be harsh rulers. They shut down Korean newspapers and changed schools so that only Japanese language and history were taught. They took away land from Korean farmers and gave it to Japanese settlers. They built factories to be run by Japanese only. Koreans were not allowed to start new businesses. Koreans bitterly resented these actions. They began a nationalist movement and protested against Japanese rule.

### U.S. Economic Imperialism

**KEY IDEA.** The United States put increasing economic and political pressure on Latin America in the 1800s.

In the early 1800s, the new nations of Latin America had serious problems. Most people were poor. They worked on farms for large landowners who took advantage of them. Another problem was political unrest. Local leaders rivaled one another for power. Military dictators, or caudillos, generally held power with the backing of the landowners, because the dictators refused to give power to the mass of poor people. Only people with property could vote. Sometimes reformers did take office and lead their countries. They never lasted long, though. When their reforms upset the power of the wealthy too much, a caudillo would rise and remove them from office.

With Spain no longer ruling the lands, old trade laws were gone. The new countries could now trade with any nation. Britain and the United States became the chief trading partners. Soon businesses in these nations dominated Latin American economies.

The economies of Latin America depended on exporting goods. They shipped goods such as coffee, beef, fruits, and vegetables. Each country focused on producing and exporting one or two goods. The volume of exports rose rapidly during the 1800s. The coming of railroads and steamships helped. The invention of refrigerated cars helped also, allowing producers to increase food exports.

This trade mainly went to benefit other countries, though. Latin America did not develop industries of its own. It had to import manufactured goods, which cost more than what was earned from exports. Also, Latin American countries often borrowed money to expand the facilities used to increase those exports. They had to borrow the money from foreign banks. When they could not repay the loans, lenders took control of the businesses. In this way, much of Latin American business fell into foreign hands.

In the 1890s, the United States began to take a more active role in Latin American affairs. The people of Cuba were fighting for their independence from Spain. American businesses had important interests on the island. Also, Spain had placed Cuban citizens in concentration camps, which out-
raged many Americans. For these reasons, the United States joined the war. The Spanish quickly gave up, and the United States gained several new territories. After the war, though, the United States put a military government in place in Cuba. This step and others helped promote anger among many Cubans against the United States.

The United States next set its sights on Panama. Ships traveling from the east to the west coast had to go around the southern tip of South America, which took many weeks. Americans hoped to build a canal across Panama. President Roosevelt offered $10 million to Colombia—to which Panama belonged—for the right to build this canal. When Colombia asked for more money, the United States helped the people of Panama revolt for independence. In return, the United States won a ten-mile-wide zone in Panama in which to build a canal. The canal opened in 1914.

In 1904, Roosevelt said that the United States had the right to act as “an international police power” in the western hemisphere. Over the next decades, it acted on that belief many times. When trouble arose in various countries, the United States sent its troops. Sometimes they stayed for many years.

Turmoil and Change in Mexico

KEY IDEA Political, economic, and social inequalities in Mexico triggered a period of revolution and reform.

Antonio López de Santa Anna was a leading figure in the early history of independent Mexico. He fought to win independence from Spain and led in another war when Spain tried to recapture Mexico. He served as president four times, shrewdly changing his positions in order to retain power.

In the 1830s, though, he was unable to prevent people in Texas from winning their freedom from Mexico. In the 1840s, the United States annexed Texas, which angered many Mexicans. When a border dispute broke out, the United States invaded Mexico. Santa Anna led his nation’s army and was defeated. Mexico had to surrender huge amounts of land.

Another important leader of the middle 1800s was Benito Juárez. A Zapotec Indian, Juárez wanted to improve conditions for the poor in Mexico. He led a movement called La Reforma—the reform—that aimed at breaking the power of the large landowners and giving more schooling to the poor. He and his liberal supporters won control of the government in the late 1850s. The conservatives who opposed them did not give up, however. They plotted with France to retake Mexico. In 1862, Napoleon III of France sent an army that captured the country in 18 months. He named a European noble as emperor. But, Juárez and his followers kept fighting. In 1867, they drove the French from Mexican soil and killed the emperor.

Juárez once again pressed for his reforms. He made some progress but died in office in 1872. Soon after, a new leader emerged. Porfirio Díaz dominated Mexican politics for more than 30 years. Díaz brought order to the country and encouraged economic growth. However, he sharply limited political freedom.

In the early 1900s, calls for reform got louder. Leaders “Pancho” Villa and Emiliano Zapata gathered support with their demand for better lives for the poor. They raised small armies and forced Díaz to step down. Fighting continued, however, for many years as several leaders struggled for power. In the midst of this turmoil, Mexico adopted a new constitution in 1917. It called for breaking up large landholdings and for limits on foreign ownership of business. It promoted the right to strike for workers and promised some rights for women. Conflict continued until a new political party gained control of Mexico in 1929. The Institutional Revolutionary Party (PRI) brought peace and political stability to a troubled land.

Review

1. **Summarizing** Describe China’s two major attempts to remain isolated from the outside world.
2. **Recognizing Effects** What was the result of Japan’s feelings of pride and strength in the late 1800s?
3. **Evaluating Courses of Action** Through what method did the Japanese modernize during the Meiji era?
4. **Drawing Conclusions** Why did the Latin American nations not benefit from growing trade?
5. **Comparing** What did Juárez, Villa, and Zapata have in common?
CHAPTERS IN BRIEF  

The Great War, 1914–1918

CHAPTER OVERVIEW Strong national feelings and strong armies produced competition between European nations and led to war. The system of alliances turned a local conflict into a general European war and then a world war. Horribly brutal, it changed the lives of millions and transformed Russia when it helped cause a revolution.

Marching Toward War

KEY IDEA In Europe, military buildup, nationalistic feelings, and rival alliances led to a continental war.

In the later 1800s, many people in Europe joined groups to promote peace. They met several times between 1843 and 1907 to urge their cause. While this movement for peace was building, so were other developments. These other factors would soon plunge Europe into war.

One of those factors was nationalism—the deep feeling of attachment to one's own nation. This force helped unify the people of a country. It also helped promote competition between countries. By 1900, six nations were rivals for power in Europe. These nations, called the Great Powers, were Germany, Austria-Hungary, Great Britain, Russia, Italy, and France. They competed economically, and they competed for neighboring land.

Imperialism was another force that helped lead to war. France and Germany, each seeking control of parts of Africa, almost came to war twice in the early 1900s. Such competition bred mistrust.

The third factor leading to war was a growing arms race. Each country in Europe—except Great Britain—built a large army. Generals in each country made complex plans to be able to mobilize their armies or rush troops to battle as quickly as possible.

Growing rivalry led the nations to make alliances with one another. Fearing that France would want revenge for its defeat in the Franco-Prussian War, Otto von Bismarck set out to isolate France. In 1879, he formed a Triple Alliance with Austria-Hungary and Italy, and a treaty with Russia. However, when Wilhelm II became kaiser, or emperor, of Germany, he did not want to share power. He forced Bismarck out and followed his own policy. He let the agreement with Russia expire, and Russia quickly allied itself with France. This alliance meant that Germany would have to fight enemies on east and west borders if there were a war with either country. Wilhelm II then moved to make the German navy larger. Britain grew alarmed and began to build more ships of its own. It made a Triple Entente alliance with France and Russia. The six Great Powers had now formed two camps: Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy against Britain, France, and Russia.

Meanwhile, trouble was brewing in the Balkans, in southeastern Europe. The Ottoman Empire, which controlled this area, was breaking apart. Both Austria-Hungary and Russia wanted some of this land. The kingdom of Serbia, which was in this region, wanted to bring other Slavic peoples who lived in the Balkans under its control. In 1908, Austria-Hungary seized Bosnia and Herzegovina. These lands had Slavic peoples, and the Serbs were angered. However, their Russian allies were unwilling to support them, and they backed down.

By 1914, the situation was different. Serbia had gained land in other parts of the region and felt strong. Austria worried that Serbia might interfere with its control of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Amid these tensions, a shot rang out. In June 1914, a Serbian shot and killed the heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary. Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia, Russia came to Serbia's defense, and soon most of Europe was at war.

Europe Plunges into War

KEY IDEA One European nation after another was drawn into a large and industrialized war that resulted in many casualties.

The system of alliances turned the war between Austria-Hungary and Serbia into a wider war. Russia moved against Austria-Hungary. Figuring that Germany would support Austria-Hungary, Russia moved troops against Germany as well. Germany declared war on Russia. Soon after, it also declared war on France, Russia's ally.

Germany had a plan for winning the war on two fronts. It called for a rapid push through France, a quick defeat of that nation, and a turn to face Russia in the east. To capture France quickly, Germany
moved through Belgium, which was a neutral country. Britain was outraged by this and declared war on Germany. France, Britain, and Russia were later joined by Italy, which broke from Germany and Austria-Hungary. They were called the Allies. Bulgaria and the Ottoman Empire joined Germany and Austria-Hungary. They were called the Central Powers.

After the German army moved almost to Paris, French defenses strengthened and stopped them in September 1914. Both sides became bogged down in a bloody conflict. Soldiers dug deep trenches into the ground, protecting themselves with barbed wire and machine guns. Inside the trenches, they lived in mud, suffered the lack of food, and were killed or wounded by exploding bombs. Attacks were even worse. Generals still hoped to win ground with massed attacks of huge armies. But, when soldiers left the trenches to storm enemy lines, they faced powerful weapons. Machine guns, tanks, poison gas, and larger pieces of artillery killed hundreds of thousands of soldiers. This was the war in France, which was called the Western Front.

The war on the Eastern Front showed more movement at first—but it was equally destructive. Russian armies attacked both Germany and Austria-Hungary. After some early success, they were driven back in both places. One reason was that Russia did not have a fully industrial economy. It could not keep troops supplied. Still, Russia had a huge population and could send millions to war. The large Russian army provided a constant threat to Germany, preventing it from putting its full resources against the allies in the west.

A Global Conflict

The war moved into Southwest Asia when the Allies hoped to take a part of the Ottoman Empire called the Dardanelles. That would allow them to capture Constantinople—the Ottoman capital—and send supplies to Russia through the Black Sea. The attack failed with great loss of life. In another thrust at that empire, a British officer named T. E. Lawrence helped lead an Arab revolt against Ottoman rule. As a result, the Allies were able to capture several important cities in Southwest Asia.

Japan took German colonies in China and the Pacific Ocean. The Allies also captured three of the four German colonies in Africa. People in the Allies’ colonies joined in the war effort. Some worked for the Allied cause. Others fought in the armies.

