A.P. WORLD HISTORY SUMMER PROJECT 2026 - 2027 - MR. SPARKS

Read all below before you do anything:

As you have seen in the course description, we will be studying World History from approximately 1200 C.E. until the present. The workload for this course is not going to be easy. However, it is a great opportunity to earn credits and free yourself from a 3-credit course in your first or second year of college. Moreover, you will become accustomed to the conduct and workload of a typical university-level humanities course, and the responsibility it places upon the individual. I have every confidence that you will do well.

All information that you need to complete the project is on this page. Do not contact me during summer to ask for information that is found on this page. Read the directions.

Follow these directions carefully:

Use a solid notebook (you may need more than one), **NOT** a loose-leaf binder or spiral notebook. Your grade will be based upon: neatness, thoroughness, and attention to detail.

This project is worth 100 points. I advise you to take it seriously. Work a bit at a time and do not put it off until the last minute. The assignment must be complete but concise; and hand written. If you take shortcuts, I will know…and I will grade accordingly. Your score on the summer project will be divided by four, and the points distributed throughout all four academic quarters in blocks of 25 possible points per quarter.

CHAPTER OUTLINES FOR SUMMER PROJECT ARE INCLUDED BELOW…read on…

THE ASSIGNMENT (Due the first day of school):

1) Below you will find 32 outlines, one for each chapter. Your assignment is to outline the outlines, in your notebook, by hand, keeping the original format structure.

Meaning, read each outline carefully, and take notes on it…outline it.

Each chapter outline should be about one and a half, but no longer than two pages hand written.

While working, be mindful of these themes, as *they are the basis of the AP Exam and the course*:

"THE 5 THEMES"

Theme 1: Interaction Between Humans and the Environment

Theme 2: Development and Interaction of Cultures

Theme 3: State (Nation) -Building, Expansion, and Conflict

Theme 4: Creation, Expansion, and Interaction of Economic Systems

Theme 5: Development and Transformation of Social Structures

Go to the AP World History website (link is below) for further explanation that will help you to understand the "5 Themes". Do this, or you will not do well.

2) At the end of each outline, label each theme as above, and list a few (at least 3) examples from the outline that fit the particular theme. The theme title with bullet points under it is fine, but be sure to list concepts, not single words.

3) For more information/explanation about the "5 themes", the course, and the exam, visit
https://apstudents.collegeboard.org/courses/ap-world-history-modern This is the page for the AP World History Exam.

This site has tons of information about the course and the exam. Take advantage of it.

Be advised that it is your responsibility to become familiar with the navigation and content of the AP World History College Board webpage and the format of the exam. Past exams and practice exams are available, plus other resources.

The summer project is due on the first day of school for the 2026-2027 academic year.

IMPORTANT NOTE:

YOU CANNOT REMAIN IN THE A.P. CLASS WITHOUT DOING THE SUMMER PROJECT.

IF YOU DO NOT INTEND TO DO THE PROJECT COMPLETE AND ON TIME, DROP THE CLASS.

Now go back and read the directions a few more times.

THE OUTLINES FOR THE SUMMER PROJECT:

AP WORLD HISTORY CHAPTER 1

I. Before Civilization

A. Food Gathering and Stone Tools

1. The period known as the Stone Age lasted from 2 million years ago to 4 thousand years ago. It is subdivided into the Paleolithic (Old Stone Age—to 10,000 years ago) and the Neolithic (New Stone Age).

2. The diet of Stone Age people probably consisted more of foraged vegetable foods than of meat. Human use of fire can be traced back to 1 to 1.5 million years ago, but conclusive evidence of cooking (in the form of clay pots) can only be found as far back as 12,500 years ago.

B. The Agricultural Revolutions

1. Agricultural revolutions—the domestication of plants and animals—were a series of changes in food production that occurred independently in various parts of the world. Changes in global climate were probably the cause of these transformations.

2. The first stage of the long process of domestication of plants was semi-cultivation, in which people would scatter the seeds of desirable food-producing plants in places where they would be likely to grow. The next stage was the use of fire to clear fields and specialized tools to plant and harvest grain.

3. The transition to agriculture took place first and is best documented in the Middle East, but the same sort of transition took place independently in other parts of the world, including the eastern Sahara, the Nile Valley, Greece, and Central Europe. Early farmers practiced swidden agriculture, changing fields periodically as the fertility of the soil became depleted.

4. The environments in which agriculture developed dictated the choice of crops. Wheat and barley were suited to the Mediterranean area; sorghum, millet, and teff to sub-Saharan Africa; yams to Equatorial West Africa; rice to eastern and southern Asia, and maize, potatoes, quinoa, and manioc to various parts of the Americas.

5. Domestication of animals proceeded at the same time as domestication of plants. Human hunters first domesticated dogs; sheep and goats were later domesticated for their meat, milk, and wool.

6. As with plants, domestication of animals occurred independently in various parts of the world, and the animals domesticated were those that suited the local environment. In most parts of the world the domestication of plants went along with the domestication of animals.

7. The agricultural revolutions brought about a significant increase in the world's human population—from 10 million in 5000 B.C.E. to between 50 and 100 million in 1000 B.C.E.

II. Mesopotamia

A. Settled Agriculture in an Unstable Landscape

1. Mesopotamia is the alluvial plain area alongside and between the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers. The area is a difficult environment for agriculture because there is little rainfall, the rivers flood at the wrong time for grain agriculture, and the rivers change course unpredictably.

2. Mesopotamia does have a warm climate and good soil. By 4000 B.C.E. farmers were using cattle-pulled plows and a sort of planter to cultivate barley. Just after 3000 B.C.E. they began constructing irrigation canals to bring water to fields farther away from the rivers.

3. The earliest people of Mesopotamia and the initial creators of Mesopotamian culture were the Sumerians, who were present at least as early as 5000 B.C.E. By 2000 B.C.E. the Sumerians were supplanted by Semitic-speaking peoples who dominated and intermarried with the Sumerians but preserved many elements of Sumerian culture.

B. Cities, Kings, and Trade

1. Early Mesopotamian society was a society of villages and cities linked together in a system of mutual interdependence. Cities depended on villages to produce surplus food to feed the nonproducing urban elite and craftsmen. In return, the cities provided the villages with military protection, markets, and specialist-produced goods.

2. Together, a city and its agricultural hinterland formed what we call a city-state. The Mesopotamian city-states sometimes fought with each other over resources like water and land; at other times, city-states cooperated with each other in sharing resources. City-states also traded with one another.

3. City-states could mobilize human resources to open new agricultural land and to build and maintain irrigation systems. Construction of irrigation systems required the organization of large numbers of people for labor.

4. Secular leadership developed in the third millennium B.C.E. when “big men” (lugal), who may have originally been leaders of armies, emerged as secular leaders. The lugal ruled from their palaces and tended to take over religious control of institutions. The Epic of Gilgamesh provides an example of the exercise of secular power.

5. Eventually some of the city-states became powerful enough to absorb others and thus create larger territorial states. Two examples of this development are the Akkadian state, founded by Sargon of Akkad around 2350 B.C.E. and the Third Dynasty of Ur (2112–2004 B.C.E.)

6. A third territorial state was established by Hammurabi and is known to historians as the “Old Babylonian” state. Hammurabi is also known for the Law Code associated with his name, which provides us with a source of information about Old Babylonian law, punishments, and society.

7. The states of Mesopotamia needed resources and obtained them not only by territorial expansion, but also through a flourishing long-distance trade. Merchants were originally employed by temples or palaces; later, in the second millennium B.C.E., private merchants emerged. Trade was carried out through barter.

C. Mesopotamian Society

1. Mesopotamia had a stratified society in which kings and priests controlled much of the wealth. The three classes of Mesopotamian society were: (1) the free landowning class; (2) dependent farmers and artisans; and (3) slaves. Slavery was not a fundamental part of the economy, and most slaves were prisoners of war.

2. Some scholars believe that the development of agriculture brought about a decline in the status of women as men did the value-producing work of plowing and irrigation. Women had no political role, but they could own property, control their dowry, and engage in trade. The rise of an urban merchant class in the second millennium B.C.E. appears to have been accompanied by greater emphasis on male privilege and an attendant decline in women’s status.

D. Gods, Priests, and Temples

1. The religion of Mesopotamia was an amalgam of Sumerian and later Semitic beliefs and deities. Mesopotamian deities were anthropomorphic.

2. Humans were regarded as servants of the gods. In temples, a complex, specialized hereditary priesthood served the gods as a servant serves a master. The temples themselves were walled compounds containing religions and functional buildings. The most visible part of the temple compound was the ziggurat.

3. We have little knowledge of the beliefs and religious practices of common people. Evidence indicates a popular belief in magic and in the use of magic to influence the gods.

E. Technology and Science

1. Technology is defined as "any specialized knowledge that is used to transform the natural environment and human society." Thus defined, the concept of technology includes not only things like irrigation systems, but also nonmaterial specialized knowledge such as religious lore and ceremony and writing systems.

2. The Mesopotamian writing system (cuneiform) evolved from the use of pictures to represent the sounds of words or parts of words. The writing system was complex, required the use of hundreds of signs, and was a monopoly of the scribes.

3. Cuneiform was developed to write Sumerian, but was later used to write Akkadian and other Semitic and non-Semitic languages. Cuneiform was used to write economic, political, legal, literary, religious, and scientific texts.

III. Egypt

A. The Land of Egypt: "Gift of the Nile"

1. The land of Egypt is defined by the Nile River, the narrow green strip of arable land on either side of its banks, and the fertile Nile delta area. The rest of the country is barren desert, the unfriendly "Red Land" that contrasted with the "Black Land," which was home to the vast majority of the Egyptian population.

2. Egypt was traditionally divided in to two areas: Upper Egypt, along the southern part of the Nile as far south as the First Cataract, and Lower Egypt, the northern delta area. The climate was good for agriculture, but with little or no rainfall, farmers had to depend on the river for irrigation.

3. The Nile floods regularly and at the right time of year, leaving a rich and easily worked deposit of silt. Egyptian agriculture depended upon the floods, and crops could be adversely affected if the floods were too high or not high enough. Generally speaking, however, the floods were regular, and this inspired the Egyptians to view the universe as a regular and orderly place.

4. Egypt's other natural resources included reeds (such as papyrus f or writing), wild animals, birds and fish, plentiful building stone and clay, and access to copper and turquoise from the desert and gold from Nubia.

B. Divine Kingship

1. Egypt's political organization evolved from a pattern of small states ruled by local kings to the emergence of a large, unified Egyptian state around 3100 B.C.E. Historians organize Egyptian history into a series of thirty dynasties falling into three longer periods: the Old, Middle, and New Kingdoms. These three periods were divided by periods of political fragmentation and chaos.

2. Kings known as pharaohs dominated the Egyptian state. The pharaohs were regarded as gods come to earth to ensure the welfare and prosperity of the people. The death of a pharaoh was thought to be the beginning of his journey back to the land of the gods. Funeral rites and proper preservation of the body were therefore of tremendous importance.

3. Early pharaohs were buried in flat-topped rectangular tombs. Stepped pyramid tombs appeared about 2630 B.C.E. and smooth-sided pyramids a bit later.

4. The great pyramid tombs at Giza were constructed between 2550 and 2490 B.C.E. The great pyramids were constructed with stone tools and simple lever, pulley, and roller technology and required substantial inputs of resources and labor.

C. Administration and Communication

1. Egypt was governed by a central administration in the capital city through a system of provincial and village bureaucracies. Bureaucrats at the center kept track of land, labor, taxes, and people; collected resources from throughout the country; and used them to support the central government institutions (the palace, the bureaucracy, and the army) and to maintain temples and construct monuments.

2. The ancient Egyptians developed two writing systems: hieroglyphics and a cursive script. Egyptians wrote on papyrus and used writing for religious and secular literature as well as for record keeping.

3. Tensions between central and local government are a constant feature of Egyptian political history. At times when the central power was predominant, provincial officials were appointed and promoted by the central government on the basis of merit. When central power was weak, provincial officials tended to become autonomous, made their positions hereditary, and had themselves buried in their own districts rather than near the tombs of their kings.

4. Egypt was more rural than Mesopotamia. It did have cities, but since they have not been excavated, we know little about urban life in Egypt.

5. Egypt regarded all foreigners as enemies, but its desert nomad neighbors posed no serious military threat. Egypt was generally more interested in acquiring resources than in acquiring territory; resources could often be acquired through trade.

6. Egypt traded directly with the Levant and Nubia and indirectly with the land of Punt (probably part of modern Somalia). Items of trade included exports of papyrus, grain, and gold and imports of incense, Nubian gold, Lebanese cedar, and tropical African ivory, ebony, and animals.

D. The People of Egypt

1. Ancient Egypt had a population of about 1 to 1.5 million physically heterogeneous people, some dark-skinned, and some lighter-skinned. The people were divided into several social strata: (1) the king and high-ranking officials; (2) lower-level officials, local leaders and priests, professionals, artisans, well-off farmers; and (3) peasants. The majority of the population was peasants.

2. Peasants lived in villages, cultivated the soil, and were responsible for paying taxes and providing labor service.

3. Paintings indicate that women were subordinate to men and engaged in domestic activities. Egyptian women did have the right to hold, inherit, and will property and retained rights over their own dowry after divorce. They probably had more rights than Mesopotamian women.

E. Belief and Knowledge

1. Egyptian religious beliefs were based on a cyclical view of nature. Two of the most significant gods, the sun-god Re and Osiris, god of the Underworld, who was killed, dismembered, and then restored to life, represented renewal and life after death.

2. The kings who were identified with Re and with Horus, the son of Osiris, served as chief priests. The supreme god of the Egyptian pantheon was generally the god of the city that was serving as the capital.

3. The Egyptians spent a large amount of their wealth in constructing fabulous temples. Temple activities included regular offerings to the gods and great festivals.

4. We know little about popular religious beliefs. What we do know indicates that the Egyptians generally believed in magic and in an afterlife. Concern with the afterlife inspired Egyptians to mummify the bodies of the dead before entombing them.

5. Tombs were usually built at the edge of the desert to avoid wasting arable land. Tombs contain pictures and samples of food and other necessities and thus are a valuable source of information about daily life in Egypt. The amount and quality of tomb goods and the form of the tombs themselves reflect the social status of the deceased.

6. The ancient Egyptians acquired much advanced knowledge and technology. Knowledge of anatomy was gained in the process of mummification. Other areas of scientific and technological advance included mathematics, astronomy, calendar making, irrigation, engineering and architecture, and transportation technology.

IV. The Indus Valley Civilization

A. Natural Environment

1. The central part of the Indus Valley area is the Sind region of modern Pakistan. Adjacent related areas included the Hakra River (now dried up), the Punjab, and the Indus delta region.

2. The Indus carries a lot of silt and floods regularly twice a year. Access to river water for irrigation allowed farmers in the Indus Valley and related areas to produce two crops a year despite the region's sparse rainfall.

B. Material Culture

1. The Indus Valley civilization flourished from 2600 to 1900 B.C.E. Knowledge of the civilization is gained from archaeological excavation of the remains of Indus Valley settlements. The two largest and best-known sites are those at Harappa and Mohenjo-daro.

2. We know little of the identity, origins, or fate of the people of the Indus Valley, nor do we know what historical circumstances led to the development of a sophisticated urban civilization. Part of the problem is that, although they had a writing system, modern scholars are unable to decipher it.

3. The two major urban centers of the Indus Valley were Harappa (3½ miles in circumference, population about 35,000) and Mohenjo-daro (several times larger). Both settlements are surrounded by brick walls, have streets laid out in a grid pattern, and are supplied with covered drainage systems to carry away waste. There are remains of something like a citadel that may have been a center of authority, structures that may have been storehouses for grain, and barracks that may have been for artisans.

4. Both urban centers may have controlled the surrounding farmland. Harappa was located on the frontier between agricultural land and pastoral economies and may have been a nexus of trade in copper, tin, and precious stones from the northwest.

5. The Indus Valley civilization is characterized by a high degree of standardization in city planning, architecture, and even the size of the bricks. Some scholars have sought to explain this uniformity by hypothesizing the existence of an authoritarian central government, while others argue that it may have been a result of extensive trade within the region.

6. The people of the Indus Valley had better access to metal than did the Egyptians and the Mesopotamians. Thus the Indus Valley artisans used metal to create utilitarian goods as well as luxury items.

7. Technological achievements of the Indus Valley civilization included extensive irrigation systems, the potter's wheel, kiln-baked bricks, a sophisticated bronze metallurgy, and a system of writing. The people of the Indus Valley carried out an extensive trade with the northwestern mountain areas, Iran and Afghanistan, and even Mesopotamia.

C. Transformation of the Indus Valley Civilization

1. Scholars formerly believed that the Indus Valley cities were abandoned around 1900 B.C.E. because of an invasion. Further evidence has convinced researchers that the decline of the Indus Valley civilizations was due to a breakdown caused by natural disasters and ecological change.

2. Ecological changes that probably led to a decline in agricultural production and the eventual collapse of the Indus Valley civilizations include the drying up of the Hakra River, salinization, and erosion. When urban centers collapsed, so did the way of life of the elite, but the peasants probably adapted and survived.

AP WORLD HISTORY CHAPTER 2

Outline Chapter 2: The Mediterranean and Middle East, 2000–500 B.C.E.

I. The Cosmopolitan Middle East, 1700–1100 B. C. E.

A. Western Asia

1. In the southern portion of western Asia, the Kassites ruled Babylonia during this period. Babylonia did not pursue territorial conquest. In the north, the Assyrians had their origins in the northern Tigris area. They were involved in trade in tin and silver.

2. The Hittites had their capital in Anatolia; used horse-drawn chariots; and had access to important copper, silver, and iron deposits.

3. During the second millennium B.C.E., Mesopotamian political and cultural concepts spread across much of western Asia.

B. New Kingdom Egypt

1. The New Kingdom period was preceded by the decline of the Middle Kingdom and by the subsequent period of rule by the non-Egyptian Hyksos. A native Egyptian dynasty overthrew the Hyksos to begin the New Kingdom period. This period was characterized by aggressive expansion into Syria-Palestine and into Nubia.

2. Innovations during the New Kingdom period include Queen Hatsheput's attempt to open direct trade with Punt and Akhenaten's construction of a new capital at Amarna. Akhenaten also made Aten the supreme deity of Egypt and carried out a controversial reform program.

3. When the Ramessides seized power, they renewed the policy of conquest and expansion neglected by Akhenaten. Their greatest king, Ramesses II (r. 1290–1224 B.C.E.), ruled for sixty-six years.

C. Commerce and Communication

1. The Syria-Palestine area was an important crossroads for the trade in metals. For this reason, the Egyptians and the Hittites fought battles and negotiated territorial agreements concerning control over Syria-Palestine.

2. Access to metals was vital to all bronze-age states, but metals, including copper and tin for bronze, often had to be obtained from faraway places. The demand for metals spurred the development of trade in copper from Anatolia and Cyprus, tin from Afghanistan and Cornwall, silver from Anatolia, and gold from Nubia.

3. New modes of transportation introduced during this period included horses, chariots, and camels.

II. The Aegean World, 2000–1100 B. C. E.

A. Minoan Crete

1. Minoan civilization is known through legendary accounts of King Minos, the labyrinth beneath his palace, and the Minotaur. Archaeological evidence for Minoan civilization includes excavated palace sites at Cnossus, Phaistos, and Mallia, and widely distributed remains of Cretan pottery and other artifacts. The evidence suggests that Minoan civilization was influenced by the civilizations of Egypt, Syria, and Mesopotamia.

2. Minoan civilization was destroyed, probably by Mycenaean Greeks, about 1450 B.C.E.

B. Mycenaean Greece

1. The Mycenaean Greek people are thought to be descended from a combination of an indigenous population and Indo-European invaders. The civilization developed suddenly around 1600 B.C.E.

2. Although it was first known only through the accounts of The Iliad and The Odyssey, the existence of Mycenaean civilization was proved by the archeological expedition of Heinrich Schliemann in 1876 at Mycenae in southern Greece. Schliemann and other archeologists discovered shaft graves, gold and silver jewelry, a palace complex, and other artifacts.

3. Later Greek legend explains the development of Mycenaean civilization as being the result of immigration from Phoenicia or the liberation of the Greeks from Minoan tyranny. There is no archeological evidence to back up these legendary accounts. The evidence does indicate, however, that Mycenaean civilization was influenced by Minoan civilization and that the Mycenaeans rose to power on profits from trade and piracy.

4. Mycenaean sites share certain common characteristics, including hilltop citadels with thick fortification walls that enclosed palaces and administrative buildings. Also typical of Mycenaean civilization were luxury-filled tombs for departed rulers, large houses for the aristocracy, and the use of Linear B writing. Linear B was an early form of Greek that used symbols to represent syllables.

5. The Mycenaean state controlled the economy, organizing grain agriculture and wool production. However, we know little about the Mycenaean political system, religion, society, or particular historical events. The uniformity that is characteristic of the Mycenaean territory may have been due to some sort of political unity, or it may have been the result of extensive contact and trade.

6. Evidence for long-distance contact and trade includes wall paintings of ships in Egypt and Thera and excavated remains of the ships themselves. Other evidence includes the widespread dispersal of Cretan and Mycenaean pottery and other goods around the Aegean world and in the Middle East. The evidence indicates that Cretan traders came first, and were later joined and then replaced by Mycenaeans.

7. In this trade, Crete and Greece exported wine and olive oil, weapons, craft goods, slaves, and mercenaries. They imported amber, ivory, grain, and metals (gold, copper, and tin). The fine line between trade and piracy can be seen in the strained relations between the Mycenaeans and the Hittites and in the siege of Troy.

C. The Fall of Late Bronze Age Civilizations

1. Old centers of civilization in the Middle East were destroyed.

2. Unknown invaders destroyed the Hittite kingdom. Syria likewise fell to invasions.

3. The Egyptians battled invasions from the sea in the north and lost control of Nubia in the south.

4. Mycenaean civilization fell due to a combination of internal decline and external aggression. Annihilation of the trading routes of the eastern Mediterranean undermined the position of the Mycenaean elite and probably led to internal unrest and collapse.

5. The collapse of Mycenaean civilization demonstrates the degree to which the civilizations of the Late Bronze Age were interdependent; their prosperity and their very existence relied on the trade networks that linked them and gave them access to natural resources, particularly metals. When this cosmopolitan world collapsed, the Mediterranean and the Middle East entered a “Dark Age”—a period of poverty, isolation, and loss of knowledge.

III. The Assyrian Empire, 911–612 B. C. E.

A. Background and Location

1. The Assyrian homeland was in northern Mesopotamia. It had more rain and a more temperate climate than Sumer and Akkad, but it was also more exposed to raiders.

2. Assyrian power revived in the ninth century B.C.E. and the Assyrians built an empire, expanding along trade routes westward toward the Mediterranean, north to modern Armenia, east to modern Iran, and south to Babylonia.

B. God and King

1. Assyrian kings were regarded as the center of the universe, chosen by the gods as their surrogates on earth. Kings had secular and religious duties.

2. The secular duties of kings included receiving information, hearing and deciding on complaints, and carrying out diplomacy and military leadership. The religious duties of kings included supervision of the state religion, performance of public and private rituals, and consulting and gaining the approval of the gods.

3. Assyrian kings were celebrated in propaganda that was designed to produce feelings of awe and fear in the hearts of their subjects. Such propaganda included the public display of royal inscriptions relating to conquests and punishments and artistic renderings of the kings as large, muscular, and fierce men.

C. Conquest and Control

1. At their peak, the Assyrian armies had half a million troops divided into functionally specialized units. The Assyrian troops used a variety of military technologies, including iron weapons, cavalry, couriers, signal fires, and spy networks.

2. Assyrian techniques of conquest included terror tactics and mass deportation of civilian populations. Mass deportation served a dual purpose: to destroy the morale of the enemy and to transfer needed laborers to the core area of the empire.

3. The Assyrians found it difficult to control their vast and diverse territory. Their level of control varied, being more effective at the core and less effective in the peripheral parts of the empire.

4. Within the empire, the duties of Assyrian officials were to collect tribute and taxes, maintain law and order, raise and provision troops, and construct and maintain public works. The central government included high-ranking officials and professionals.

5. The central government exploited the wealth and resources of the empire for the benefit of the center, but it also invested in provincial infrastructure and so was not entirely parasitic.

D. Assyrian Society and Culture

1. The Assyrian government did not distinguish between native Assyrians and immigrants. All were considered to have equal rights and responsibilities. The Assyrian economy was based on agriculture but also included artisans and merchants.

2. In the realm of knowledge and learning, the Assyrians both preserved the knowledge inherited from older Mesopotamian societies and made original contributions to mathematics and astronomy. The Assyrian Empire maintained libraries that were attached to temples in the cities, such as the Library of Ashurbanipal in Ninevah.

IV. Israel, 2000–500 B.C.E.

A. Background and Location

1. The Israelite people were nomadic herders and caravan drivers who developed a complex sedentary agricultural civilization. As they did so, their cult of a desert god evolved into an influential monotheistic religion.

2. Israel’s location makes it a crossroads for trade. However, the area has few natural resources.

B. Origins, Exodus, and Settlement

1. Sources for the early history of the Israelite people include the Hebrew Bible, which is based in part on oral traditions compiled in the fifth century B.C.E., and archeological excavations.

2. Biblical accounts of the origins of the Israelite people include the stories of Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob. These stories may be a compressed account of the experiences of many generations of nomads. The story of Cain and Abel and the stories of the destruction of Sodom and Gomorrah reflect the tensions between the nomadic Israelite people and settled agricultural people.