The British had used their strong navy to block all supplies from reaching Germany. In response, the Germans increased their submarine attacks on ships that brought food and supplies to the Allies. U.S. President Woodrow Wilson had protested this policy before, and did so again. When American ships were sunk, the American people grew angry. Then the British intercepted a secret message from Germany to Mexico. It offered to help Mexico regain land lost to the United States in the 1840s if Mexico allied itself with Germany. This and the submarine attacks turned many Americans against Germany. In April 1917, Congress declared war on Germany.

By that year, the war had had a terrible impact, killing millions and radically changing the lives of millions more—people at home as well as soldiers. This “Great War,” as it was called, was a total war. It demanded all the resources of the countries that fought it. Governments took control of factories, telling them what to produce and how much of it to make. Governments rationed food and other goods, limiting how much people could buy and hold. That way they were sure to provide needed supplies to the armies in the field. They used propaganda to generate support for the war. They also took steps to put down any dissent against the war.

With so many men in the field, women played a growing role in the economies of the countries at war. They worked in factories, offices, and shops. They built planes and tanks, grew food and made clothing. These changes had an impact on people’s attitudes toward what kind of work women could do.

In 1917, the United States entered the war, and Russia left it. Suffering during the war chipped away at the Russian people’s support for the czar. In March, he stepped down. The new government hoped to continue fighting the war, but the Russian armies refused. Just months later, a new revolution struck. Communists seized Russia’s government. They quickly made a treaty with Germany, giving up huge amounts of land in return for peace. In March 1918, Germany tried one final attack. Once again, the German army nearly reached Paris. The soldiers were tired, and supplies were short, though.

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The Allies—now with fresh American troops—drove the Germans back. Bulgaria and the Ottoman Empire surrendered. In October, a revolution toppled the emperor of Austria-Hungary. In November, Kaiser Wilhelm II was forced to step down in Germany. The new government agreed to stop fighting, and on November 11, 1918, Europe was finally at peace.

The war had made a great and terrible mark on the world. About 8.5 million soldiers had died and another 21 million had been wounded. Countless civilians had suffered as well. The economies of the warring nations had suffered serious damage, too. Farms were destroyed and factories ruined. One estimate said the war had caused $338 billion in damage.

Along with this death and destruction, the war had an emotional cost. People felt disillusioned since all the suffering did not seem to have a purpose. The art and literature of the years after the war reflected a new sense of hopelessness in people.

A Flawed Peace

**KEY IDEA** After winning the war, the Allies dictated a harsh peace that left many nations feeling betrayed.

Many nations sent delegates to peace talks in Paris. The main leaders were Woodrow Wilson of the United States, Georges Clemenceau of France, and David Lloyd George of Britain. Germany and its allies and Russia were not present. Wilson pushed for his peace plan called the Fourteen Points. He wanted to end secret treaties and alliances and give people the right to form their own nation. He also hoped to set up a world organization that could police the actions of nations and prevent future wars.

Britain and especially France had different views. They had suffered greatly in the war and wanted to punish Germany. After long debates, the leaders finally agreed on a peace settlement called the Treaty of Versailles.

The treaty called for a League of Nations—the world organization that Wilson wanted. It would include 32 nations, with the United States, Britain, France, Japan, and Italy making up the leadership. Germany and Russia were left out of the League.

The treaty took away German land in Europe and took away its colonies. Limits were placed on the size of Germany’s armed forces. Finally, Germany was given complete blame for the war, which meant it would have to make payments to the Allies for the damage caused.

Germany’s former colonies were given to the Allies to govern until they decided which were ready for independence. Poland, Czechoslovakia, and Yugoslavia were all declared independent. Finland, Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania—once part of Russia—were made independent nations as well. The Ottoman Empire was broken up. The Ottomans kept control only of Turkey.

The treaty never made a lasting peace. This was in part because the United States Senate never approved either the treaty or joining the League of Nations. Also, Germans bitterly resented the treaty, which placed all the blame for the war on them.

Colonial peoples in Africa and Asia had hoped that they could win their independence. They were angry when the treaty did not allow for that. Japan and Italy were also upset with the treaty. They had both joined the war in hopes of winning more land and were disappointed by getting few territorial gains.

Review

**Analyzing Causes and Recognizing Effects**

1. What factors led to World War I?
2. Why did a revolution occur in Russia?
3. **Summarizing** What was the war like on the Western Front?
4. **Analyzing Issues** How did the war change the countries that fought it?
5. **Forming and Supporting Opinions** Discuss the weaknesses of the Treaty of Versailles.
Revolution and Nationalism, 1900–1939

CHAPTER OVERVIEW Old problems in Russia produced a revolution that resulted in the first Communist government. Joseph Stalin took control of the Soviet Union and became a dictator. Nationalists tried to gain control of China, but the country was plunged into decades of fighting. Nationalists pushed for self-government in India and won that right in Turkey, Iran, and Saudi Arabia.

Revolution in Russia

KEY IDEA Unrest in Russia erupted in revolution to produce the first Communist government.

In 1881, reforms in Russia stopped when the czar was killed by radical students. The new czar, Alexander III, took back control of the Russian government. He cracked down on anyone who seemed to threaten his government. He also oppressed all non-Russian peoples who lived within the Russian empire, especially Jews.

In 1894, his son Nicholas II became czar and continued the strong rule. He launched a program aimed at building up Russia's industry. Russia quickly became a leading producer of steel in the world. However, this rapid industrial growth brought problems. Working conditions were poor, wages were low, and children were forced to work. Workers grew angry and often went on strike. Revolutionary groups wanted to topple the government. Some followed the teachings of Karl Marx. In 1903, they argued about how to carry out their revolution, and they split into two groups. One group—the Bolsheviks—was led by Vladimir Lenin. He fled Russia a few years later to await a better time to push his ideas.

Russia suffered a huge defeat at the hands of Japan in a war that started in 1904. In early 1905, the Russian army killed hundreds of hungry workers who had peacefully gathered to ask for relief. Strikes spread in protest, and Nicholas was forced to allow some reforms to take place. The suffering caused by World War I was the final blow against the czar's rule. In just the first few months of war, Russia had four million soldiers killed, wounded, or captured. As the war worsened, the czar lost control of Russia. Soldiers refused to fight, prices shot sky high, and people starved. In March 1917, almost 200,000 workers took to the streets of one city to protest high prices. Soldiers shot into the crowd. Later they fired at their officers and joined the protest. The czar was forced to step down. A year later, he and his family were executed. A government led by Alexander Kerensky was formed.

Kerensky hoped to keep Russia in the war. The decision cost him the support of soldiers who wanted to fight no longer and workers and peasants who wanted an end to food shortages. Across the country these forces formed local councils called soviets. In some cities, the soviets actually had more real power than the government.

In the midst of this unrest, Lenin returned to Russia determined to bring about his revolution. His slogan “Peace, Land, and Bread” was soon taken up by many people. In November 1917, armed workers took control of government offices. The Kerensky reign was ended.

To win the peasants' support, Lenin ordered all farmland be given to them. Workers were given control of the factories. Soon Lenin agreed to a peace treaty with Germany. It gave away large amounts of Russian land, but it ended the war. Then, forces opposed to Lenin's revolution—supported by the Allies who fought Germany—tried to defeat Lenin's army in battle. The civil war lasted three years. The fighting and the famine that followed it killed 15 million Russians. In the end, though, Lenin's Red Army won.

In 1921, Lenin launched a new plan to rebuild the Russian economy. It allowed for some private ownership of property, relaxing Lenin's desire for complete state control. He also changed the government to form a new nation—the Soviet Union. It would be run by the leaders of the Communist Party. By the late 1920s, the Soviet economy had come back. Farms and factories were producing as much as they had before World War I.
Totalitarianism
Case Study: Stalinist Russia

KEY IDEA After Lenin died, Stalin seized power and transformed the Soviet Union into a totalitarian state.

The term totalitarian describes a government that takes complete control over all parts of life in a country. This includes both public and private life. To keep everything under control totalitarian governments use several tactics. These include: police terror, propaganda, and persecution. The case study uses Joseph Stalin and Russia to show how a totalitarian state operates.

Joseph Stalin joined Lenin’s revolutionary movement. Over time, he slowly built up his power. When Lenin died in 1924, Stalin took control of the Communist Party. He was less interested than Lenin in promoting revolution around the world. He wanted to increase the power of the Soviet Union. To achieve that, he built a totalitarian state. Government had total control over its people’s lives.

Stalin kept tight control by creating a powerful secret police. In the mid-1930s, he turned against enemies—both real and imagined—within the Communist Party. Thousands were arrested and sent to exile or killed. Stalin also used propaganda to keep control. Official literature praised the government and its success. Any writings that expressed a different view were seized and their authors punished. Stalin's government also moved against religion. Churches were destroyed, and church leaders killed or sent into exile.

Stalin built a command economy—one in which the government makes all decisions of economic life. He pushed to complete the work of making the economy fully industrial. All resources were devoted to this effort. As a result, the Soviet people lacked food, housing, and clothing for many years. The plan did not meet Stalin’s goals, but the industrial part of the economy did grow.

Stalin also launched a farming revolution. The government took control of the farms that people owned. It put them together in large, government-owned farms called collective farms. When peasants resisted, millions were killed, and millions more were sent to Siberia. With these brutal methods, Stalin got farm output to rise.

Stalin completely changed Soviet society. Women enjoyed equal rights—though rights were few. They filled all kinds of jobs on the farms and in factories.

Imperial China Collapses

KEY IDEA After the fall of the Qing Dynasty, nationalists and communists struggled for power.

Unrest also plagued China. Many Chinese resented the great control that foreign nations had over their economy. Some wanted to modernize China so it could regain power. One of the leaders of this push was Sun Yixian. His group was called the Kuomintang, or Nationalist Party. In 1912, he led a revolt that toppled the Qing Dynasty and was made the president of the new republic.

Sun had three main principles. He wanted political and economic rights for all Chinese people and an end to foreign control of China. Sun turned over his presidency six weeks later to Yuan Shikai, who became a military dictator. After Yuan died in 1916, civil war broke out. The people suffered terribly from famine and brutal attacks. Sun could not reorganize his Kuomintang.

China’s leaders hoped to win the support of the Allies during World War I. They declared war on Germany. When the war ended, though, they were disappointed. Instead of giving China freedom from foreign influence, the Treaty of Versailles merely changed masters. The parts of China that had been controlled by Germany were handed over to Japan. Angry Chinese protested.