3. The Biblical account of the Egyptian captivity is not confirmed by Egyptian sources but may be linked to the rise and fall of the Hyksos rulers of Egypt. The period of Israelite slavery according to the Bible corresponds to the period of large-scale construction projects under Sethos I and Ramesses II, while the Biblical account of the exodus may reflect the memories of a migration from Egypt and nomadic life in the Sinai.

4. The cult of Yahweh with its exclusive devotion to one god developed during the period of nomadism in the Sinai.

5. The Biblical account of Israelite settlement in the land of Canaan says that Joshua led the Israelites into Canaan and destroyed Jericho and other Canaanite cities. The archeological evidence of what probably happened is that the nomadic Israelite tribes settled in the hills of Canaan, where they were joined by other groups and by refugees from a troubled Canaanite society.

C. Rise of the Monarchy

1. Wars with the Philistines brought about the need for a strong central government. Saul, the first king, established the Israelite monarchy. David, the second king, completed the transition to monarchy.

2. The Israelite monarchy reached the height of its power in the reign of King Solomon, who forged alliances and sponsored trade. Solomon also expanded the bureaucracy and the army, and built the first temple in Jerusalem. The temple priesthood sacrificed to Yahweh, received a portion of the agricultural tax, and became very wealthy.

3. The wealth and prestige of the temple priesthood was indicative of the increasing gap between the rural and urban, and the wealthy and the poor in Israeli society.

4 Israelite people lived in extended families and practiced arranged marriage. Monogamy was the norm. Men were allowed to have extramarital relations; women were not.

5. In early Israel, women enjoyed relative equality with their husbands in social life, but at the same time, they suffered certain legal disadvantages: women could not inherit property, nor could they initiate divorce. The main occupations of women were bearing and raising children, maintaining the household, and engaging in agriculture or herding. As society became more urbanized, some women began to work outside the home in a variety of occupations.

6. There are some records of women exercising political influence. Examples include the story of Deborah and references to “wise women.” However, the status of women declined during the period of monarchy.

D. Fragmentation and Dispersal

1. After Solomon, Israel divided into two kingdoms: Israel in the north (capital: Samaria), and Judah in the south (capital: Jerusalem). The two kingdoms were sometimes at peace with each other and sometimes fought.

2. There were some significant religious developments during the period of fragmentation. The concept of monotheism was sharpened, but at the same time, some Israelites were attracted to the worship of Canaanite gods.

3. Political developments during the period of fragmentation include the Assyrian destruction of the northern kingdom (Israel) in 721 B.C.E. and the fall of the southern kingdom (Judah) to the Babylonian monarch Nebuchadnezzar in 587 B.C.E. Nebuchadnezzar deported a large number of Jewish elites and craftspeople to Babylon. This was the beginning of the Jewish Diaspora.

4. During the Diaspora, the Jewish people developed institutions to preserve Jewish religion and culture. These developments continued even after some of the Babylonian Jews were permitted to return to Jerusalem. Developments of the Diaspora included a stronger commitment to monotheism, strict dietary rules, and veneration of the Sabbath.

V. Phoenicia and the Mediterranean, 1200–500 B.C.E.

A. The Phoenician City-States

1. The Phoenicians were the descendants of the ancient inhabitants of Syria, Lebanon, and Israel who were pushed into the strip of land between the mountains and the sea in modern Lebanon by about 1100 B.C.E. There, the Phoenicians

established a number of small city-states that were deeply involved in commerce. They also invented the first alphabetical writing system.

2. The major Phoenician city-states were Byblos, Berytus, Sidon, and Tyre.

B. Expansion into the Mediterranean

1 Phoenician expansion into the Mediterranean was carried out by Tyre, beginning in the ninth century B.C.E. Colonies were established first on Cyprus, then on the North African coast, the south and southeast Spanish coast, Sardinia, Sicily, and Malta.

2. Phoenician expansion into the Mediterranean was the work of a combination of state and private enterprise. Expansion was a response to the Assyrian invasions of Syria and Palestine, the shortage of agricultural land in Tyre, and opportunities for trade and access to resources.

C. Carthage's Commercial Empire

1. The city of Carthage was established on a narrow promontory near modern Tunis around 814 B.C.E. The walled city was governed by two judges selected from upper-class families and by a senate that was dominated by the leading merchant families.

2. The navy was the most important arm of Carthaginian power. Citizens served as rowers and navigators of the fast, maneuverable warships.

3. Carthaginian foreign policy and military activity were in the service of trade and were deployed in enforcing a commercial monopoly in the Mediterranean and developing new trading opportunities. Carthaginian merchants were active around the Mediterranean and traded with sub-Saharan Africa, along the Atlantic coasts of Spain and France, and with Cornwall.

D. War and Religion

1. The Carthaginians made no attempt to build a territorial empire; their empire was an empire of trade routes and ports. The Carthaginian military was subordinate to the civilian government and consisted of mercenary soldiers commanded by Carthaginian officers.

2. Carthaginian religion involved the worship of capricious gods that needed to be appeased by sacrifice, including the sacrifice of Carthaginian children. The Greeks and Romans thought that the Carthaginians were a hard, gloomy people who treated their subjects harshly.

VI. Failure and Transformation, 750–550 B.C.E.

A. Consequences of the Assyrian Conquest

1. The Assyrian conquest brought about the destruction of Israel, deportation of the Jewish population of Israel, and pressure on the kingdom of Judah.

2. The Assyrian conquest put pressure on the Phoenicians; Assyrian threats and Assyrian demands for tribute helped to spur the Phoenicians to establish colonies in the western Mediterranean.

3. The Assyrian conquest also resulted in the invasion and occupation of Egypt and in Assyrian control over Babylonia and western Iran.

4. As their empire grew, the resources of the Assyrians became overextended and they had difficulty ruling over a large, ethnically complex territory with subjects and neighbors who had come to hate Assyria.

5. The major sources of resistance to the Assyrian Empire were the Neo-Babylonian dynasty of Babylon and the kingdom of the Medes in Iran. The Assyrian Empire was destroyed when the Medes captured the Assyrian homeland in northern Mesopotamia and eastern Anatolia, the Neo-Babylonians took over much of the other territory of the Assyrian Empire.

VII. Conclusion

A. The Late Bronze Age in the Middle East was a “cosmopolitan” era of shared lifestyles and technologies exhibiting patterns of culture that had originated in Egypt and Mesopotamia. Similarly, the Minoans and Mycenaean Greeks borrowed heavily from the technologies and cultural practices of Mesopotamia and Egypt.

B. Around 1200 B.C.E. the societies of the Middle East and eastern Mediterranean slipped into a “Dark Age” of isolation and decline. After 1000 B.C.E. a resurgence occurred, such as the Assyrian creation of an empire of unprecedented size and diversity.

C. The Israelites’ settlement in Canaan led them into conflict with the Philistines and forced them to adopt a more complex political structure.

D. After the upheavals of the Late Bronze Age, the Phoenician city-states along the coast of Lebanon flourished. Carthage became the most important city outside the Phoenician homeland, maintaining power through naval superiority.

E. The far-reaching expansion of the Assyrian Empire was the most important factor in the transformation of the ancient Middle East.

CHAPTER 3

Outline Chapter 3: New Civilizations Outside the West Asian Core Area, 2300 B.C.E.–350 C.E.

I. Early China, 2000–221 B.C.E.

A. Geography and Resources

1. China is divided into two major geographical regions: the steppe, desert, and high plateau west and northwest; and the eastern zone, more suitable for settled agriculture.

2. The eastern zone is subdivided into two areas: north and south. The northern area includes the Yellow River Valley and has a dry, cold climate; the southern area includes the Yangzi Valley, has plentiful rainfall, and is relatively warm.

3. China’s natural resources include timber, stone, and metals. The loess soil and cool climate of the north are suitable for growing millet; rice may be cultivated in the warmer and rainier south.

4. Agriculture in this region required the coordinated effort of large numbers of people.

B. The Shang Period, 1750–1045 B.C.E.

1. Pre-Shang China was a land of Neolithic communities. Pigs, chickens, and millet were domesticated; silk textiles were developed; and bronze metallurgy was begun (ca. 2000 B.C.E.)

2. There are no contemporary documents to confirm the existence of the legendary Xia dynasty. Later documents concerning the Xia may be referring to one of the late Neolithic societies of the Yellow River Valley.

3. The Chinese writing system (Chinese characters) developed during the Shang period. The Chinese writing system of today is directly related to the writing of the Shang dynasty. The chief written remains are oracle bones used in divination.

4. Shang religion centered on a supreme god, Di, who could not be approached directly but could be reached indirectly through the ruler’s ancestors. This made the ruler a link between heaven and earth, and provided a rationale for authoritarian rule

5. The Shang elite was a warrior aristocracy who enjoyed hunting and warfare. They fought with bronze weapons and rode on horse-drawn chariots. Kings ruled directly over the core area of their kingdom and exercised indirect rule over peripheral areas.

C. The Zhou Period, 1045–221 B.C.E.

1. The Zhou territory was a dependent state of the Shang. They defeated the Shang in the eleventh century B.C.E. and adopted many elements of Shang culture. The two founders of the Zhou were Wen, who led the resistance movement against the Shang, and his son, Wu, who attacked the Shang capital and assumed the throne as first ruler of the dynasty. The Zhou invoked their own deity, Tian ("Heaven") and introduced the concept of the "Mandate of Heaven" in order to justify their rule.

2. The Zhou dynasty is subdivided into two periods: the Western Zhou and the Eastern Zhou. In the early years of the new dynasty, King Wu created a land distribution system similar to the feudal system of Europe's Middle Ages.

3. Early Zhou rulers constructed a new capital city, and other urban centers followed. Built in a grid pattern aligned with the north polar star, the design followed their ancient belief in feng shui to maintain harmony. Religion played a large role in both public and private life. Women were expected to live a life of subservience.

4. The Eastern Zhou period was characterized by a decline in the strength of the central government as regional elites began to rule their territories as independent states, often fighting with each other until there was a gradual consolidation into a smaller number of larger, more powerful kingdoms. Warfare during this period contrasted with the earlier noble endeavors led by the elite. The later Zhou saw the development of larger armies made up of conscripted farmers, as well as larger numbers of causalities.

5. Technological advances in warfare were adopted by the Zhou from people of the northern steppes. They learned how to fight on horseback and to replace bronze with iron and steel. Advances in government came from a new class of educated men who became bureaucrats and who recorded data for the rulers, administered the government's business, and offered advice to rulers.

D. Confucianism, Daoism, and Chinese Society

1. Confucianism and Daoism had their roots in the chaos of the late Zhou period. Confucianism was founded by Confucius and assumes that human nature is essentially good; has a hierarchical view of the universe, society, and the family; and is concerned with establishing the moral foundations of government. Confucius was not influential in his own time, but Confucianism later became the dominant political philosophy of imperial China.

2. Daoism is said to have been founded by Laozi. Daoism assumes that the universe is in constant flux, that there are no absolute moral standards, and that people should take the world as they find it. Daoism developed into a complex system of popular beliefs and magic, and many Chinese have drawn on both traditions, though Daoism might appear at odds with Confucianism.

3. In society, the Eastern Zhou period saw the development of the three-generation family and the development of the concept of private property, including privately owned land. Women were more firmly subordinated to the patriarchal hierarchy; their subordinate position was justified by the concepts of yin and yang.

II. Nubia, 3100 B.C.E.–350 C.E.

A. Early Cultures and Egyptian Domination, 2300–1100 B.C.E.

1. Nubia is located in the Nile Valley from Aswan south to Khartoum and forms a link between tropical Africa and the Mediterranean world. Nubia's natural resources included gold, semiprecious stones, and copper.

2. The development of civilization in Nubia was spurred by the need for irrigated agriculture and by its trading relationship with Egypt. Nubian culture and Egyptian culture developed through a process of mutual influence and borrowing.

3. Early Nubia carried out trade with Old Kingdom Egypt, and the northern part of Nubia was occupied by Egypt during the Middle Kingdom period.

4. In the southern part of Nubia, the Kingdom of Kush developed by 1750 B.C.E. Kush was noted for its metalworking and construction.

5. Egypt invaded Kush during the New Kingdom period. The results of Egyptian occupation included the brutal exploitation of Nubian laborers and the imposition of Egyptian culture on the Nubian people.

B. The Kingdom of Meroë, 800 B.C.E–350 C.E.

1. A Nubian kingdom arose in the eighth century B.C.E., and for a time the Nubians ruled Egypt as the Twenty-Fifth Dynasty (712–660 B.C.E.)

2. The Nubian kingdom had its capital at Napata from 660 B.C.E. to the fourth century. The Napata period is characterized by continued Egyptian cultural influence, including the use of Egyptian hieroglyphs and pyramids.

3. In the fourth century B.C.E., the kingdom moved its capital to Meroë, which was better located for both agriculture and trade. Egyptian cultural influence waned during the Meroitic era.