In the 1920s, rebels began to look to Marxism and the Russian Revolution for a solution to China’s problems. The Communist Party in China was organized. One of the leaders was Mao Zedong. The Communists joined with the Kuomintang. Sun died in 1925, and Jiang Jieshi became leader of the Kuomintang. Many in the party were business people. They now feared Communist ideas about government control of economic life. Jiang agreed with them.

Jiang did not move against the Communists at first. In 1927, though, his forces struck against them. Only a few Communists survived, and they were forced into hiding. In 1928, Jiang became president of China. Soon China was torn by a civil war between the remaining Communists and Jiang’s forces.

The Communists, under Mao Zedong, moved to south-central China. They built an army of peas-
ants that struck quickly against Jiang's forces. In 1933, Jiang's army completely surrounded them. But the Communists sneaked away on a famous Long March of 6,000 miles to the north. Thousands died, but the Communists survived, hiding in caves.

At the same time, China had other problems. In 1931, Japan invaded the part of China called Manchuria. They took control there and six years later began a new invasion of other areas. They were able to quickly seize large parts of the country. With this new threat, Jiang and the Communists agreed to join together to fight the Japanese.

Nationalism in India and Southwest Asia

KEY IDEA Nationalism triggered independence movements to overthrow colonial power.

Many Indians of the upper classes were educated in British schools. They learned the Western ideals of nationalism and democracy. They also grew angry at British domination of Indian life. Some formed into two groups, the Congress Party and the Muslim League.

More than a million Indians served in the British army in World War I. The British promised to make changes to the government of India that would give the Indian people greater control of their own nation. After the war, though, returning Indian soldiers were once again treated as second-class citizens. Reform was not made. When Indians protested, the British Parliament passed a law that allowed protesters to be jailed without a trial. Indians were further enraged. About 10,000 Indians gathered to protest this act. The British had also banned such public meetings, but the crowd was mostly unaware of that fact. British troops fired on the crowd, killing several hundred. The massacre at Amritsar sparked further protests.

Mohandas K. Gandhi became the leader of India's protest movement. He organized a widespread campaign of noncooperation with the British and passive resistance to unjust laws. He asked Indians to stop buying British goods, attending British schools, paying British taxes, or voting in British-run elections. He also convinced his followers to take these actions without using violence.

British jails filled with thousands of Indians who broke British laws in order to protest them.

Indians resented a British law that forced them to buy salt only from the government. Gandhi organized a huge march to the sea to make salt by evaporating sea water. At a related march, police beat many people protesting the salt tax. In 1935, the British finally gave in. They passed a law that allowed local Indian limited self-government. Though they had met some success, Indians had other problems. Tensions between Hindus and Muslims were high.

Other changes took place in Southwest Asia. Mustafa Kemal, a military commander, became the leader of a new republic in Turkey. He took many steps to modernize society and the economy in Turkey. He loosened Islam's hold on Turkish law. Another commander led a revolt in Persia that won independence from Britain in that land. He also modernized his country, and he changed its name to Iran. In both Turkey and Iran, women gained new rights. A new leader also emerged in Arabia. He united different groups into one kingdom, which he called Saudi Arabia. While he took steps to modernize life in his land, he kept the traditional practices of Islam strong.

Starting in the 1920s, Southwest Asia saw a major new economic change. Western companies discovered large reserves of oil in several countries in this part of the world. Oil brought huge sums of money to these countries. The desire to tap into this wealth also persuaded Western countries to try to gain power in the area.

Review

1. **Drawing Conclusions** How did the problems of the early 1900s lead to the Russian Revolution?
2. **Comparing and Contrasting** Compare Kerensky's and Lenin's plans.
3. **Summarizing** In what ways was Stalin's government an example of totalitarian rule?
4. **Analyzing Causes and Recognizing Effects** How did the Treaty of Versailles add to China's problems?
5. **Determining Main Ideas** Explain Gandhi's ideas of noncooperation and nonviolent protest.
CHAPTER OVERVIEW After World War I, new ideas and technologies changed old ways of thinking and living. The economic collapse called the Great Depression tested weak democratic governments in Europe. This crisis helped bring dictators to power in eastern Europe in the 1930s. Meanwhile, Japan, Germany, and Italy took actions that would soon plunge the world into another war.

Postwar Uncertainty

Two thinkers developed radical new ideas that challenged old ways of thinking. Albert Einstein revolutionized physics with his ideas about space, time, matter, and energy. He said that as moving objects neared the speed of light, space and time become relative. That means they change. His idea is the theory of relativity. Sigmund Freud's work changed the way people thought about the human mind. He said that much of human behavior was irrational—due to urges and desires buried in the unconscious mind of each person. Though resisted at first, Freud's ideas gained wide influence.

Looking at the destruction of World War I, many philosophers lost faith in reason and progress. One group of them was called existentialists. They argued that there is no universal meaning to the world. Each person must give it his or her own meaning through actions taken. They were influenced by Friedrich Nietzsche, a German philosopher of the late 1800s. He said that reason, democracy, and progress were empty ideas. He urged people to adopt the values of pride and strength.

Some writers, like Franz Kafka, showed the horrors of modern life. His novels put people in threatening situations that they could not understand or escape.

Artists rebelled against traditional painting. They did not merely re-create realistic objects. Paul Klee used bold colors and distorted lines. Pablo Picasso founded a style called Cubism that broke objects into geometric shapes. Painters called surrealists showed a dreamlike existence outside of reality.

Composers created a new style of music. Some, like Igor Stravinsky, used unusual rhythms or harsh, rather than pleasing, sounds. African-American musicians in the United States developed a lively, loose form of popular music called jazz.

Society changed after World War I as well. Young people experimented with modern values. Women set aside earlier forms of dress, wearing new styles that were looser and shorter. Many women also began to work in new careers.

Technology brought about changes to society as well. Improvements to the automobile helped make cars more desirable and affordable. As a result, more and more people bought cars. They began to move to suburbs outside cities, using their cars to travel to work. The auto boom also gave a boost to some industries. Another change was the growth in air travel. American pilot Charles Lindbergh caught the world's attention when he flew alone across the Atlantic Ocean in 1927. In 1932, Amelia Earhart became the first woman to make the flight alone.

The radio developed during World War I. In the 1920s, large radio networks were built. They offered programs such as news, plays, comedies, and sports. Soon millions of people were entertained by radios in their homes. Millions more went to movie theaters to watch motion pictures. Movies were produced all over the world, especially in southern California.
used American bank loans to help the German economy recover. By 1929, German factories produced as much as they had before the war.

World nations also took steps to try to ensure peace. France and Germany promised never to attack one another. Most countries of the world signed a treaty in which they pledged not to use war to gain their goals. There was no way to enforce the treaty, however, which made it weak.

The economy of the United States enjoyed a boom in the 1920s. But this growth hid problems. Workers were unable to buy all the goods produced, and when their purchases slowed, factories slowed production. Farmers faced falling food prices and slow sales. They were unable to repay loans and lost their farms. In 1929, stock prices in the United States plunged. The Great Depression was on.

The American Depression hit other countries. Nations raised tariffs—taxes on goods imported from other countries—to keep import prices high. They wanted to increase sales by local companies. But it all backfired. Trade between nations dropped, and unemployment shot up in many countries. The world suffered, including Latin America. As world trade went down, few countries bought the sugar, beef, and copper they produced.

Each country met the economic crisis in its own way. In Britain, a new multiparty government took over. It took steps that improved the economy and cut unemployment. By 1937, production was up again. In France, after several governments lost support, moderates and Socialists combined to form a government. It passed laws to help workers, but companies raised prices to cover their costs. As a result, unemployment was still high.

In Sweden, Norway, and Denmark, the governments played active roles in the economy. They taxed people with jobs to have money to pay benefits to people without jobs. The governments also created jobs by hiring out-of-work people to build roads and buildings.

In the United States, Franklin D. Roosevelt became president in 1932. He began a program that he called the New Deal. The government began large public works projects. This effort created jobs for millions. Businesses and farmers also got help from the government. The American economy got better but the recovery was slow.

**Fascism Rises in Europe**

**KEY IDEA** Because of political and economic problems, Italy and Germany turned to dictators.

In other countries, the economic crisis of the Great Depression led to the loss of democracy. There, millions of people turned to strong rulers to try to solve their economic problems. These tough leaders followed a set of beliefs called fascism. Fascist leaders were strongly nationalist. They believed in strength and power and built strong military forces. Fascist governments were controlled by one party, and that party was dominated by one leader. The leader was the nation's dictator. Fascist governments did not give any rights to their people.

Fascism arose in Italy because people there were angry that the treaty that came after World War I did not give them more gains in territory. Also, people with more money feared that unrest in Italy would result in a Communist government, as had happened in Russia. Benito Mussolini rose to power promising to revive the economy and armed forces of Italy. He used armed thugs who made threats to political opponents. The king of Italy was forced to let Mussolini lead the government.

Another Fascist arose in Germany. Adolf Hitler was the leader of the Nazi Party. He tried to take control of the government of Germany in 1923, but the attempt failed. He was sent to prison, where he wrote a book that summarized his ideas. Hitler believed that Germans were superior to all other people. He said that the Treaty of Versailles treated Germany unfairly, and that a crowded Germany needed the lands of eastern Europe and Russia.

When the Depression hit Germany, the country was in terrible shape. Hitler was named leader of the German government but soon took the powers of a dictator. All those who opposed him were arrested. His economic program gave work to millions but took away their rights to organize into unions or to strike. He took control of all areas of life. He burned books that went against Nazi ideas and forced children to join Nazi groups. Hitler also launched attacks on Germany's Jews. Laws took away their rights. In November 1938, mobs destroyed thousands of Jewish-owned buildings and attacked Jewish people.

Dictators took control in other countries as well. Hungary, Poland, Yugoslavia, Albania, Bulgaria, and Romania all had dictators—or kings who ruled like...
dictators. Only Czechoslovakia remained as a democracy in eastern Europe.

**Aggressors Invade Nations**

KEY IDEA As Germany, Italy, and Japan conquered other countries, the rest of the world did nothing.

In the 1930s, the major democracies—Britain, France, and the United States—still faced serious problems at home. Dictators in Germany and Italy took advantage of this and began moving to gain territory. So, too, did Japan, now ruled by generals. These military leaders had taken power when the Depression struck. They planned to capture China as a part of a Pacific empire.