4. The ruling dynasty of Meroë practiced a matrilineal family system, and queens often were influential.

5. The city of Meroë dominated trade routes, used reservoirs to catch rainfall, and became an important center of iron smelting.

6. Meroë declined due to a combination of factors: a shift in trade routes, the rise of the kingdom of Aksum, and the depredations of camel-riding nomads.

III. First Civilizations of the Americas: The Olmec and Chavin, 1200–250 B.C.E.

A. The Mesoamerican Olmec, 1200-400. B.C. E

1. The Olmec, the most important Mesoamerican preclassic civilization, were at their strongest between about 1200 and 400 B.C.E.

2. Major centers of Olmec civilization were located along the coast of Mexico.

3. The use of raised fields provided the agricultural surpluses the Olmec needed to sustain urban centers.

4. The center of early Olmec civilization was located at San Lorenzo. San Lorenzo was surpassed by La Venta around 900 B.C.E., which, in turn, gave way to Tres Zapotes around 600 B.C.E.

5. Large earthen mounds dominated Olmec urban centers.

6. It is likely that Olmec political structures were built around some form of kingship.

7. Olmec power rested on the control of certain commodities and the popularity of their religious practices.

8. Given their limited technology, Olmec architecture was very impressive.

9. The Olmec played a role in the early development of writing and astronomy.

B. Early South American Civilization: Chavín, 900–250 B.C.E.

1. Chavín was the first major urban civilization in South America.

2. Chavín was politically and economically dominant between 900 and 250 B.C.E.

3. A combination of military strength and the appeal of its religious system explains Chavín's influence and control over its territory.

4. Chavín possessed all the essential characteristics of later Andean civilizations, including a clan-based system of labor.

5. The evidence suggests that increased warfare led to the fall of Chavín around 200 B.C.E.

IV. Conclusion

A. Differences Among Civilizations

1. The flood-prone rivers and lack of dependable rainfall in the north China plain led to authoritarian central governments to organize large labor forces needed to dig and maintain irrigation channels and build dikes.

2. A strong state was needed in Nubia for protection from desert nomads and from Egyptian rulers who coveted Nubian resources.

3. The fertile lands and adequate rainfall of continental Europe led to a more fragmented organization for the Celtic peoples than for peoples in other regions.

4. The Olmec of Mesoamerica and the Chavín of South America lived in ecological zones that required them to share their resources and products through trade networks. Both cultures were led by ruling elites who gathered wealth and organized labor for building projects.

B. Differences Between Hemispheres

1. The Eastern Hemisphere contained a larger number of plant and animal species that could be domesticated than did the Western Hemisphere.

2. The north-south axis of the Eastern Hemisphere contained similar climatic zones, making it easier for the spread of domesticated plants and animals. The Western Hemisphere's north-south axis contained more variations in climate, making it difficult for species to spread.

CHAPTER 4

Outline Chapter 4: Greece and Iran, 1000–30 B.C.E.

I. Ancient Iran, 1000–500 B.C.E.

A. Geography and Resources

1. Iran's location, bounded by mountains, deserts, and the Persian Gulf, left it open to attack from Central Asian nomads. The fundamental topographical features included high mountains on the edges, salt deserts in the interior, and a sloping plateau crossed by mountain streams.

2. Iran had limited natural resources. Water was relatively scarce, and Iran's environment could support only a limited population. Because of the heat, irrigation networks had to use underground tunnels. Construction and maintenance of underground irrigation networks was labor-intensive and advanced under a strong central authority. Iran had mineral resources— copper, tin, iron, gold, and silver—and plentiful timber.

B. The Rise of the Persian Empire

1. The Median kingdom in northwestern Iran helped to destroy the Assyrian Empire in the late seventh century B.C.E. The Persian Achaemenid dynasty was related to the Median court by marriage, and in 550 B.C.E., Cyrus overthrew the Median king and built a larger Persian empire that included Medes and Persians.

2. The Persian Empire was built up by a series of three kings: Cyrus, Cambyses, and Darius I, a distant relative of the royal family. Cyrus captured the kingdom of Lydia (546 B.C.E.), thus bringing all of Anatolia under his control, and later took Mesopotamia (539 B.C.E.).

3. Cambyses defeated Egypt and sent expeditions to Nubia and Libya. Under Darius I, the role of the Medes declined as the Persians asserted greater dominance. Darius extended the empire east to the Indus Valley and west to European Thrace.

C. Imperial Organization

1. From Darius on, the empire was divided into twenty provinces; a satrap who was related or connected to the royal court administered each province. The position of satrap tended to become hereditary. Satraps in distant provinces had considerable autonomy.

2. Provinces were required to pay annual tribute. The central government tended to hoard so much gold and silver that these metals became scarce and more expensive. The provinces were crossed by a system of well-maintained roads that converged on the capital city of Susa (in southwestern Iran), and garrisons were installed at key locations.

3. The Persian kings developed a style of kingship in which they were held aloof and majestic, masters of all their subjects and nobles. Kings owned and administered vast tracts of “king’s land” in areas around the empire.

4. Kings acted as lawgivers but allowed each of their subject peoples to live in accordance with their own traditions. Kings managed a central administration at the capital of Susa and also performed ceremonies at Persepolis, in the Persian homeland. Ambassadors to the capital from the far reaches of the empire might have been away from home for a year or more to conduct their business.

D. Ideology and Religion

1. The major religion of the Persian Empire was Zoroastrianism. The origins of this religion are unclear. Tradition ascribes the Gathas (the hymns of Zoroastrianism) to Zoroaster (Zarathustra), who lived sometime between 1700 and 500 B.C.E.

2. Zoroastrianism posited the existence of a dualistic universe in which the god of good, Ahuramazda, was locked in an epic struggle against the god of evil, Angra Mainyu. Zoroastrianism’s dualism may have had an influence on Judaism and thus on Christianity.

3. Darius combined the moral philosophy of Zoroastrianism with political ideology to claim that forming an empire of scattered peoples was his divinely-driven mission.

II. The Rise of the Greeks, 1000–500 B.C.E.

A. Geography and Resources

1. Greece is part of the Mediterranean ecological zone, an area in which all the various lands have a similar climate, similar seasons, and similar crops. This characteristic of the Mediterranean zone is highly conducive to migration and the transfer of crops, technology, and trade. The Greek culture area itself included the Greek mainland and islands and the western edge of Anatolia.

2. The areas inhabited by the Greeks relied entirely on rainfall, having no water resources sufficient for irrigation. Limited water and limited, thin arable soil meant that the area could not support large populations. Greece had few metal resources and little timber, but it did have plentiful harbors.

B. The Emergence of the Polis

1. The “Dark Age” that followed the Mycenaean period lasted from 1150–800 B.C.E. The Dark Age ended when contact and trade with the Mediterranean lands was reestablished. The Phoenicians played an important role and provided an alphabetic writing system. This began the Archaic period (800–480 B.C.E.).

2. One of the notable features of the Archaic period was explosive population growth. Possible causes of this population growth include the shift from a pastoral to an agricultural economy and importation of foods and raw materials. The effects of population growth included urbanization, specialization, and the development of the polis.

3. The polis (city-state) was an urban center and its rural territory. Characteristic features of the polis included an acropolis, an agora, fortified walls, and public buildings. There was no sharp distinction between urban and rural areas or their inhabitants.

4. There were frequent wars between the various city-states. The Greeks developed a style of warfare that used hoplites—a close formation of heavily armored infantry who would try to break the enemy’s line of defense. The soldiers were mostly farmer-citizens who served for short periods of time when called.

5. When population growth outstripped available resources, the Greeks sent excess population to colonize other areas in the Mediterranean and Black Sea. Colonization brought the Greeks into closer contact with other peoples.

6. Colonization introduced the Greeks to new ideas, but it also sharpened their sense of Greek identity. One of the most significant new developments of this period was the invention of coins in Lydia in the early sixth century B.C.E.

7. Increasing prosperity and the growth of a middle class in Archaic Greek society led to the emergence in the mid-seventh and sixth centuries B.C.E. of one-man rule by tyrants, who reduced the power of traditional elites. The tyrants were eventually ejected, and government developed in one of two directions: oligarchy or democracy.

8. Greek religion involved the worship of anthropomorphic sky gods, many of which represented forces of nature. These gods were worshiped at state ceremonies. Sacrifice was a central part of religious practice and helped to create a sense of community. In addition, Greeks sought advice from oracles such as the oracle of Apollo at Delphi and also revered female fertility deities.

C. New Intellectual Currents

1. During the Archaic period, Greeks began to develop the concepts of individualism and humanism.

2. The pre-Socratic philosophers of the Archaic period also began to question traditional Greek religion. Instead, they tried to explain rationally why the world was created, what it is made of, and why it changes.

3. In the late sixth century B.C.E., a group of “logographers” in Ionia began to gather information on the various peoples of the Mediterranean, the founding of important cities, and the background of important Greek families. Their method of investigation/research, historia, was adopted by Herodotus in his Histories.

4. Herodotus went beyond the simple collection and recording of information to offer explanations as to why the Greeks and the Persians had gone to war. In doing so, Herodotus invented the discipline of “history” in its modern sense.

D. Athens and Sparta

1. Sparta was a polis located in the Pelopponese in southern Greece. To assure its supply of food, Sparta took over the more fertile land of Messenia and enslaved the Messenians. Fear of an uprising of their Messenian slaves inspired the Spartans to create a severely ascetic and highly militarized society in which all Spartan males trained for the army and devoted their lives to the needs of the state.

2. Athens had an unusually large hinterland (Attica) that supported a population of about 300,000 in the fifth century B.C.E. Athens went through a period of rule by tyrants in the sixth century B.C.E.

3. In the late sixth and early to mid-fifth centuries B.C.E., Athens ejected the tyrant family and developed a democracy. Pericles completed the transition to democracy in the 460s to 450s. The popular organs of government included the Assembly, the Council of 500, and the People’s Courts.

III. The Struggle of Persia and Greece, 546–323 B.C.E.

A. Early Encounters

1. In 499 B.C.E., the Greek cities of Anatolia, aided by Eretria and Athens, staged a five-year revolt against Persian rule. This led to the Persian Wars—two Persian attacks on Greece. In the First Persian War, the generals of Darius I captured Eretria and attacked Athens (490 B.C.E.). The attack on Athens was foiled when Athenian forces defeated the Persians at Marathon.

2. In the Second Persian War, Xerxes led a large army and a fleet against the Greeks in 480 B.C.E. Many Greek city-states submitted. In southern Greece, Sparta organized the Hellenic League, an alliance of city-states that defeated the Persians. Then the Greeks, led by Athens and organized in the Delian League (477 B.C.E.), went on the offensive and drove the Persians out of most of the eastern Mediterranean (except Cyprus).

B. The Height of Athenian Power

1. The Classical period of Greek history (480–323 B.C.E.) was marked by the dominant role of Athens, which subordinated the other states of the Delian League and became an imperial power. Athenian power was based on the Athenian navy.

2. The keys to the strength of the Athenian navy were technological innovation and the use of lower-class men as rowers. The major technological innovation was the development of the trireme—a fast, maneuverable 170-oar boat. The use of lower-class rowers meant further democratization of Athenian society because these men, realizing their importance, demanded the full rights of citizenship.

3. Athens used its power to carry out profitable trade and to extract annual tribute from subject states. The wealth of the empire made it possible for Athens to construct impressive public works, put on grand festivals, and support development of the arts and sciences.

4. The two most influential philosophers of the Classical period were Socrates and Plato. Socrates turned the focus of philosophy to ethics, probed the precise meaning of words, and created the Socratic method of question and answer. He was tried on charges of corrupting the youth and not believing in the gods of the city and sentenced to death.

5. Socrates' disciple, Plato, wrote dialogs exploring concepts such as justice, excellence, and wisdom. Plato taught that the world as we see it is a pale reflection of a higher, ideal reality. Plato's intellectual activity is representative of the transition from oral to written culture: Plato read and wrote books, and he founded a school, the Academy.

C. Inequality in Classical Greece

1. Athenian democracy was very limited in its scope. Only free adult males participated in Athenian democracy. They accounted for about 10 or 15 percent of the total population. Women, children, slaves, and foreigners did not have the rights of citizens.

2. Slaves were mostly foreign, accounted for one-third of the population, and were regarded as property. The average Athenian family owned one or more slaves who were treated like domestic servants. Slaves provided male citizens with the leisure for political activity.

3. The position of women varied in different Greek communities. In Sparta, women were relatively free and outspoken. In Athens, women were more confined and oppressed. Athenian marriages were unequal, arranged unions of younger women to older men. The duties of a wife were to produce and raise children (especially sons), to weave cloth, and to cook and clean.

4. Because there were no meaningful relations between men and women, men sought intellectual and emotional companionship with other men. This gave rise to a common pattern of bisexuality in which older men engaged in extended social, intellectual, and sexual relationships with younger men.

D. Failure of the City-State and Triumph of the Macedonians

1. Imperial Athens aroused the resentment of other Greek city-states, which led (in 431 B.C.E.) to the Peloponnesian war—a conflict between the alliance systems of Athens and Sparta. Sparta, with a navy paid for by the Persians, finally defeated Athens in 404 B.C.E.

2. Sparta's arrogance then inspired the opposition of the other Greek city-states. This internal conflict among the Greeks gave Persia the opportunity to recover its territory in western Asia, including the Greek communities of the Anatolian coast.

3. As the Greek city-states declined in power, the backward northern Greek kingdom of Macedonia developed into a great military power. King Philip of Macedonia strengthened his army by equipping his soldiers with longer spears, using both cavalry and infantry forces, and developing new siege equipment including catapults.

4. Philip's son and heir Alexander (the Great) invaded Persia in 336 B.C.E. and defeated the forces of the Persian Empire. Alexander, who conquered as far as Pakistan, built his own empire in which he maintained the administrative apparatus of the Persian Empire, used Persian officials as well as Greeks and Macedonians, and began to present himself as a successor to the Persian king.

IV. The Hellenistic Synthesis, 323–30 B.C.E

A. The Hellenistic Kingdoms

1. After Alexander died, his empire broke up into three kingdoms, each ruled by a Macedonian dynasty. The period of time covered by these kingdoms is called the Hellenistic Age (323–30 B.C.E.).

2. The Seleucid kingdom included the core area of Mesopotamia, Syria, parts of Anatolia, and peripheral possessions including Iran and the Indus Valley. The peripheral areas were entirely lost by the second century B.C.E. The Seleucids maintained a Persian-style administrative system and continued Alexander's policy of establishing new Greek-style cities.

3. The Ptolemies ruled Egypt and sometimes Palestine. They took over the highly centralized and well-controlled Egyptian administrative and taxation systems. The Ptolemies made Alexandria their capital and actively encouraged Greek immigration.

4. The Ptolemies did not build other Greek-style cities; the lifestyle and language of the majority of the Egyptian population did not change significantly. Native Egyptians did, however, resent Greek rule, and uprisings were increasingly common from the early second century B.C.E.

5. The Antigonids ruled Macedonia and the adjacent parts of Greece. The Spartans, however, as well as new confederations of city-states, resisted Macedonian rule, while Athens remained neutral.

6. Alexandria was the greatest city of the Hellenistic age. With a population of nearly half a million, the Mausoleum of Alexander, the Library, and the Museum, Alexandria was a political center, a great center of learning, and a major trading city.

7. Alexandria was a Greek city. Its Greek residents enjoyed citizenship and took part in the institutions of government (the Assembly and the Council). Public baths, theatres, and gymnasiums offered residents all the amenities of Greek life. The city also had a significant Jewish population that dominated two of the five residential districts of the city.

8. Hellenization included intermarriage between Greeks and non-Greeks, the spread of the Greek language and lifestyle, and a synthesis of indigenous and Greek culture.

V. Conclusion

A. The Persian Period

1. Persians managed to hold together diverse collections of peoples in part through flexibility and tolerance of local customs and laws, leaving considerable administrative duties to native leaders.

2. While the Zoroastrian religion underlined the authority of the king as an appointee of god, it also provided a public perception of justice and defense against evil.

3. Persian law and administration provided security and stability, thus fostering commerce and stability. Their ability to organize large-scale labor forces expanded water distribution.

4. Persian cultural influences fused with the remaining cultural influences of Mesopotamia. Because Persian administration relied upon the written languages of Mesopotamian, Syrian, and Egyptian subjects, the Persian language was not widely adopted over the empire.

B. The Hellenistic Period

1. The independent Greek city-states, which had caused turmoil through competition for over two centuries, became inconsequential with Alexander's vast conquests of the Persians as well as the frontiers of northeastern Africa and western Asia.

2. Greek influence had a much more profound impact on the Middle East than did the Persian period. Although Alexander had intended to continue the Persian administrative form, his successors relied almost exclusively on Greek soldiers and administrators.

3. The Greek-style cities imposed over the expanded empire, and the adoption of alphabetic Greek writing, which led to more literacy and dissemination of information, also contributed to long-term Hellenistic influence throughout the Middle East.

CHAPTER 5

Outline Chapter 5: An Age of Empires: Rome and Han China, 753 B.C.E.–330 C.E.

I. Rome's Mediterranean Empire, 753 B.C.E.–600 C.E.

A. A Republic of Farmers, 753–31 B.C.E.

1. Rome was inhabited at least as early as 1000 B.C.E. According to legend, it was ruled by seven kings between 753 B.C.E. and 507 B.C.E. Kingship was eliminated in 507 B.C.E. when representatives of the senatorial class of large landholders overthrew the last king and established a republic.

2. The centers of political power were the two consuls and the Senate. In practice, the Senate made laws and governed.

3. The Roman family consisted of several generations living under the absolute authority of the oldest living male, the paterfamilias.

4. Society was hierarchical. Families and individuals were tied together by patron/client relationships that institutionalized inequality and gave both sides of the relationship reason to cooperate and to support the status quo.

5. Roman women had relatively more freedom than Greek women, but their legal status was still that of a child, subordinate to the paterfamilias of their own or their husband's family. Eventually procedures evolved that made it possible for some women to become independent after the death of their fathers.

6. Romans worshiped a large number of supernatural spirits as well as major gods such as Jupiter and Mars. Proper performance of ritual ensured that the gods continued to favor the Roman state.

B. Expansion in Italy and the Mediterranean

1. Rome began to expand, at first slowly and then very rapidly, in the third and second centuries B.C.E. until it became a huge Mediterranean empire. Possible explanations for this expansion include greed, aggressiveness, the need for consuls to prove themselves as military commanders during their single year in office, and a constant fear of being attacked.

2. During the first stage of expansion, Rome conquered the rest of Italy (by 290 B.C.E.). Rome won the support of the people of Italy by granting them Roman citizenship. As citizens, these people then had to provide soldiers for the military.

3. In the next stages of expansion, Rome first defeated Carthage to gain control over the western Mediterranean and Sicily, Sardinia, and Spain (264–202 B.C.E.). Next, between 200 and 30 B.C.E., Rome defeated the Hellenistic kingdoms to take over the lands of the eastern Mediterranean. Between 59 and 51 B.C.E., Gaius Julius Caesar conquered the Celts of Gaul.

4. The Romans used local elite groups to administer and tax the various provinces of their rapidly expanding and far-flung empire. A Roman governor, who served a single one-year term in office, supervised the local administrators. This system was inadequate and prone to corruption.

C. The Failure of the Republic

1. As Rome expanded, the social and economic bases of the Roman republic in Italy were undermined. While men from independent farming families were forced to devote their time to military service, large landowners bought up their land to create great estates called latifundia. This meant both a decline in Rome's source of soldiers and a decline in food production because latifundia owners preferred to grow cash crops like grapes rather than staple crops such as wheat.

2. Because slave labor was cheap in an expanding empire, Italian peasants, driven off the land and not employed by the latifundia, drifted into the cities where they formed a fractious unemployed underclass.

3. As the independent farming family that had been the traditional source of soldiers disappeared, Roman commanders built their armies from men from the underclass who tended to give their loyalty, not to the Roman state, but to their commander. This led to generals taking control of politics, to civil wars, and finally to the end of the republican system of government.

D. The Roman Principate, 31 B.C.E.–330 C.E.

1. Julius Caesar's grandnephew Octavian (also known as Augustus) took power in 31 B.C.E., reorganized the Roman government, and ruled as a military dictator.

2. During the reign of Augustus, Egypt, parts of the Middle East, and Central Europe were added to the empire. He created a paid civil service from a class of wealthy merchants and landowners to manage the growing empire.

3. After Augustus died, several members of his family succeeded him. However, the position of emperor was not necessarily hereditary; in the end, armies chose emperors.

4. Rather than laws developing through a senate and assemblies, as it had during the Republic, the emperor became a major source of laws during the Principate. The development of Roman law culminated in the sixth century C.E. and became the foundation of European law.

E. An Urban Empire

1. About 80 percent of the 50 to 60 million people of the Roman Empire were rural farmers, but the empire was administered through and for a network of cities and towns. In this sense, it was an urban empire. Rome had about a million residents, other large cities (Alexandria, Antioch, and Carthage) had several hundred thousand each, while many Roman towns had populations of several thousand.

2. In Rome, the upper classes lived in elegant, well-built, well-appointed houses; many aristocrats also owned country villas. The poor lived in dark, dank, fire-prone wooden tenements in squalid slums built in the low-lying parts of the city.

3. Provincial towns imitated Rome both in urban planning and in urban administration. The local elite, who served the interests of Rome, dominated town councils. The local elite also served their communities by using their wealth to construct amenities such as aqueducts, baths, theatres, gardens, temples, and other public works and entertainment projects.

4. Rural life in the Roman Empire involved lots of hard work and very little entertainment. Rural people had little contact with representatives of the government. By the early centuries C.E., absentee landlords who lived in the cities owned most rural land, while the land was worked by tenant farmers supervised by hired foremen.

5. Manufacture and trade flourished under the pax romana. Grain had to be imported to feed the huge city of Rome. Rome and the Italian towns (and later, provincial centers) exported glass, metalwork, pottery, and other manufactures to the provinces. Romans also imported Chinese silk and Indian and Arabian spices.

6. One of the effects of the Roman Empire was Romanization. In the western part of the Empire, the Latin language, Roman clothing, and the Roman lifestyle were adopted by local people; and indigenous cultures had an effect on Rome through cultural interaction. As time passed, Roman emperors gradually extended Roman citizenship to all free male adult inhabitants of the empire.

F. The Rise of Christianity

1. Jesus lived in a society marked by resentment against Roman rule, which had inspired the belief that a Messiah would arise to liberate the Jews. When Jesus sought to reform Jewish religious practices, the Jewish authorities in Jerusalem turned him over to the Roman governor for execution.

2. After the execution, Jesus' disciples continued to spread his teachings; they also spread their belief that Jesus had been resurrected. At this point, the target of their proselytizing was their fellow Jews.

3. The target of proselytizing changed from Jews to non-Jews in the 40s–70s C.E. First, Paul of Tarsus, an Anatolian Jew, discovered that non-Jews (gentiles) were much more receptive to the teachings of Jesus than Jews were. Second, a Jewish revolt in Judaea (66 C.E.) and the subsequent Roman reconquest destroyed the original Jewish Christian community in Jerusalem.

4. Christianity grew slowly for two centuries, developing a hierarchy of priests and bishops, hammering out a commonly accepted theological doctrine, and resisting the persecution of Roman officials. By the late third century, Christians were a sizeable minority in the Roman Empire.

5. The expansion of Christianity in the Roman Empire came at a time when Romans were increasingly dissatisfied with their traditional religion. This dissatisfaction inspired Romans to become interested in a variety of mystery cults and universal creeds that had their origins in the eastern Mediterranean.

G. Byzantines and Germans

1. While Roman rule and the traditions of Rome died in the west, they were preserved in the Byzantine Empire and in its capital, Constantinople.

2. The popes in Rome were independent of secular power, but the Byzantine emperor was appointed the patriarch of Constantinople and intervened in doctrinal disputes. Religious differences and doctrinal disputes permeated the Byzantine Empire; nonetheless, polytheism was quickly eliminated.

3. While the unity of political and religious power prevented the Byzantine Empire from breaking up, the Byzantines did face serious foreign threats. The Goths and Huns on the northern frontier were not difficult to deal with, but on the east, the Sasanids harassed the Byzantine Empire for almost three hundred years.

II. The Origins of Imperial China, 221 B. C. E.–220 C. E.

A. Resources and Populations

B. Hierarchy, Obedience, and Belief

1. The family was the basic unit of society. The family was conceived as an unbroken chain of generations, including ancestors as well as current generations. Ancestors were thought to take an active interest in the affairs of the current generation, and they were routinely consulted, appeased, and venerated.

2. Chinese society believed that a hierarchy in the family, dominated by the elder male, reflected a hierarchy in society, dominated by rulers, with interdependent relationships more important than the individual. The status and authority of women depended upon their social status. Women of the royal family could have some political influence. A young wife was expected to be obedient and recognize her mother-in-law's authority over her. All women were expected to be obedient, but their quality of life depended upon economic circumstances.

C. The First Chinese Empire, 221–207 B.C.E.

1. By 221 B.C.E., the state of Qin had unified all of northern and central China into the first Chinese "empire." Success for the Qin came from long experience in defending against "barbarian" neighbors, the adoption of severe Legalist methods, and the ambition of the ruthless young king Shi Huangdi and his advisors.

2. Upon uniting China, the Qin established a strong centralized state by eliminating rival centers of authority, establishing primogeniture, and creating a strong bureaucracy. It standardized law, measurements, coinage, and writing. Following the advice of his prime minister, Li Si, Shi Huangdi followed the Legalist view and suppressed Confucianism.