In 1931, the Japanese army captured Manchuria, a part of China. It was rich in coal and iron and as a result provided valuable resources for the Japanese economy. Other countries protested in the League of Nations but did nothing else. Japan ignored the protests and in 1933 pulled out of the League. It stayed in Manchuria, though. Four years later, Japan invaded China. The strong Japanese army swept Chinese fighters aside. It killed tens of thousands of Chinese in the city of Nanjing. Chinese forces—both the Nationalists of the government and Communist rebels—continued to fight Japan.

Italy’s Mussolini wanted an Italian empire in Africa, and in 1935 he invaded Ethiopia. His troops won easy victory. Haile Selassie, the emperor of Ethiopia, pleaded to the League of Nations for help. The League did nothing.

Hitler made moves also. He broke the Versailles Treaty by rebuilding Germany’s army. In 1936, he sent troops into an area of Germany that the treaty had forbidden them to enter. France and Britain again refused to stand up to Germany. This move won Hitler more support in Germany. That year, he signed an agreement with Mussolini and also with Japan. The three nations were called the Axis Powers.

In 1936, Spain erupted in civil war as the army revolted against a leftist government. Hitler and Mussolini sent aid to the army, which was backed by Spanish Fascists. The Soviet Union sent aid to the government. In 1939, the army won and Francisco Franco became Spain’s Fascist dictator.

In March 1938, Hitler moved his troops into Austria. He made it part of Germany, breaking the Versailles Treaty again. France and Britain once more did nothing. The next year, Hitler demanded that Czechoslovakia give up part of its land to Germany. The country refused, but Britain and France agreed to allow Germany to take the land. Hitler promised to respect the new borders of Czechoslovakia, but a few months later he took the entire country.

In the summer of 1939, Hitler made a similar demand of Poland. That nation also refused to give up land. Britain and France now said that they would protect Poland. But Hitler guessed they would not back this up. Meanwhile, he made an agreement with Soviet dictator Joseph Stalin in which the two countries promised never to attack each other.

**Review**

**Clarifying**

1. What ideas of Einstein and Freud challenged old ways of thinking?
2. How did technology change society after the war?
3. **Comparing and Contrasting** Compare the French approach to the Depression with the New Deal.
4. **Analyzing Causes and Recognizing Effects** What European nations came to be ruled by dictators, and why?
5. **Following Chronological Order** Describe the sequence of events in the 1930s that led to war.
CHAPTERS IN BRIEF  World War II, 1939–1945

CHAPTER OVERVIEW  Germany’s Adolf Hitler began World War II, which the United States entered after a Japanese attack on a U.S. naval base. Hitler’s racial hatred resulted in the deaths of millions of people, many of them Jews. After years of struggle, the Allies won the war, but millions had died and large parts of Europe and Japan were destroyed.

Hitler’s Lightning War

\textbf{KEY IDEA} Using sudden, mass attacks, Germany overran much of Europe and North Africa.

In 1939, having conquered Austria and Czechoslovakia, Adolf Hitler decided to move on Poland. He had signed an agreement with Stalin of the Soviet Union. In it, they agreed to split Poland between them. This deal removed the threat of the Soviets attacking Germany from the east.

So, on September 1, the German army invaded Poland. Using planes, tanks, and troops, it moved suddenly in a technique called blitzkrieg—"lightning war." Britain and France declared war, but Poland fell before they could help. On September 17, Stalin invaded Finland and eastern Poland.

In April 1940, Hitler’s armies conquered Denmark and Norway. Within two months, they also captured Belgium, the Netherlands, Luxembourg, and France. Some French, led by Charles de Gaulle, escaped to Britain to continue fighting. By then, Italy’s Benito Mussolini had joined Hitler’s side.

Great Britain—now led by Winston Churchill—stood alone. To prepare for an invasion of Britain, the German air force launched bombing attacks to weaken the country. The British air force fought back. It was helped by the newly developed radar that warned of coming attacks. Also, the British had broken the German army’s secret code. The air war over Britain lasted many months. Unable to break British defenses, Hitler called off the attacks.

He next turned to the Mediterranean and the east. Germany sent troops to North Africa, where its ally, Italy, was losing to British forces. German troops joined the battle and fought a seesaw struggle with the British. Hitler forced Bulgaria, Romania, and Hungary to join Germany in the war. In April 1941, German armies quickly took control of Yugoslavia and Greece. In June, Hitler turned on his one-time ally and launched a surprise invasion of the Soviet Union. The Red Army, though the largest in the world, was not well-equipped or well-trained. The Germans quickly pushed deep into Soviet land. As the Red Army was forced to retreat, it destroyed everything left behind to keep supplies out of German hands. Stopped from taking Leningrad in the north, the Germans turned on Moscow, the Soviet capital. A strong Soviet counterattack, combined with fierce Russian winter weather, forced the Germans back.

The United States watched these events. Many Americans did not want to join in the war. President Roosevelt wanted to help the Allies, however. He persuaded Congress to allow Britain and France to buy American weapons. Soon American ships were escorting British cargo ships carrying guns. By the fall of 1941, U.S. ships had orders to fire on German submarines. The United States and Germany had an undeclared naval war.

Roosevelt met with Churchill in August of 1941. Although the United States was not officially in the war, the two leaders issued a statement called the Atlantic Charter. It supported free trade and the right of people to form their own national government.

Japan’s Pacific Campaign

\textbf{KEY IDEA} Japan attacked Pearl Harbor in Hawaii and brought the United States into World War II.

The military leaders who ran the Japanese government also had plans to build an empire. They captured part of China in 1931. In 1937, they invaded the center of China but met strong resistance. Needing resources for this war, they decided to move into Southeast Asia. The United States feared that Japanese control of this area would threaten U.S. holdings in the Pacific. Roosevelt gave military aid to China and cut off oil shipments to Japan. The Japanese decided to attack the United States.

On December 7, 1941, the Japanese navy began a surprise attack on the U.S. Navy base at Pearl Harbor in Hawaii. In just two hours, Japanese planes sank a major part of the U.S. Pacific Fleet. The next
day, Congress declared war on Japan. The attack on Pearl Harbor was just one of many sudden strikes. Japan also captured Guam and Wake Islands, and the Philippines. It took Indonesia from the Dutch and Hong Kong, Malaya, and Singapore from the British.

In April 1942, the United States sent planes to drop bombs on Tokyo. The attack raised the morale of Americans. In May 1942, at the Battle of the Coral Sea, the Allies suffered heavy losses but were able to stop the Japanese advance and save Australia. The next month, the U.S. Navy scored an important victory near Midway Island in the central Pacific. In this battle, Japan lost four aircraft carriers, the most important naval weapon in the war. The victory turned the tide of war against Japan.

The United States now went on the attack. General Douglas MacArthur proposed hopping past the strongly defended Japanese-held islands. He wanted to attack weaker ones. The first attack came at Guadalcanal, in the Solomon Islands, where the Japanese were building an air base. However, it took six months for U.S. and Australian troops to clear Japanese soldiers off the island.

The Holocaust

**KEY IDEA** During the Holocaust, Hitler’s Nazis killed six million Jews and millions of other “non-Aryans.”

Part of Hitler’s new order for Europe included getting rid of “inferior” people. Hitler believed in a German “master race.” He had a deep-seated hatred of people who were not German and especially of Jews. He and his Nazis made persecution of Jews government policy.

During the 1930s, Hitler passed laws that took away the rights of German Jews. One night in November 1938, Nazi mobs attacked Jews throughout Germany. They destroyed homes and businesses and killed or beat many people. Thousands of Jews tried to leave Germany. Other countries accepted a large number but were unwilling to take all those who wished to leave. Hitler ordered all Jews in Germany and his conquered lands to live in certain parts of cities called ghettos.

Hitler took steps to kill as many Jews as possible. The plan was the “Final Solution” to what the Nazis called the “Jewish problem.” Germans also turned on many other people—Roma (gypsies), Poles, Russians, and those who were mentally or physically disabled. The Germans put the most attention on Jews, however.

Thousands of Jews were shot to death by “killing squads.” Millions were gathered and placed in concentration camps. These prisons used the inmates as slave workers. Many in the camps died of starvation or disease. Starting in 1942, the Nazis built “death camps.” At these camps, thousands of Jews were gassed to death in huge gas chambers. In the end, six million Jews were killed by the Nazis. Fewer than four million European Jews survived.

The Allied Victory

**KEY IDEA** The United States, Great Britain, and the Soviet Union scored key victories and won the war.

In 1942, Roosevelt, Churchill, and Stalin planned the Allies’ strategy. Stalin wanted Britain and the United States to attack Germany to relieve the pressure on his armies. They agreed but chose to attack in North Africa. In late 1942, the British army drove the Germans out of Egypt and back to the west. Meanwhile, American troops landed behind the Germans and began moving east. The Germans were finally forced to abandon Africa in May 1943.

At the same time, the Soviets enjoyed a major victory. German troops had invaded the Soviet city of Stalingrad in 1942. The Red Army forced the Germans to surrender in February 1943.

American and British soldiers next invaded Italy and captured Sicily. Mussolini was forced from power and the new Italian government surrendered. Hitler was unwilling to give up Italy. His army fought fiercely there until 1945.

While the Allied armies fought, people at home suffered. Some British and Soviet citizens died. In the United States, citizens faced shortages. Goods such as food, tires, gasoline, and clothing were in short supply. The government rationed these items—limiting how much a person could have—to make sure that there were enough for the armies.

Some Americans were even imprisoned. Since bitter feelings against the Japanese became widespread, mistrust of Americans of Japanese heritage grew. The U.S. government gathered thousands of Japanese Americans who lived on the West Coast and forced them to move to concentration camps in the western United States. Two-thirds of them were American citizens.

In early 1944, the Allies built a massive force to retake France. In June, an invasion of thousands of ships, planes, and soldiers was launched. The Allies
suffered heavy losses but gained control of northern France. A month later, Allied forces broke out and began to pour through German lines. By September, the Allies had forced the Germans out of France, Belgium, Luxembourg, and much of the Netherlands.

At the same time, the Soviets were pushing the Germans back in eastern Europe. In late 1944, Hitler ordered his army to make one final, large-scale attack in the west. In the Battle of the Bulge, it punched through Allied lines until an Allied counterattack forced it back to Germany. By late April 1945, Soviet troops surrounded Berlin, Hitler's headquarters. Hitler killed himself, and a week later, the Germans surrendered. Roosevelt had not lived to see this victory, however. He had died in early April. Harry Truman was now president.