3. To secure the empire's borders from northern raiders, the Qin sent a large military force to drive the nomads north. To ensure they would not lose the newly gained territory, they constructed connections and extensions to walls built earlier to defend the kingdoms, the ancestor of the Great Wall of China. Shi Huangdi's attack on the nomads inadvertently united the fragmented nomads under the Xiongnu Confederacy, a source of threat to China for centuries to come.

4. To fill their military and labor needs, the Qin government instituted an oppressive program of compulsory military and labor services.

5. Shi Huangdi died in 210 B.C.E. and was buried in a monumental tomb guarded by a terracotta clay army of seven thousand soldiers. His son secured the throne but proved to be a weak leader who could not withstand the uprisings that broke out from the resentment of different groups. Qin rule was over by 206 B.C.E.

D. The Long Reign of the Han, 206 B.C.E.–220 C.E.

1. Gaozu (the throne name of Liu Bang) was a peasant who defeated all other contestants for control of China, establishing the Han dynasty. The Han established a political system that drew on both Confucian philosophy and Legalist techniques.

2. Han rulers faced challenges at first from residual resentments of the ruthless rule of the Qin. To ease their transition and help the economy, the Qin reduced taxes and government spending, and collected and stored surplus grain for times of shortage. For those who had aided him, Gaozu restored the system of feudal grants abolished by the Qin.

3. Confrontation with the Xiongnu confederacy nomads of the north revealed the inadequacy of Han troops, leading Gaozu to develop a policy of appeasement, buying them off with annual gifts.

4. The Han went through a period of territorial expansion under Emperor Wu (r. 141–87 B.C.E.) who increased the power of the emperor. During his rule, he expanded the empire into areas as far as northern Vietnam, Manchuria, and North Korea. Instead of appeasing the Xiongnu, he built his military to fight the northern nomads.

5. Wu's reign saw the expansion of Chinese territory into the northwest and the foundations of the Silk Road, which would later affect the economic health of Asia. To pay for the military buildup, government monopolies on high-profit commodities added to the treasury, though not without controversy. The state also adopted Confucianism, using Confucian scholars as officials of the government, who in turn expected exemplary ethical behavior from their rulers.

E. Technology and Trade

F. Decline of the Han Empire

1. An ambitious high official seized power from 9 to 23 C.E. but was killed in his palace, and a member of the Han royal family was again installed as emperor. At this time the capital was moved east to Luoyang.

2. The Han Empire was undermined by a number of factors. First, the imperial court was plagued by weak leadership and court intrigue. Second, nobles and merchants built up large landholdings at the expense of the small farmers, and peasants sought tax relief, reducing revenues for the empire. Third, the system of military conscription broke down and the central government had to rely on mercenaries whose loyalty was questionable.

3. These factors, compounded by factionalism at court, official corruption, peasant uprisings, and nomadic attacks, led to the fall of the dynasty in 220 C.E. China entered a period of political fragmentation that lasted until the late sixth century.

III. Conclusion

A. Similarities

1. The Han and Roman Empires were similar relative to agriculture being their fundamental economic activity. Both empires received revenue from a percentage of the annual harvests. And both empires strengthened their central rule by breaking the power of old aristocratic families, reducing their land holdings. Both empires saw their authority eroding at the end of their reigns by the reversal of this process.

2. Both empires spread out from an ethnically homogeneous core to encompass widespread territories of diverse cultures. Many in the conquered lands adopted the cultural elements of the core, and the core also adopted some of the cultural traditions of their far-flung regions. The extent of their empires forced both empires to create a well-trained bureaucracy and to make use of local officials to administer their interests.

3. Both empires built roads to facilitate military movement that later became routes to spread commerce and culture. While the majority of populations in both empires lived in the countryside, those living in urban centers enjoyed the more cosmopolitan advantages of empire.

4. Both empires faced common problems in terms of defense and found their domestic economies undermined by their military expenditures.

5. Both empires were overrun by new peoples who had been so deeply influenced by the imperial cultures of Rome and of China that they maintained some of that culture during their own reigns.

B. Differences

1. In China, the imperial model was revived and the territory of the Han Empire re-unified. The former Roman Empire was never again reconstituted.

2. Differences between China and the Roman world can be located in the concept of the individual, the greater degree of economic mobility for the middle classes in Rome than in Han China, the make-up and hierarchy of their armies, and the different political ideologies and religions of the two empires.

CHAPTER 6

Outline Chapter 6: India and Southeast Asia, 1500 B.C.E.–1025 C.E.

I. Foundations of Indian Civilization, 1500 B.C.E.–300 C.E.

A. The Indian Subcontinent

1. India has three topographical zones: (1) the northern mountainous zone, (2) the Indus and Ganges Basins, and (3) the peninsula. The Vindhya Mountains and the Deccan plateau divide the peninsula from the other two zones.

2. The peninsula itself includes additional topographical subregions, including: (1) the tropical Kerala coast in the west, (2) the Coromandel coast in the east, (3) the flat area of Tamil Nadu in the south, and (4) the island of Sri Lanka.

3. Peninsular India and the Ganges Valley have a subtropical climate and plentiful rainfall. The Indus Valley is dry, and agriculture there relies on irrigation. The staple crop of the Ganges Delta is rice; elsewhere, the staple crops are wheat, millet, and barley.

4. This geographical diversity has made it very difficult for any political power to unify all of India for any great length of time.

B. The Vedic Age

1. After the demise of the Indus Valley civilization, Indo-European warriors migrated into India. They were organized in patriarchal families and kinship groups, and at first they herded cattle in the northwest. After 1000 B.C.E., some of them began to push into the Ganges Valley, using new iron tools to fell trees and cultivate the land. The oral tradition of these light-skinned Arya tribes tells of a violent struggle between themselves and the darker-skinned Dravidian speaking Dasas, whom they evidently pushed into southern India.

2. The struggle between Aryas and Dasas led to the development of the system of varna, meaning “color” but equivalent to “class.” Under this system, people were born into one of four varna: (1) Brahmin (priests/scholars), (2) Kshatriya (warriors), (3) Vaishya (merchants), and (4) Shudra (peasant/laborer). A fifth group, Untouchables, was outside the system and consisted of persons who did demeaning or ritually polluting work such as work that involved contact with the dead bodies of animals or humans.

3. The four varna were subdivided into hereditary occupational groups called jati (also known by the Portuguese word caste). Jati were also arranged in order of hierarchy; complex rules governed the appropriate occupation, duties, and rituals of each jati and laid forth regulations concerning interaction between people of different jati.

4. The systems of varna and jati were rationalized by belief in reincarnation. According to this belief, each individual has an immortal spirit (atman) that will be reborn in another body after death. One’s station in the next life depends on one’s actions (karma) in this and previous lives.

5. Vedic religion emphasized the worship of male deities through sacrifice. Religious knowledge and practice was the monopoly of the Brahmin priestly varna, who memorized the rituals, prayers, and hymns and may have opposed the introduction of writing to maintain their monopoly on religious knowledge.

6. We do not know much about the status or roles of women in the Vedic period. They could study lore and participate in rituals, they could own land, and they married in their middle or late teens.

C. Challenges to the Old Order: Jainism and Buddhism

1. During the Vedic period, people who reacted against the rigid social hierarchy and against the religious monopoly of the Brahmins would withdraw into the forests, where they pursued salvation through yoga (spiritual and mental discipline), special diets, or meditation. Their goal was to achieve moksha—liberation from the cycle of birth, death, and rebirth. The ideas of these religious dissidents are reflected in the Upanishads.

2 Jainism was founded by Mahavira (540–468 B.C.E.). Jains practiced nonviolence and went to extremes in their attempts not to kill any living thing. The most extreme went naked and starved themselves to death. The less extreme devoted themselves to commerce and banking—occupations that, unlike agriculture, do not require one to kill.

3. Siddhartha Gautama founded Buddhism. His title, Buddha, means “Enlightened One.” Alienated by both the extremes of a wealthy youth and six years of asceticism, Siddhartha Gautama set forth his teaching of the Four Noble Truths and of the Eightfold Path that would lead the individual to enlightenment. Some of his followers took vows of celibacy, nonviolence, and poverty.

4. The original form of Buddhism centered on the individual's attempts to gain enlightenment through moderate living, self-discipline, and meditation. Their goal was to achieve nirvana— release from the cycle of birth, death, and rebirth. According to Buddhist teaching, all things are composite, including the individual. This stands in contrast to the Vedic belief in the existence of an eternal soul (atman).

5. After the death of the Buddha, some of his followers organized themselves into monasteries and nunneries and developed a complex, hierarchical religion, complete with worship of the Buddha, reverence for bodhisattvas, and artistic representations of the Buddha. The religion broke into two major schools: Mahayana and Theravada. Mahayana incorporated the new beliefs, while Theravada followed the original teaching of the Buddha more closely.

D. The Rise of Hinduism

1. Pressure from new religious movements like Jainism and Buddhism led to a reform of the old Vedic religion. As a result of this reform, the foundational elements of Vedic religion incorporated the intense personal religious devotion, fertility rituals, symbolism of the southern Dravidian cultures, and elements of Buddhism. Sacrifice became less important, while the role of personal devotion to the gods increased.

2. As a part of the reform, two formerly minor Vedic deities took the places of honor in the Hindu pantheon. These deities were Vishnu, the preserver, and Shiva, the destroyer. Also prominent in the new religious tradition was the goddess Devi. These and all the other countless gods and goddesses were understood to be manifestations of a single divine force.

3. Hindu worship centered on temples and shrines and included puja (service to a deity) and pilgrimage. The Ganges River became one of the most popular pilgrimage sites.

4. The religious duties of an individual varied according to gender, social status, and age.

5. The transformation from Vedic religion to Hinduism was so successful that Hinduism became the dominant religion of India. Hinduism appealed to common people's need for personal deities with whom they could have a direct connection. Theravada Buddhism was too austere to have popular appeal, and Mahayana Buddhism was so close to Hinduism that its beliefs could easily be absorbed by the larger religion.

II. Imperial Expansion and Collapse, 324 B.C.E.–650 C.E.

A. The Mauryan Empire, 324–184 B.C.E.

1. The core of the Mauryan Empire was the kingdom of Magadha, which benefited from its strategic location and plentiful agricultural and iron resources. The Mauryan Empire was founded by Chandragupta, who expanded it along with his successors Bindusara and Ashoka until it included almost the entire subcontinent. Tradition maintains that a Machiavellian Brahmin, Kautilya, guided Chandragupta.

2. The Mauryan government made its capital at the walled and moated city of Pataliputra. The imperial establishment, including a large army, was supported by a 25 percent tax on the agricultural products of the empire and by state monopolies on mines, shipbuilding, and armaments.

3. The most famous Mauryan emperor is Ashoka (r. 273–232 B.C.E.). Ashoka, shaken by the carnage in a brutal war of expansion in the south, converted to Buddhism. His Buddhist policies of government are preserved in edicts that were inscribed on rocks and pillars at various points throughout his empire.

B. Commerce and Culture in an Era of Political Fragmentation

1. The Mauryan empire collapsed in 184 B.C.E. Northern India fell into a period of political fragmentation that included rule of the northwest by the Shakas (Scythians, 50 B.C.E.–50 C.E.) and the Kushans (50–240 C.E.).

2. Political fragmentation in northern India was accompanied by economic development in which guilds of artisans and merchants played a dominant role.

3. The period of political fragmentation was also characterized by cultural development that included the writing of the Ramayana and the Mahabharata. The latter includes the famous Bhagavad-Gita, which addresses the contradiction

between duty to society and duty to one's own soul. The Bhagavad-Gita suggests that this contradiction can be resolved when one is aware that any form of disciplined action taken without regard for personal benefit is a service to the gods. The period also saw developments in herbal medicine and linguistics.

4. During the period of political fragmentation in the north, central and south India experienced different patterns of development. The Satavahana dynasty established an independent state in the Deccan (second century B.C.E. to the early third century C.E.). Central India experienced economic improvements as well as more religious authority and urbanization. In southern India, divided among three Tamil kingdoms (Cholas, Pandyas, and Cheras), this was a period of great artistic achievement.

C. The Gupta Empire, 320–550 C.E.

1. Like the Mauryan Empire, the Gupta Empire began with the kingdom of Magadha. The rulers of the Gupta Empire brought northern and central India, but not the south, under their control. Like the Mauryan rulers, the Guptas controlled iron deposits, established state monopolies, and collected a 25 percent agricultural tax. However, they were never as strong as the Mauryan Empire.

2. The Guptas used their army to control the core of their empire, but provincial administration was left to governors who often made their posts into hereditary and subordinate kingdoms and kinship groups.

3. Because the Gupta did not have sufficient military force, they exercised power as theaterstate, redistributing profits and luxury goods from trade and dazzling its dependents with elaborate ceremonies in return for gifts and other favors.

4. We have very little archaeological data and few contemporary accounts from which to learn about the politics, society, and culture of the Gupta period. We know that the court supported mathematics and astronomy and that Gupta mathematicians invented our so-called Arabic numerals and the concept of zero. Gupta rulers also supported literary endeavors. We also have the Chinese monk Faxian's description of his journey through Gupta India.