In the Pacific, the Allies advanced on Japanese territory starting in 1943. By the fall of 1944, they had landed troops in the Philippines. The Japanese sent their remaining ships to try to destroy the U.S. Navy near the Philippines. In the Battle of Leyte Gulf, in October 1944, the Japanese lost badly, and their navy was crushed. American troops began to move closer to Japan. In March 1945, they captured an island called Iwo Jima. By June, they had won control of Okinawa, an island just 350 miles from Japan.

Japan was the next stop. But the U.S. military feared that an invasion of Japan would cost half a million Allied lives. In August, President Truman ordered an experimental atomic bomb dropped on the city of Hiroshima to try to quickly end the war. Three days later, a second bomb was dropped on Nagasaki. Tens of thousands of Japanese died. In September, Japan surrendered.

Europe and Japan in Ruins

**KEY IDEA** World War II cost millions of lives and billions of dollars in damage. It left Europe and Japan in ruins.

The war had left Europe in ruins, with about 60 million dead and hundreds of cities destroyed. Suffering continued for many years in Europe.

The old Fascist governments had disappeared. At first, the Communist parties grew strong in France and Italy. People who opposed communism grew alarmed. They voted leaders from other parties into power. When the economies of these lands improved, communism lost appeal. During efforts to rebuild Europe, the Allies held trials in the city of Nuremberg, Germany. There, captured Nazi leaders were charged with crimes against humanity. They were found guilty, and some were executed.

The U.S. Army occupied Japan under the command of General MacArthur. He disbanded the Japanese army and took steps to give farmers and workers more power in the economy. He led the effort to write a new constitution for Japan, which changed how the Japanese viewed the world. The emperor was forced to declare that he was not a god. The new constitution gave all power to the Japanese people, who voted for members of a parliament that would rule the land. All Japanese over age 20—including women—were given the right to vote. In 1951, other nations finally signed a formal peace with Japan. A few months later, U.S. military occupation ended.

**Review**

1. **Summarizing** What was the first stop to Hitler? How did it affect later events?
2. **Analyzing Causes** What led to tensions between the United States and Japan before war broke out?
3. **Recognizing Effects** How did the American occupation change Japan?
4. **Following Chronological Order** Outline the fate of European Jews from the early 1930s to the Holocaust.
5. **Forming and Supporting Opinions** Do you think it was justified to drop the atomic bomb on Japanese cities? Explain your answer.
CHAPTERS IN BRIEF

Restructuring the Postwar World, 1945–Present

CHAPTER OVERVIEW The United States and Soviet Union opposed each other as they tried to achieve different goals. Communists won a civil war in China, making it the world's second Communist nation. The United States fought two wars in Asia trying to contain communism. The Cold War also spread to Latin America and elsewhere. The superpowers later began to enjoy better relations.

Cold War: Superpowers Face Off

KEY IDEA The conflicting aims of the United States and the Soviet Union led to global competition.

The United States and the Soviet Union were allies during World War II. In February 1945, they agreed that Germany would be divided into separate zones. Each zone would be occupied by the soldiers of one of the main Allied powers. They also agreed that Germany would have to repay the Soviet Union for damage and loss of life. Soviet leader Joseph Stalin, in turn, promised free elections in Eastern Europe and to declare war on Japan. These allies also were among 50 countries that formed the United Nations in 1945. This new world body was pledged to save the world from war.

Still, the two superpowers had sharp political and economic differences. They also had different goals after the war. The United States wanted to encourage democracy and trade. It wanted to put the different zones of Germany back together to make one nation. The Soviet Union had these goals: to promote communism, to take advantage of raw materials in Eastern Europe and rebuild its own economy, and to keep Germany divided and weak.

After the war, Stalin made sure Communist governments were in place in Eastern Europe. This divided Europe between the Communist East and the democratic West. This division was called the “iron curtain.” U.S. President Harry Truman then began a policy of containment to block further Soviet expansion. As part of this policy, the United States adopted the Marshall Plan in 1947. The plan donated food and materials such as machines to European countries, helping them rebuild after the war.

In 1948, the Soviets and Americans clashed over Germany. France, Britain, and the United States agreed to pull their troops out of Germany and let the three zones that they occupied unite. The Soviets refused to leave their zone, however. Then they cut off all highway and train traffic into Berlin, which was deep within the Soviet zone. The United States and British responded with the Berlin Airlift. They flew food and supplies into the city for 11 months. Finally, the Soviets lifted the blockade.

The growing struggle between Americans and Soviets came to be called the Cold War. Many other countries allied with one superpower or another. The United States, Canada, and several countries in Western Europe formed the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO). In this military alliance, each nation promised to defend any other member that was attacked. The Soviets and the countries of Eastern Europe made a similar agreement. It was called the Warsaw Pact.

In 1949, the Soviet Union announced that it, like the United States, had developed an atomic bomb. Three years later, both superpowers had a newer, even more deadly weapon—the hydrogen bomb. Soon both nations were involved in an arms race, as they produced growing numbers of nuclear weapons and developed new ways to deliver them.

In 1957, Soviet scientists shocked the world by launching Sputnik, the world’s first human-made satellite. Many Americans felt that the Soviets were far ahead in science and technology. The United States then began spending huge amounts of money to improve science education.

Communists Take Power in China

KEY IDEA Chinese Communists defeated Nationalist forces, and two separate Chinas emerged.

Nationalists and Communists fought for control of China in the 1930s. When Japan invaded China, the two sides joined to fight the common enemy. After World War II, they began fighting each other again. Their renewed war lasted from 1946 to 1949. The Communists won because their
troops were well-trained in guerrilla war. They also enjoyed the backing of the peasants to whom they had promised land. In 1949, Jiang Jieshi and other Nationalist leaders fled to the island of Taiwan. The United States helped Jiang set up a new government there. The Nationalists called their land the Republic of China. The Soviets helped Mao Zedong and his government, the People’s Republic of China.

Mao began to rebuild China. He seized land and gave it to the peasants. But he also forced the peasants—in groups of 200 to 300 households—to join collective farms. The people on each of these farms were given the land as a group. He also took control of China’s industries. Under Mao’s plan, production of industrial products went up.

With this success, Mao launched the “Great Leap Forward.” He wanted to make the collective farms larger and more productive. The plan failed. People did not like strong government control. Planning by the government was not good. Poor weather produced a famine that killed millions.

After this failure, Mao played a smaller role in the government. He grew unhappy with the direction the country was taking, however. In 1966, he launched the Cultural Revolution. Using young students formed into groups called Red Guards, Mao tried to revive the revolutionary spirit in China. The Red Guards struck at teachers, scientists, and artists. They shut down schools and sent intellectuals to the country to work on farms. They killed thousands of people who resisted. China was in chaos, with factories shut down and farm production dropping. Eventually, Mao finally put an end to the Cultural Revolution.

WARS IN KOREA AND VIETNAM

KEY IDEA In Asia, the Cold War flared into actual wars supported mainly by the superpowers.

After World War II, Korea was divided into a Soviet-backed north and an American-supported south. On June 25, 1950, North Korea invaded the South. President Truman fought this move with United Nations help. The United States and other countries sent troops to assist South Korea. At first, the North Korean army captured almost all of South Korea. Then the UN army began a bold counterattack. In just two months, it had pushed the North Koreans far back, nearly to China. The Chinese then entered the war and drove the UN forces back. Bitter fighting continued until 1953. That year, the two Koreas agreed to a cease-fire. The earlier boundary splitting North and South Korea at the 38th parallel remained the same.

North Korea developed as a Communist country following the war. It had a strong army and tight government control, but it also had many economic problems. South Korea’s economy grew, in part because it received U.S. aid. However, for more than 30 years, dictators ruled the country. Free elections were held only after a new constitution was accepted in 1987.

The United States faced another war against Communists, this time in Vietnam. That area had been a French colony until Japan invaded it early in World War II. When Japan lost, the French returned. A Vietnamese nationalist named Ho Chi Minh wanted to win independence. First, he drove the French out of Vietnam. A peace conference split Vietnam in two, with Ho taking charge in North Vietnam. He made it a Communist state. Communist rebels—the Vietcong—stayed active in the South.

Seeing that the government of South Vietnam was threatened by Communists, the United States began to send large numbers of soldiers. First it sent advisers, later combat troops. By 1968, more than 500,000 U.S. troops were there. They could not win the war on the ground. The United States also tried bombing or burning forests in the South to drive the Vietcong from their hiding places. These actions made peasants in the South more likely to support the North. Many in the United States came to oppose the war.

In the late 1960s, President Richard Nixon began to cut the number of U.S. troops in Vietnam in order to turn the fighting over to the South Vietnamese. The last American troops left in 1973. Two years later, North Vietnam overran the South and made Vietnam one country again. About 1.5 million people fled Vietnam. Today, Vietnam remains Communist but is looking for other nations to invest in its economy.

Fighting in Vietnam spilled over into its neighbor Cambodia. Rebels there set up a brutal Communist government. It killed 2 million people and imposed its will. In 1978, the Vietnamese invaded the country, overthrowing the rebels. Vietnam withdrew in 1989. In 1993, Cambodia held free elections.
The Cold War Divides the World

KEY IDEA  The superpowers supported opposing sides in Latin American and Middle Eastern conflicts.

After World War II, many nations in Africa, Asia, and Latin America had serious problems. They were plagued by ethnic conflict, lack of education and technology, poverty, and political unrest. Some of these countries tried to stay neutral in the Cold War. Others actively sought American or Soviet aid.

In Cuba, the United States supported a dictator in the 1950s. In 1959, a young lawyer, Fidel Castro, led a successful revolt. Castro then turned to the Soviets for aid. In 1962, the Soviets and Americans almost went to war over Soviet nuclear missiles placed in Cuba. The Soviets finally pulled the missiles out. Over time, the Cuban economy became more dependent on Soviet aid. When the Soviet Union dropped communism in 1991, this aid stopped. It was a serious blow to Cuba’s economy.

The United States had also backed a dictator in Nicaragua. He fell in 1979 to Communist rebels. When the new government began helping leftist rebels in nearby El Salvador, the United States struck back. It began to support forces in Nicaragua that wanted to overthrow the Communists. The civil war lasted more than a decade. Finally, the different sides agreed to hold free elections.

The Middle East often saw conflict between those who wanted a modern, more Western-style society and those who wanted to follow traditional Islam. Such a struggle took place in Iran. In the 1950s, a group tried to take control of the government from the shah, or ruler, who was pro-West. The United States helped the Shah defeat them.

Over time, the Shah tried to weaken the influence of the Islamic religion in Iran. A Muslim leader, the Ayatollah Ruholla Khomeini, led a successful revolt. In 1979, the Shah was forced to leave the country. Khomeini made Islamic law the law of the land and followed a foreign policy that was strongly against the United States. He also led his country to a long war with Iraq, its neighbor.

The Soviets gained influence in Afghanistan after 1950. In the 1970s, Islamic rebels threatened the country’s Communist government. The Soviets sent in support troops. The United States felt its Middle East oil supplies were in danger and supported the rebels. In 1989, after a costly occupation, Soviet troops left Afghanistan.

The Cold War Thaws

KEY IDEA  The Cold War began to thaw as the superpowers entered an era of uneasy diplomacy.

When Stalin died in 1953, Nikita Khrushchev became the Soviet leader. Soon protest movements in Eastern Europe challenged the Soviets’ hold there. In 1956, protesters and the army toppled the Communist government of Hungary. Khrushchev sent Soviet tanks to put the Communists back in power. Similar events took place in Czechoslovakia in 1968. That time it was new Soviet leader Leonid Brezhnev who sent the tanks.

The Soviets did not have the same control over their larger neighbor, China. Although the Soviet Union and China enjoyed friendly relations at first, they gradually grew apart.

In the early 1970s, President Richard Nixon began following a policy called détente. This was a lessening of tensions between the superpowers. He became the U.S. first president to visit Communist China and the Soviet Union. In 1972, Nixon and Brezhnev signed a treaty to limit the number of nuclear missiles each country could have.


Review

Determining Main Ideas
1. What factors divided the United States and the Soviet Union?
2. How did the two superpowers tangle in the Americas?
3. Summarizing  Describe the Great Leap Forward and the Cultural Revolution.
4. Analyzing Causes and Recognizing Effects  Why did the United States fight in Korea and Vietnam? What were the outcomes of these wars?
5. Making Inferences  How did the Soviet Union act toward Eastern Europe?
CHAPTER OVERVIEW  India and its neighbors won independence from Great Britain, but their histories have been spoiled by conflict. Many new nations arose in Southeast Asia and in Africa after World War II as colonial empires collapsed. In the late 1940s, Jewish people were given their own country in the Middle East, where fighting between Jews and Arabs has erupted many times.

The Indian Subcontinent Achieves Freedom

**KEY IDEA**  A number of new nations emerged from the British colony of India.

Many Asians served in the armies of the colonial powers during World War II. The fight for freedom from Nazi tyranny deepened their desire for independence from colonial control. Also, the Japanese victories over European powers made Asian nationalists realize that the colonial rulers could be defeated. At the same time, people in Europe began to wonder if it was right for one nation to have another as a colony.

After World War II, Britain was prepared to grant independence to India—home to a large Hindu and smaller Muslim population. The British Parliament passed a law granting independence in July 1947. It created the separate Hindu and Muslim nations of India and Pakistan. The law gave people only one month to decide which country they wanted to live in and to move there. As millions of people began to move, violence broke out. Muslims, Hindus, and Sikhs—another religious group—killed each other. Leader Mohandas Gandhi pleaded to end all violence. A Hindu extremist assassinated him for protecting Muslims.

Jawaharlal Nehru became the first prime minister of India, and he led the country for 17 years. His new nation and Pakistan, however, quickly fell to war over the state of Kashmir. It bordered both countries, with a Hindu ruler and large Muslim population. Conflict over this state continues today.

Nehru tried to reform Indian society. He hoped to improve the status of the lower castes and of women. Shortly after he died in 1964, his daughter, Indira Gandhi, became prime minister. She took steps to increase food production. In 1984, she ordered an attack on Sikh rebels. A few months later, she was killed by Sikhs. She was followed by her son Rajiv Gandhi, but he, too, was assassinated as a political protest. Separatist movements continue to disrupt Indian society.

Pakistan, too, has been marked by violence. When first formed, the nation had east and west parts that were separated by India. In a bloody fight in 1971, the eastern part won independence as the new nation of Bangladesh. Power struggles have caused turmoil in the western part since then.

Ceylon, an island on the southeastern coast of India, won its independence in 1947 as well. In 1972 it was renamed Sri Lanka. Since 1983, a Hindu minority on the island—the Tamils—have led a bloody fight to form a separate nation.

Southeast Asian Nations Gain Independence

**KEY IDEA**  The European colonies in Southeast Asia became independent countries in the postwar period.

In 1946, the United States gave the Philippines independence. From 1966 to 1986, Ferdinand Marcos led the country. He was elected president but after a few years ruled as a dictator. He then harshly put down dissent and stole millions of dollars from the country. When he lost an election in 1986, he refused to leave office. A large public outcry forced him to step down.

Burma was the first British colony in Southeast Asia to become independent. It changed its name to Myanmar in 1989. Since 1962, generals have ruled the country, which has often been torn by conflict.

After World War II, the British moved back into the Malay peninsula. They tried to form a country, but ethnic conflict between Malays and Chinese who lived in the area doomed the effort. In 1957, independence was given to Malaya, Singapore, and parts of two distant islands. Some years later, Singapore declared independence as a city-state.

After World War II, Indonesia became independent. The nation is spread out. It has 13,600
islands and includes people from 300 different
groups speaking 250 different languages. Bringing
these different people into one unified country has
been difficult. In 1967, a general named Suharto
took control. Many criticized him for taking over
the island of East Timor and for corruption in his
government. He resigned in 1998 under intense
public pressure.

New Nations in Africa
KEY IDEA After World War II, African leaders threw off
colonial rule and created independent countries.

During World War II, Africans fought as sol-
diers along with Europeans. As a result,
Africans were unwilling to suffer further domina-
tion by colonial European powers after the war.

Soon the British began letting Africans take a
greater part in the colonial government of its Gold
Coast colony. Kwame Nkrumah headed a move-
ment to push for Britain to act more quickly. The
effort succeeded, and in 1957 the colony became
independent—the first former colony in sub-Saharan
Africa. The new nation took the name Ghana.

Nkrumah had ambitious plans for building the
economy of Ghana. These plans were very expen-
sive, though, and opposition grew. Some people in
Ghana criticized him, too, for the time he spent
trying to form a group of African leaders. Though
the Organization of African Unity was formed in
1963, Nkrumah remained in trouble at home.
Finally, the army seized power in 1966 and ruled
for many years.

The strong leadership of nationalist Jomo
Kenyatta helped Kenya achieve independence in
1963. So, too, did an uprising of Africans called
Mau Mau. This protest aimed at frightening the
British settlers to leave. Kenyatta became president
of the new nation. He tried to unite the many dif-
ferent peoples in his country. His successor, Daniel
Arap Moi, had little success in governing the coun-
try. He stepped down in 2002, and a new party
gained power through free elections.

Belgium granted independence to the Congo in
1960. In 1965, Mobutu Sese Seko took control. He
renamed the country Zaire and ruled until 1997.
Though Zaire had rich mineral resources, Mobutu’s
harsh and corrupt rule made it a poor country. He
was overthrown in a coup in 1997, when the coun-
try’s name was changed to the Democratic Republic
of the Congo.

Conflicts in the Middle East
KEY IDEA Postwar division of Palestine made the
Middle East a hotbed of nationalist movements.

The movement to settle Jews in Palestine began
in the late 1800s. These Jews believed that
Palestine belonged to them because it was their
home 5,000 years ago. Muslims had lived there for
1,300 years, however.

At the end of World War II, the United Nations
divided Palestine in two. It left part for the
Palestinian people and set aside part for Jews.
Islamic countries voted against the plan, and the
Palestinians opposed it. Many countries, seeing the
suffering Jews had experienced in World War II,
backed the idea of a separate Jewish state. On May
14, 1948, Jews declared the existence of the Jewish
nation of Israel.

The next day, six Islamic neighbors invaded
Israel. With strong support from the United States,
Israel won the war in a few months. It also won
three later wars and seized much Palestinian land.

In 1977, Egyptian leader Anwar Sadat signed
a peace agreement with Israeli prime minister
Menachem Begin. Egypt thus became the first
Islamic country to recognize Israel. This enraged
many Arabs, and Sadat was assassinated in 1981.
His successor, though, kept peace with Israel.

Despite many efforts, though, Israel and the
Palestinian people have not made peace. Palestinians
living in Israel dislike Israeli rule. They want a
nation of their own. The Palestinian Liberation
Organization (PLO), led by Yasir Arafat, became a leading group in the struggle for self-rule. During the 1970s and 1980s, the military arm of the PLO made many attacks on Israel. That nation responded by invading Lebanon to attack bases of the PLO. In the late 1980s, many Palestinian people in Israel began a revolt called the intifada, or “uprising.” It lasted for years.

In the early 1990s, the two sides made some progress toward peace. Israel agreed to give Palestinians control of an area called the Gaza Strip and of the town of Jericho. The Israeli leader who signed this agreement, Yitzhak Rabin, was assassinated by a Jewish extremist who opposed giving in to Palestinians. In 2003, the two sides renewed their peace efforts with a commitment to a U.S. sponsored plan known as the “road map.”

Central Asia Struggles

**KEY IDEA** The former lands of the Soviet Union in Central Asia struggled to become thriving nations.

In 1991 the Soviet Union broke apart. As a result, the republics that it had conquered became fifteen independent states. These states include nine countries in Central Asia. Geographers often group these nations into two geographic areas. Armenia, Azerbaijan, and Georgia make up the Transcaucasian Republics. Uzbekistan, Turkmenistan, Tajikistan, Kazakhstan, and Kyrgyzstan comprise the Central Asian Republics.

Since independence, the countries of Central Asia have faced a number of challenges. Many of these countries were economically dependent on the Soviet Union. Thus, they have had a hard time standing on their own. In addition, hostility has arisen among some of the different ethnic groups that inhabit the area. This in turn has led to the outbreak of several regional wars.

Located just below the countries that comprise Central Asia is Afghanistan. This nation endured a long history of struggle for independence. However, it is the nation’s more recent battles that have brought it much international attention.

During the 1970s, a Communist group supported by the Soviet Union sought to take control of Afghanistan. A rebel group known as the mujahideen fought the communists. The Soviets soon invaded and attempted to make Afghanistan part of their empire. Despite their superior military might, Soviet forces could not defeat the determined Afghan guerrilla fighters. After nearly 10 years of bloody fighting, the Soviet Union withdrew.

After the Soviets left, various Afghan rebel troops fought each other for control of the country. By 1998, an Islamic group known as the Taliban controlled most of Afghanistan. The Taliban practiced an extreme version of the Islamic religion—one that many other Muslims opposed. Taliban leaders forbade women to attend school or hold jobs. They also prohibited citizens from watching television and movies or listening to modern music. Punishment for disobeying their rules included beatings and even execution.