5. During the Gupta period, women lost the right to inherit and own property and to participate in key rituals, and were treated like the lowest varna (Shudra). They were married very young, and in some places a widow was required to burn herself on her husband's funeral pyre. Among the few ways to escape this low status was to join a religious community, to be a member of an extremely wealthy family, or to be a courtesan.

6. The Gupta period, while dominated by Hinduism, was characterized by religious toleration and saw the development of the classic form of Hindu temples with exterior courtyard, inner shrine, and wall decorations. On the other hand, the Gupta period saw the Brahmins regain power, influence, and wealth.

7. Gupta India was linked to the outside world by extensive trade networks. Trade with southeast and east Asia particularly flourished.

8. In 550 C.E., the Gupta empire collapsed under the financial burden of defense against the Huns. Harsha (r. 606–647 C.E), whose kingdom is described by the Chinese pilgrim Xuanzang, briefly reunited northern India. After Harsha, northern India again fell into political fragmentation. As India decentralized, it developed a feudal economic and social structure.

9. During the Gupta period, numerous small kingdoms ruled the Deccan and south India. The most notable of these were the southern warrior kingdoms of the Pallavas and the Cholas. After the decline of the Gupta, elements of north Indian culture such as religion and the class and caste system spread into the south.

III. Southeast Asia, 50–1025 C.E.

A. Geography, Resources, and Early Civilization

1. Southeast Asia has three geographical zones: (1) the Indochina mainland, (2) the Malay Peninsula, and (3) the islands. The area stands between China and India, and has been influenced by both civilizations.

2. Natural resources include fertile agricultural lands, dependable monsoon rains, and several growing seasons a year. This enabled the area to support a large, dense population.

3. Early inhabitants of Southeast Asia practiced swidden (slash and burn) agriculture and domesticated important crops and animals, including rice, soybeans, sugar cane, chickens, and pigs.

4. Southeast Asia received waves of migrations of Malay peoples from southern China. Malay migrations subsequently continued into the Pacific Islands and into the Indian Ocean. Early Malay groups in Southeast Asia lived in small villages, manufactured bronze tools, and were organized in small political units.

5. The first large states in Southeast Asia emerged in the early centuries C.E. in response to the position of Southeast Asia as a crossroads for trade and travel between India and China. Trade brought business; it also brought Hindu/Buddhist culture.

6. The first major state to appear in Southeast Asia was Funan (first through sixth centuries B.C.E.) in the Mekong delta area. Funan thrived due to its domination of the Isthmus of Kra. Funan's decline in the sixth century may be related to the opening of new trade routes that bypassed Funan.

IV. Conclusion

A. Comparison of Sources

1. The ancient history of India is derived more from religious artifacts and religious writings than in other areas of the ancient world.

2. In contrast to the written records left by Mesopotamians, Greeks, Romans, and the Chinese, Indians' belief in cyclical creation and re-creation of the world left them with little use for keeping a written record of a brief moment in time.

B. Diversity and Unity Within India

1. Political and social division has been the norm throughout most of India's history, in part from the topographical and environmental diversity of the subcontinent.

2. The ethnic and linguistic diversity of India was occasionally unified under strong central governments such as the Mauryan and Gupta kings, who came to dominance by gaining control of metal resources and trade routes. They used elaborate class and caste structures to organize their diverse populations.

3. Distinctive features of Indian civilization arose from the caste system and religious beliefs that originated in the northern river valleys from descendants of Indo-European immigrants. Hinduism drew elements of southern Dravidian cultures and Buddhism, and is less fixed than the practices of Judaism, Christianity, and Islam.

CHAPTER 7

Outline Chapter 7: Peoples and Civilizations of the Americas, from 1200 B.C.E.

I. Classic-Era Culture and Society in Mesoamerica, 200–900

A. Teotihuacan

1. Teotihuacan was a large Mesoamerican city at the height of its power in 450–600 C.E. The city had a population of 125,000 to 150,000 inhabitants and was dominated by religious structures, including pyramids and temples where human sacrifice was carried out.

2. The growth of Teotihuacan was made possible by forced relocation of farm families to the city and by agricultural innovations, including irrigation works and chinampas ("floating gardens") that increased production and thus supported a larger population.

3. Apartment-like stone buildings housed commoners, including the artisans who made pottery and obsidian tools and weapons for export. The elite lived in separate residential compounds and controlled the state bureaucracy, tax collection, and commerce.

4. Teotihuacan appears to have been ruled by alliances of wealthy families rather than by kings. The military was used primarily to protect and expand long-distance trade and to ensure that farmers paid taxes or tribute to the elite.

5. Teotihuacan collapsed around 650 C.E. The collapse may have been caused by mismanagement of resources and conflict within the elite, or as a result of invasion.

B. The Maya

1. The Maya were a single culture living in modern Guatemala, Honduras, Belize, and southern Mexico, but they never formed a politically unified state. Various Maya kingdoms fought each other for regional dominance.

2. The Maya increased their agricultural productivity by draining swamps, building elevated fields and terraced fields, and by constructing irrigation systems. The Maya also managed forest resources to increase the production of desired products.

3. The largest Maya city-states dominated neighboring city-states and agricultural areas. Large city-states constructed impressive and beautifully decorated buildings and monuments by means of very simple technology—levers and stone tools.

4. The Maya believed that the cosmos consisted of three layers: the heavens, the human world, and the underworld. Temple architecture reflected this cosmology, and the rulers and elites served as priests to communicate with the residents of the two supernatural worlds.

5. Maya military forces fought for captives, not for territory. Elite captives were sacrificed; commoners were enslaved.

6. Maya elite women participated in bloodletting rituals and other ceremonies, but they rarely held political power. Non-elite women probably played an essential role in agricultural and textile production.

7. The most notable Maya technological developments are the Maya calendar, mathematics, and the Maya writing system.

8. Most Maya city-states were abandoned or destroyed between 800 and 900 C.E. Possible reasons for the decline of Maya culture include the disruption of Mesoamerican trade resulting from the fall of Teotihuacan, environmental pressure caused by overpopulation, and increased warfare.

II. The Postclassic Period in Mesoamerica, 900–1500

A. The Toltecs

1. The Toltecs arrived in central Mexico in the tenth century and built a civilization based on the legacy of Teotihuacan. The Toltecs contributed innovations in the areas of politics and war.

2. The Toltec capital at Tula was the center of the first conquest state in the Americas. Dual kings ruled the state—an arrangement that probably caused the internal struggle that undermined the Toltec state around 1000 C.E. The Toltecs were destroyed by invaders around 1156 C.E.

B. The Aztecs

1. The Aztecs were originally a northern people with a clan-based social organization. They migrated to the Lake Texcoco area, established the cities of Tenochtitlan and Tlatelolco around 1325, and then developed a monarchical system of government.

2. Gender division of labor was distinct yet complementary. Though warfare increased male power, females maintained control over household and market.

3. The kings increased their wealth and power by means of territorial conquest. As the Aztec Empire increased in size, commoners lost their ability to influence political decisions and inequalities in wealth grew more severe.

4. The Aztecs increased agricultural production in the capital area by undertaking land reclamation projects and constructing irrigated fields and chinampas. Nonetheless, grain and other food tribute met nearly one-quarter of the capital's food requirements.

5. Merchants who were distinct from and subordinate to the political elite controlled long-distance trade. The technology of trade was simple: no wheeled vehicles, draft animals, or money was used. Goods were carried by human porters and exchanged through barter.

6. The Aztecs worshiped a large number of gods, the most important of whom was Huitzilopochtli, the Sun god. Huitzilopochtli required a diet of human hearts, which were supplied by human sacrifice that increased through time.

III. Northern Peoples

A. Southwestern Desert Cultures

1. Irrigation-based agriculture was introduced to Arizona from Mexico around 300 B.C.E. The most notable Mexican-influenced civilization of the area was the Hohokam, who constructed extensive irrigation works in the Salt and Gila valleys around 1000 C.E.

2. The more influential Anasazi developed a maize, rice, and bean economy and constructed underground buildings (kivas) in the Arizona/New Mexico/Colorado/Utah region around 450–750 C.E.

3. The large Anasazi community at Chaco Canyon had a population of about 15,000 people engaged in hunting, trade, and irrigated agriculture. Chaco Canyon people seem to have exerted some sort of political or religious dominance over a large region. The Anasazi civilization declined in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries as a result of drought, overpopulation, and warfare.

B. Mound Builders: The Mississippian Cultures

1. The Hopewell culture developed out of the earlier Adena culture around 100 C.E. It was based in the Ohio Valley, but its trade and influence extended as far as Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, New York and Ontario, and south to Florida. Like the Adena, the Hopewell economy was based on hunting and gathering and was supplemented by agriculture.

2. The major Hopewell centers were ruled by hereditary chiefs. Chiefs served as priests and managed secular affairs such as long-distance trade. The Hopewell people built large mounds both as burial sites and as platforms upon which temples and residences of chiefs were constructed.

3. Hopewell sites were abandoned around 400 C.E., but the Hopewell technology and mound-building are linked to the development of the Mississippian culture (700–1500 C.E.). Urbanized Mississippian chiefdoms were made possible by increased agricultural productivity, the bow and arrow, and expanded trade networks.

4. The largest Mississippian center was Cahokia, with a population of about 30,000 around 1200 C.E. Cahokia was abandoned around 1250 perhaps because of climate changes and population pressure.

IV. Andean Civilizations, 600–1500

A. Cultural Response to Environmental Challenge

1. The harsh environment of the high-altitude Andes, the dry coastal plain, and the tropical headwaters of the Amazon forced the human inhabitants of these areas to organize labor efficiently and thus produce enough food to live.

2. The basic unit of Andean labor organization was the clan (ayllu). Clans held land collectively, and clan members were obligated to assist each other in production and to supply goods and labor to the clan chief.

3. The territorial states organized after 1000 C.E. introduced the institution of the mit'a, which required each ayllu to provide a set number of workers each year to provide labor for religious establishments, the royal court, or the aristocracy.

4. Work was divided along gender lines. Men were responsible for hunting, war, and government; women wove and cared for the crops and the home.

5. The Andean region is divided into four major ecological zones: the coast, mountain valleys, higher elevations, and the Amazonian region. Each region produced different goods, and these goods were exchanged among the various regions through a network of trade routes.

B. Moche

1. The Moche culture emerged in the north coastal region of Peru in about 200 C.E. The Moche used the mit'a labor system to construct an extensive irrigated agriculture that produced maize, quinoa, beans, and manioc.

2. Moche society was stratified and theocratic. Wealth and power were concentrated in the hands of an elite of priests and military leaders who lived atop large platforms and decorated themselves with magnificent clothing, jewelry, and tall headdresses. Commoners cultivated their fields and supplied mit'a labor to the elite.

3. Moche artisans were skilled in the production of textiles, portrait vases, and metallurgy. Gold and silver were used for decorative purposes; copper and copper alloy were used for farm tools and weapons.

4. The decline and fall of the Moche civilization may be attributed to a series of natural disasters in the sixth century and to pressure from the warlike Wari people in the eighth century.

C. Tiwanaku and Wari

1. The civilization of Tiwanaku, in Bolivia, experienced increased agricultural productivity and urbanization in the years following 200 C.E. Tiwanaku cultivated potatoes and grains on raised fields reclaimed from marshland.

2. Tiwanaku's urban construction included a large terraced pyramid, walled enclosures, and a reservoir. Construction was done with large stones quarried, moved, and laid by thousands of laborers working with simple technology and copper alloy tools.

3. Tiwanaku society was highly stratified, ruled by a hereditary elite. Some scholars believe that Tiwanaku was the capital of a vast empire, but archeological evidence suggests that it was only a ceremonial and political center for a large regional population.

4. The Wari culture was located near the city of Ayucucho, Peru. Wari had contact with Tiwanaku but was a separate culture; the city was built without central planning, with different techniques, and on a much smaller scale than Tiwanaku. Both Tiwanaku and Wari declined to insignificance by 1000 C.E.

D. The Inca

1. The Inca were a small chiefdom in Cuzco until their leaders consolidated political authority and began a program of military expansion in the 1430s. By 1525, the Inca had constructed a huge empire.

2. The key to Inca wealth was their ability to develop a strong military and to use it to broaden and expand the traditional exchange system that had linked the various ecological zones of the Andes region together. The Inca used the mit'a labor system to form their armies; build their capital city; maintain their religious institutions; and provide for the old, the weak, and the ill.

3. The Inca generally left local rulers in place, controlling them by means of military garrisons and by taking their heirs to Cuzco as hostages. At the central level, the Inca created an imperial bureaucracy led by a king. Each king was required to prove himself by conquering new territory.

4. The capital city of Cuzco was laid out in the shape of a puma, and its buildings were constructed of stone laid together without mortar. Cuzco's palaces and richly decorated temples were the scene of rituals; feasts; and sacrifices of textiles, animals, other tribute goods, and the occasional human.