What’s more, the Taliban allowed terrorist groups to train in Afghanistan. One such group was al-Qaeda, whose leader was Osama bin Laden. Many believe this group to be responsible for the attacks on New York and Washington, D.C. on September 11, 2001.

In the wake of those attacks, the U.S. government demanded that the Taliban turn over bin Laden. The Taliban refused. Beginning in October 2001, the United States took military action against Afghanistan. By December, the United States had driven the Taliban from power. In the months that followed, Afghans created a new government and began working to rebuild their country after decades of war.

Review

**Analyzing Issues**

1. What difficulties face anyone trying to make a unified country out of Indonesia?
2. Which change to self-rule do you think went the smoothest in Africa? Why?
3. **Determining Main Ideas** What type of struggle dominates the history of independence in Southeast Asia?
4. **Analyzing Causes and Recognizing Effects** Why were Sadat and Rabin assassinated?
CHAPTER IN BRIEF  Struggles for Democracy, 1945–Present

CHAPTER OVERVIEW The history of Latin America revealed how difficult it is to set up a democracy. In Africa, ethnic conflicts worked against democracy. In the early 1990s, communism fell in Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union. But long-hidden ethnic tensions broke the regions into smaller countries. In China, communist leaders made economic changes but kept tight political control.

Summary

Democracy–Case Study: Latin American Democracies

KEY IDEA In Latin America, economic problems and authoritarian rule delayed democracy.

For democracy to work, there must be free and fair elections. There must be more than one political party. The people of the country should have a good education so that they can make informed choices. They should share a common culture. All must accept the idea that everyone has equal rights. Finally, there must be rule by law, not by power. Many nations in Latin America have had difficulty achieving democracy because all these factors are not present.

In 1822, newly independent Brazil began life as a monarchy. After 1930, a dictator ruled. But, in 1956, an elected leader tried to make the economy better. He broke up large estates and gave land to the peasants. Landowners opposed the plan. They backed a group of army leaders who took power in 1964. The military ruled Brazil for 20 years. The country’s economy grew, but the people had few rights. When the economy soured in the 1980s, the army gave up power to an elected president. In 2002, Luiz Inacio Lula da Silva, a leftist candidate, was elected president.

Mexico has had stable government for almost all of the 1900s. Since the 1920s, one political party—now called the Institutional Revolutionary Party (PRI)—has been in power. The PRI has controlled the local, state, and national governments. At times, the party acted harshly to stop any dissent. In recent years, though, the party has opened up the political system to candidates from other parties. In 1997, two opposition parties won enough seats to the national legislature to deny the PRI control of that congress. In 2002, Mexican voters ended PRI rule by electing Vicente Fox as president.

Argentina has struggled toward democracy, too. In the 1940s and 1950s, Juan Perón was a popular dictator. He put in place many programs to benefit the masses. In 1952, though, the army overthrew him and kept control of the government for the next 30 years. Army leaders ruled harshly, killing many who opposed them. In 1982, the army suffered a stinging defeat in a war with Britain. The generals agreed to step down. Since 1983, Argentina has been led by freely elected leaders. However, it faces severe economic problems. In 2003, Nestor Kirchner became president.

The Challenge of Democracy in Africa

KEY IDEA Recent histories of Nigeria and South Africa show ethnic and racial conflict hindering democracy.

Nations have had a hard time setting up democracy in Africa because of colonial rule. European powers drew up borders in Africa that paid no attention to ethnic groupings. They put people who disliked each other in the same area, causing conflict. Also, they never developed the economies of their colonies. Most of the colonies lacked a middle class or skilled workers. Both are needed for a strong democracy. When Britain and France gave their African colonies independence, they gave them democratic governments. Soon, though, problems arose between rival groups.

Nigeria is an example of this. In 1960, it became independent from Britain. But conflict broke out in just a few years. The people of one ethnic group tried to break away from Nigeria but lost in a three-year civil war. After a period of military rule, Nigeria finally got an elected government. Army officers said the government was corrupt, though, and overthrew it. Once in power, they treated the people from other ethnic groups harshly. They allowed elections in 1993 but did not accept the results. In 1999, Nigerians elected their first civilian president in 20 years, Olusegun Obasanjo. He was re-elected in 2003.
In South Africa, the conflict was between races. A white minority ruled a black majority. In 1948, they put in place a policy called apartheid—the strict separation of blacks and whites. Black South Africans were denied many basic rights. Some joined together in a group called the African National Congress (ANC) to fight for their rights. The government cracked down, putting many ANC leaders in prison.

By the late 1980s, several riots had taken place, as blacks angrily struck back at the system. Also, many nations would not buy goods produced in South Africa. They hoped to persuade the government to end apartheid. In 1990, new President F.W. de Klerk took that step. He made the ANC legal and released ANC leader Nelson Mandela from prison. Parliament passed a law ending apartheid. In April 1994, all South Africans—even blacks—were able to vote in an election for a new leader. The ANC and Mandela won easily. In 1996, the new government approved a new constitution. It gave equal rights to all South Africans. In 1999, ANC official Thabo Mbeki won election as president.

The Collapse of the Soviet Union

**KEY IDEA** Soviet leaders Mikhail Gorbachev, Boris Yeltsin, and Vladimir Putin promoted democratic reforms and economic restructuring.

During the 1960s and 1970s, the leaders of the Soviet Union kept tight control on society. In 1985, Communist Party leaders named Mikhail Gorbachev as the leader of the Soviet Union. He was the youngest Soviet leader since Joseph Stalin. He was expected to make minor reforms. Instead, he launched a revolution.

Gorbachev felt that Soviet society could not improve without the free flow of ideas and information. He started a policy called glasnost, or openness. He opened churches and released dissenters from prison. He allowed books to be published that in the past had been banned. Then he began a new policy called perestroika, or restructuring. It aimed at making the Soviet economy perform better by lifting the tight control on all managers and workers. In 1987, he opened up the political system by allowing the Soviet people to elect representatives to a legislature. Finally, Gorbachev changed Soviet foreign policy. He moved to end the arms race.

People from many different ethnic groups in the Soviet Union began calling for the right to have their own nation. In 1990, Lithuania declared itself independent. Gorbachev sent troops, and they fired on a civilian crowd, killing a few people. This action and lack of reform cost Gorbachev support among the Soviet people.

Many people began to support Boris Yeltsin. Old-time communists, at the same time, were becoming angrier at Gorbachev's changes. They thought the changes made the Soviet Union weaker. In August 1991, they tried to take control of the government. Thousands rallied in the streets. When the army refused to back the coup leaders, they gave up.

To strike back the parliament voted to ban the party from any political activity. Meanwhile, more and more republics in the Soviet Union declared their independence. By the end of 1991, Gorbachev announced that the Soviet Union would no longer exist. Russia and the other 14 republics were each becoming independent states.

Gorbachev lost all power, and Yeltsin became president of Russia. He faced many problems. Efforts to move the Russian economy toward capitalism caused suffering. In addition, rebels in the small republic of Chechnya declared their independence from Russia. Yeltsin refused to allow it. He sent thousands of troops, who were caught in a bloody war for two years. In 2000, Vladimir Putin was elected president of Russia and dealt forcefully with the rebellion in Chechnya, but the fighting dragged on. Putin also dealt with economic, political, and social problems in Russia.

Changes in Central and Eastern Europe

**Key Idea** Soviet Reforms of the late 1980s brought big changes to Central and Eastern Europe.

Gorbachev urged leaders in Central and Eastern Europe to change their policies. They resisted, but the people of their countries wanted reform. Protest movements began to build. In Poland, many years of economic problems led the government to lift a ban on a workers' movement called Solidarity. Facing growing unrest, the government was forced to allow elections. The Polish people voted overwhelmingly against the communists and for Solidarity. However, the Polish people became frustrated with how long and painful the process was to achieve democracy and capitalism. In elections in 1995, they voted the former leader of
Solidarity out as president of Poland and elected Aleksander Kwasniewski in his place. In Hungary, reformers took over the communist party. Then it voted itself out of existence.

Change soon came to East Germany. Its leaders resisted at first. Then thousands of people across the country demanded free elections. Soon the Berlin Wall, which divided East and West Berlin, was down. By the end of 1989, the communist party was out of power. The next year the two parts of Germany, East and West, were united once again. The new nation had many problems, though. It had to fix the problems in the old East German economy.

In Czechoslovakia, similar calls for reform took place. When the government cracked down on protesters, thousands of Czechs poured into the streets. One day hundreds of thousands of people gathered to protest in the nation’s capital. The communists agreed to give up power. Democracy led to a breakup. In 1993, the country split into two separate nations: the Czech Republic and Slovakia.

In Romania, a tough dictator used the army to shoot at protestors. The incident enraged Romanians. Massive protests forced him out. He was captured and executed in 1989. General elections followed.

Yugoslavia was made up of many different ethnic groups, and in the early 1990s they began fighting. When Serbia tried to control the government, two other areas declared independence. Slovenia beat back a Serbian invasion, but Serbia and Croatia fought a bloody civil war. In 1992, Bosnia-Herzegovina also declared independence. Serbs who lived in that region opposed the move. Using aid from Serbia, they fought a brutal civil war with Muslims, the largest group in Bosnia. The United Nations was able to stop the fighting, but peace remained uncertain. The change to democracy and capitalism in Central and Eastern Europe was not smooth.

\section*{China: Reform and Reaction}

\textbf{KEY IDEA} China’s government has experimented with capitalism but has rejected calls for democracy.

Mao Zedong had tried to build a China on the ideas of equality, revolutionary spirit, and hard work. But his policies kept the economy from growing very quickly. Other leaders tried to modernize the economy. This caused Mao to launch the Cultural Revolution of the 1960s. The result was chaos, and it was followed by a period of more moderate government action.

During this time, China had little role in world affairs. Zhou Enlai, another Chinese leader, worried about this. He worked with U.S. President Richard Nixon to improve U.S.–Chinese relations.

After Mao and Zhou died in 1976, moderates took control of the government. The chief leader was Deng Xiaoping. He tried to modernize the economy. He ended farming communes and allowed farmers more freedom. He made similar changes to industry. Suddenly, people had more income. They began to purchase appliances and other goods that had been scarce before.

Deng’s new plan caused problems. The gap between rich and poor grew wider, which caused unrest. Western political ideas entered the country. In 1989, thousands of Chinese students gathered in a public square in the capital of Beijing. They called for democracy and freedom. Deng responded by sending army troops and tanks to put down the rally. Hundreds were killed and thousands wounded. China has continued to stamp out protest to this day. Deng died in 1997, and was replaced as president by Jiang Zemin. Eventually Jiang retired and was replaced by Hu Jintao.

Another major issue for China was the status of Hong Kong. The island became part of China again in 1997 when the British gave it back after 155 years of colonial rule. China promised to respect Hong Kong’s freedom for 50 years, but many worried.

\section*{Review}

1. \textbf{Determining Main Ideas} In what ways do Brazil, Mexico, and Argentina show how difficult it is to establish democracy?

2. \textbf{Identifying Problems and Solutions} What problems in establishing democracy occurred in Nigeria and South Africa?

3. \textbf{Analyzing Causes and Recognizing Effects} Why did the Soviet Union break apart?

4. \textbf{Drawing Conclusions} What path did China take, and what difficulties did it meet?
CHAPTER IN BRIEF  Global Interdependence, 1960–Present

Summary

CHAPTER OVERVIEW New technologies have brought people around the world closer to one another and improved their lives. The world's economies have also grown closer to one another. Nations around the world have worked together to try to bring peace and end terrorism. Because of technology, the world's cultures have more influence on one another now.

The Impact of Science and Technology

KEY IDEA Advances in technology after 1945 led to increased global interaction and improved quality of life.

From the 1950s to the 1970s, the United States and Soviet Union took their Cold War rivalry to space. This space race also led to more global cooperation. In 1975, U.S. and Soviet spacecraft docked, or joined together, in space. Later, American and Soviet space missions included scientists from other countries. In the late 1990s, the United States, Russia, and 14 other nations worked together to build the International Space Station (ISS).

Some space missions did not include human crew members. Unmanned flights sent back pictures and information about other planets. In 1990, the United States and European countries sent the Hubble Space Telescope into orbit around the earth. This satellite continues to send back stunning images of objects in space.

Another advance in technology has been the computer. Computers have shrunk in size and grown in power since they were first invented. Consumer goods such as microwave ovens, telephones, and cars often include computer chips to keep them running. Millions of people around the world use personal computers at work or at home. Many of these people are connected through the Internet, a worldwide network of computers. The Internet allows people to access information or communicate with one another.

New technology has changed medicine as well. Surgery using lasers allows doctors to fix problems in the eye or the brain. New methods for making images of the body help doctors locate problems. Research into genes has helped unlock the secrets of some diseases.

In the 1960s, agricultural scientists started the green revolution, an attempt to increase food production worldwide. This involved the use of fertilizers, pesticides, and high-yield, disease-resistant strains of crops. The green revolution did increase crop yields. However, it had its negative side, too. Fertilizers and pesticides can pollute the environment.

Advances in genetics research seem to be helping to fulfill some of the goals of the green revolution. Resistance to pests and tolerance to poor soil are bred into plant strains, reducing the need for pesticides and fertilizers. This holds great promise for increasing food production in a world with an expanding population.

Global Economic Development

KEY IDEA The economies of nations are so tightly linked that the actions of one nation affects others.

Technology has also changed the world's economies. In the 1950s, scientists found a new way to make plastics, which came to be widely used. In recent years, industries have begun using robots to make products. These changes have required workers to have more and different skills than before. The industrialized nations changed the focus of their economies. They came to have more jobs in service and information industries. Manufacturing jobs were more often found in the emerging nations where labor costs less.

A global economy linking the economies of different nations developed in the 1980s. In recent years, this process of globalization has speeded up. Telephone and computer links connect banks and other financial companies around the world. Multinational corporations have offices and factories in many countries. Their decisions affect workers all over the world.

An important aspect of globalization is free trade—no barriers to block goods from one country from entering another country. Many steps have been taken to put free trade in practice. In 1951, some nations in Europe joined together to create free trade among their people. That group, now called the European Union (EU), has grown to...
become a powerful trading block. To compete, the United States, Canada, and Mexico agreed to the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) in 1994. Organizations in Asia, Africa, Latin America, and the South Pacific have also created regional trade policies.

In recent years, there has been considerable disagreement on the impact of economic globalization. Supporters suggest that open, competitive markets and the free flow of goods, services, technology, and investments benefit all nations. Opponents charge that globalization has been a disaster for the poorest countries. Many, they suggest, are worse off today than they were in the past.

The development of the global economy has had a major impact on the use of energy and other resources. Manufacturing and trade both use huge amounts of energy. Oil has been a major source of this energy. Whenever the flow of oil has been threatened, the world's economies have suffered severe shocks.

Growth has also caused problems for the environment. Burning coal and oil has polluted the air. It has caused acid rain and brought about a general rising of temperatures on Earth. Release of some chemicals into the air has weakened the earth's ozone layer. This layer of air blocks out dangerous rays from the sun.

Many scientists understand the need to continue to let economies grow. They urge, though, that this growth take place without using up the world's resources too quickly. This movement centers on an idea called "sustainable growth."

Global Security Issues

KEY IDEA Since 1945, nations have used collective security efforts to solve problems.

After World War II, the Cold War created new tensions among the world's nations. This uneasy situation threatened world security. So, nations began to work together to find peaceful solutions.

The United Nations (UN) was formed at the end of World War II to promote world peace. The UN provides a place for countries—or groups within countries—to speak their views. When groups at war request it, the UN can send troops as a peacekeeping force. These soldiers—who come from member nations—help stop violence from breaking out. As of 2002, the UN had 40,000 soldiers and police in 13 peacekeeping forces around the world.

Another approach to greater peace and security has been the attempt to limit weapons of mass destruction. These include nuclear missiles, chemical weapons, and biological weapons. In 1968, many nations signed a treaty agreeing not to develop nuclear weapons. In the 1990s, the United States and Russia have made agreements to destroy many of their nuclear weapons. In another treaty, many nations promised not to develop chemical or biological weapons. Threats to safety remain, however. Some nations have tried to develop and use these weapons. As a result, weapons of mass destruction continue to be a global security problem.

Another source of world conflict has been the struggle between different ethnic and religious groups. Violence has killed thousands. One effort to solve this problem has been the movement for human rights. In 1948, the UN approved the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. This statement lists specific rights that all people should have. Later, the Helsinki Accords, signed by many nations in 1975, included such rights as the freedom to exchange information. Many groups throughout the world keep a close eye on how well nations do in providing these rights for their people.

Recently, the enjoyment of a decent standard of health has become recognized as a basic human right. However, for many people across the world, poor health is still the norm. Perhaps the greatest global challenge to the attainment of good health is AIDS, or acquired immune deficiency syndrome. AIDS is a worldwide problem. However, Sub-Saharan Africa has suffered most from the epidemic. The disease has had devastating impact on the populations and economies of many countries in this region.

In recent years, millions of people have moved from one country to another. Some seek better jobs. Others hope to escape harsh treatment at home. Immigrants can bring many benefits to their new home. While people have a right to leave, every country does not have to accept them. Sometimes these people have to live in crowded refugee camps. They suffer hunger and disease and can cause political problems for the country where they are held.

Terrorism Case Study: September 11, 2001

KEY IDEA Terrorism threatens the safety of people around the world.

Terrorism is the use of violence against people or property to force changes in societies or
governments. People resort to terrorism to gain independence, to rid their country of foreigners, or to change their society. Recently, another motive for terrorism has emerged. Some people, driven by radical religious and cultural ideals, have tried to destroy what they consider the forces of evil.

The most common weapons used by terrorists are bombs and bullets. Terrorist attacks involving these weapons usually target crowded places. Some terrorist groups have used biological and chemical weapons. Others have employed cyberterrorism—attacks on information systems such as computer networks. Governments take various actions to combat terrorism. These include conducting military operations against terrorist training camps, cutting off terrorists' sources of funds, and tightening security measures at vulnerable targets.

Few areas of the world have escaped incidents of terrorism. In the Middle East, Palestinians and Israelis have argued for decades about land ownership. This argument has resulted in many terrorist acts. In Northern Ireland, the Irish Republican Army (IRA) has done terrorist acts for many years. The IRA wants the British to give up control over Northern Ireland. Terrorist groups have also been active in Asia, Africa, and Latin America.

The United States also has been the target of international terrorism. On the morning of September 11, 2001, 19 Arab terrorists hijacked four airliners, crashing them into the World Trade Center in New York City and the Pentagon in Washington, D.C. The United States responded by launching a military attack on Afghanistan, where the hijackers were trained. In addition, the United States Congress passed the USA Patriot Act, which gave the government several powers to help chase and capture of terrorists. The Congress also created the Department of Homeland Security to organize the fight against terrorism in the United States.

**Cultures Blend in a Global Age**

**KEY IDEA** Technology has increased contact among the world's people, changing their cultures.

Changes in technology have made it possible for people to share their cultures with one another. Television is one of the main forces in this trend. Movies and radio also have had an impact in bringing the world's people together.

As a result of these mass media, the world's popular culture now includes elements from many different cultures. Popular culture includes music, sports, clothing styles, food, and hobbies. American television shows have become popular around the world. So, too, have athletes from many countries. Broadcasts of the sports events can reach millions of people in all corners of the globe.

When elements of different cultures are combined, it is called cultural blending. In recent times, ideas from the United States and Europe have been a major force in this blending. One reason is that Western nations dominate the mass media. This trend also results from the influence that the West has had in recent centuries. As a result, English is now a major world language. About 500 million people speak English as their first or second language. More people speak Mandarin Chinese. However, English speakers are more widely spread throughout the world. Western clothes can be seen throughout the world. Western foods—such as hamburgers and soft drinks—are enjoyed everywhere. Some ideas have also traveled from East to West.

Some see this growing international culture as a problem. They worry that their own culture will be drowned in a sea of influences from other lands. Some countries limit the amount of broadcast time given to foreign television programs. Others use censorship to keep unwanted ideas from entering the land. In some areas, people have revived old traditions in order to keep them alive.

Despite these difficulties, it is clear that the people of the world are more dependent on one another. All through human history, people have faced many challenges to their survival. In the 21st century, those challenges will be faced by different people around the world. They are people who are in increasing contact with others. They are people with a greater stake in living in harmony.

**Review**

1. **Recognizing Effects** How have computers affected the way people gather information and communicate with one another?
2. **Drawing Conclusions** How have economies changed since World War II?
3. **Identifying Problems** What problems come with economic growth?
4. **Summarizing** What efforts have countries made to increase peace and security in the world?
5. **Clarifying** Give two examples of cultural blending.