5. The cultural attainments of the Inca Empire include astronomical observation, weaving, copper and bronze metallurgy, and gold and silver working. The Inca did not introduce new technologies but made more efficient use of existing technology to increase the profits gained by the trade among the ecological zones of the Andean region.

6. Inca domination resulted in increased wealth but also in reduced levels of local autonomy. When the elite fell into civil war in 1525, Inca control over its vast territories was weakened.

V. Comparative Perspectives

A. Political and Economic Comparisons

1. The Aztec and Inca Empires shared similarities in the use of powerful armies, strong economies based on large workforces, and their dependence on organized government and religious practices that connected secular rulers to the gods.

2. Distinctions between the two empires were in their systems of distributing goods and in their management of the empire.

3. The Aztec used local leaders, while the Inca created a strong central government administered by trained bureaucrats.

B. Imperial Comparisons

1. Both the Aztec and Inca were the last in a line of successive indigenous populations organized into strong empires from former collapsed civilizations.

2. The arrival of Europeans ended the cycle of crises and adjustment in both regions.

CHAPTER 8

Outline Chapter 8: Networks of Communication and Exchange, 300 B.C.E.–1100 C.E.

I. The Silk Road

A. Origins and Operations

1. The Silk Road was an overland route that linked China to the Mediterranean world via Mesopotamia, Iran, and Central Asia.

2. The origins of the Silk Road trade may be located in the occasional trading of Central Asian nomads. Regular, large-scale trade was fostered by the Chinese demand for western products (particularly horses) and by the Parthian state in northeastern Iran and its control of the markets in Mesopotamia.

3. In addition to horses, China imported alfalfa, grapes, and a variety of other new crops as well as medicinal products, metals, and precious stones. China exported peaches and apricots, spices, and manufactured goods including silk, pottery, and paper.

B. Nomadism in Central and Inner Asia

1. The Silk Roads depended on the nomads of Central Asia to provide animals and protection. The Scythians of the sixth century B.C.E. were described as having huge herds, which they moved around the areas north of the Black and Caspian Seas. They were horseback riders, had moveable felt houses, and used wagons pulled by oxen.

2. Nomads of Central Asia were self-reliant. They ate meat and milk from animals and made houses and clothes out of felt from wool, furs, and leather. In nomadic areas women were generally responsible for the care of the animals.

3. Nomads relied on more settled populations for metal. Scythians, for example, used metal acquired in trade to make a variety of tools and weapons for their own use.

C. The Sasanid Empire and the Impact of the Silk Road

1. The Sasanid kingdom was established in 224 and controlled the areas of Iran and Mesopotamia. Relations with the Byzantines alternated between war and peaceful trading relationships. In times of peace, the Byzantine cities of Syria and the Arab nomads who guided caravans between the Sasanid and Byzantine Empires all flourished on trade. Arabs also benefited from the invention of the camel saddle, which allowed them to take control of the caravan trade.

2. The Iranian hinterland was ruled by a largely autonomous local aristocracy that did not pose a threat, however, to the stability of the Sasanid Empire.

3. The Sasanid Empire made Zoroastrianism its official religion similar to how the Byzantine Empire made Christianity its official religion. Both Zoroastrianism and Christianity were intolerant of other religions. State sponsorship of Zoroastrianism and Christianity set a precedent for the link that developed between the Islamic religion and the Islamic state.

4. The Byzantine and Sasanid empires were characterized by state involvement in theological struggles. In the third century, Mani of Mesopotamia founded a religion whose beliefs centered around the struggle between good and evil. Mani was killed by the Sasanid shah, but Manichaeism spread widely in Central Asia. Arabs had some awareness of these religious conflicts and knew about Christianity.

5. During this period, religion had replaced citizenship, language, and ethnicity as the paramount factor in people's identity.

6. Turkic nomads, who became the dominant pastoralist group in Central Asia, benefited from the trade. Their elites constructed houses, lived settled lives, and became interested in foreign religions including Christianity, Manicheanism, Zoroastrianism, Buddhism, and (eventually) Islam.

7. Central Asian military technologies, particularly the stirrup, were exported both east and west, with significant consequences for the conduct of war.

II. The Indian Ocean Maritime System

A. Origins of Contact and Trade

1. There is evidence of early trade between ancient Mesopotamia and the Indus Valley. This trade appears to have broken off because Mesopotamia turned more toward trade with East Africa.

2. Two thousand years ago, Malay sailors from Southeast Asia migrated to the islands of Madagascar. These migrants, however, did not retain communications or trade with their homeland.

B. The Impact of Indian Ocean Trade

1. What little we know about trade in the Indian Ocean system before Islam is gleaned largely from a single first century C.E. Greco-Egyptian text, The Periplus of the Erythrean Sea. This account describes a trading system that must have been well established and flourishing when the account was written. The goods traded included a wide variety of spices, aromatic resins, pearls, Chinese pottery, and other luxury goods. The volume of trade was probably not as high as in the Mediterranean.

2. The culture of the Indian Ocean ports was often isolated from that of their hinterlands. In the western part of the Indian Ocean, trading ports did not have access to large inland populations of potential consumers. Even in those eastern Indian and Malay peninsula ports that did have access to large inland populations, the civilizations did not become oriented toward the sea.

3. Traders and sailors in the Indian Ocean system often married local women in the ports that they frequented. These women thus became mediators between cultures.

III. Routes Across the Sahara

A. Early Saharan Cultures

1. Undateable rock paintings in the highland areas that separate the southern from the northern Sahara indicate the existence of an early Saharan hunting culture that was later joined by cattle breeders who are portrayed as looking rather like contemporary West Africans.

2. The artwork indicates that the cattle breeders were later succeeded by horse herders who drove chariots. There is no evidence to support the earlier theory that these charioteers might have been Minoan or Mycenaean refugees. But there is also no evidence to show us either their origins or their fate.

3. The highland rock art indicates that camel riders followed the charioteers. The camel was introduced from Arabia, and its introduction and domestication in the Sahara was probably related to the development of the trans-Saharan trade. Written evidence and the design of camel saddles and patterns of camel use indicate a south-to-north diffusion of camel riding.

4. The camel made it possible for people from the southern highlands of the Sahara to roam the desert and to establish contacts with the people of the northern Sahara.

B. Trade Across the Sahara

1. Trade across the Sahara developed slowly when two local trading systems, one in the southern Sahara and one in the north, were linked. Traders in the southern Sahara had access to desert salt deposits and exported salt to the sub-Saharan regions in return for kola nuts and palm oil.

2. Roman colonists in the north exported agricultural products to Italy. In the third century C.E. transitions in with the decline of Rome, such as slowing trade, the abandonment of farms, and the growth of nomadism altered the connection that had existed before.

IV. Sub-Saharan Africa

A. A Challenging Geography

1. Sub-Saharan Africa is a large area with many different environmental zones and many geographical obstacles to movement.

2. Some of the significant geographical areas are the Sahel, the tropical savanna, the tropical rain forest of the lower Niger and Zaire, the savanna area south of the rain forest, steppe and desert below that, and the temperate highlands of South Africa.

B. The Development of Cultural Unity

1. Scholars draw a distinction between the “great traditions” of ruling elite culture in a civilization and the many “small traditions” of the common people.

2. In sub-Saharan Africa, no overarching great tradition developed. Sub-Saharan Africa is a vast territory of many small traditions. Historians know very little about the prehistory of these many small traditions and their peoples.

3. African cultures are highly diverse. The estimated two thousand spoken languages of the continent and the numerous different food production systems reflect the diversity of the African ecology and the difficulty of communication and trade between different groups. Another reason for the long dominance of small traditions is that no foreign power was able to conquer Africa and thus impose a unified great tradition.

C. African Cultural Characteristics

1. Despite their diversity, African cultures display certain common features that attest to an underlying cultural unity.

2. One of these common cultural features is a concept of kingship in which kings are ritually isolated and oversee societies in which the people are arranged in age groups and kinship divisions.

3. Other common features include cultivation with the hoe and digging stick, the use of rhythm in African music, and the functions of dancing and mask wearing in rituals.

4. One hypothesis offered to explain this cultural unity holds that the people of sub- Saharan Africa are descended from the people who occupied the southern Sahara during its wet period and migrated south to the Sahel, where their cultural traditions developed.

D. The Advent of Iron and the Bantu Migrations

1. Sub-Saharan agriculture had its origins north of the equator and then spread southward. Iron working also began north of the equator and spread southward.

2. Linguistic evidence suggests that the spread of iron and other technology in sub-Saharan Africa was the result of a phenomenon known as the Bantu migrations.

3. The original homeland of the Bantu people was in the area on the border of modern Nigeria and Cameroon. Evidence suggests that the Bantu people spread out toward the east and the south through a series of migrations over the period of the first millennium C.E.

V. The Spread of Ideas

A. Ideas and Material Evidence

1. It is extremely difficult, sometimes impossible, to trace the dissemination of ideas in preliterate societies. For example, eating pork was restricted or prohibited by religious belief in Southeast Asia, in ancient Egypt, and in eastern Iran. Because Southeast Asia was an early center of pig domestication, scholars hypothesize that the pig and the religious injunctions concerning eating the pig traveled together toward the west. This has not been proved.

2. Another difficult problem involves the invention of coins. In the Mediterranean world, the coins were invented in Anatolia and spread from there to Europe, North Africa, and India. Chinese made cast copper coins—was this inspired by the Anatolian example? There is no way of knowing.

B. The Spread of Buddhism

1. The spread of ideas in a deliberate and organized fashion such that we can trace it is a phenomenon of the first millennium C.E. This is particularly the case with the spread of Buddhism, Christianity, and Islam.

2. The spread of Buddhism was facilitated both by royal sponsorship and by the travels of ordinary pilgrims and missionaries. In India, the Mauryan king Ashoka and King Kanishka of the Kushans actively supported Buddhism. Two of the most well-known pilgrims who helped to transmit Buddhism to China were the Chinese monks Faxian and Xuanzang. Both have left reliable narrative accounts of their journeys.

3. Buddhist missionaries from India traveled to a variety of destinations: west to Syria, Egypt, and Mesopotamia, as well as to Sri Lanka, Southeast Asia, and Tibet.

4. Buddhism was changed and further developed in the lands to which it spread. Theravada Buddhism became dominant in Sri Lanka, Mahayana in Tibet, and Chan (Zen) in East Asia.

C. The Spread of Christianity

1. Armenia was an important entrepôt for the Silk Road trade. Mediterranean states spread Christianity to Armenia to bring that kingdom over to its side and thus deprive Iran of control of this area.

2. The transmission of Christianity to Ethiopia was similarly linked to a Mediterranean Christian attempt to deprive Iran of trade.

CHAPTER 9

Outline Chapter 9: The Sasanid Empire and the Rise of Islam, 200–1200

I. The Origins of Islam

A. The Arabian Peninsula Before Muhammad

1. Most Arabs were settled people. Nomads were a minority, but they were important in the caravan trade that linked Yemen to Mesopotamia and the Mediterranean. This caravan trade gave rise to and supported the merchants of caravan cities such as Petra and Palmyra. It also brought Arabs into contact with the Byzantine and Sasanid civilizations.

2. The nomads were polytheists who worshiped natural forces and celestial bodies, but they were also familiar with other religions, including Christianity.

3. Mecca was a caravan city between Yemen and Syria. Mecca was also a cult center that attracted nomads to worship the idols enshrined in a small cubical shrine called the Ka'ba.

B. Muhammad in Mecca

1. Muhammad was born in Mecca, grew up as an orphan, and then got involved in the caravan trade. In 610, he began receiving revelations that he concluded were the words of the one god, Allah. Others in his community believed that he might be possessed by a spirit.

2. The message of Muhammad's revelations was that there is one god, Allah, and that all people ought to submit to him. At the final judgment, those who had submitted to Allah would go to paradise; those who had not, to hell. Muhammad's revelations were considered to be the final revelations, following and superceding the earlier revelations of God to Noah, Moses, and Jesus.

C. The Formation of the Umma

1. Muhammad and his followers fled from Mecca to Medina in 622. In Medina, Muhammad's Meccan followers and converts from Medina formed a single community of believers, the umma.

2. During the last decade of Muhammad's life, the umma in Medina developed into the core of the Islamic state that would later expand to include all of Arabia and lands beyond in Africa, Europe, the Middle East, and Central Asia.

3. Muhammad's father-in-law Abu Bakr took over leadership of the umma as the successor (caliph) of Muhammad. Abu Bakr faced two main tasks: standardization of the Islamic religion and consolidation of the Islamic state. Abu Bakr successfully re-established Muslim authority over the Arabs and oversaw the compilation and organization of the Quran in book form.

4. Disagreements over the question of succession to the caliphate emerged following the assassination of the third caliph, Uthman. A civil war was fought between those who supported keeping the caliphate in Uthman's clan (the Ummaya) and those who supported the claim of Muhammad's first cousin and son-in-law Ali. The Umayya forces won and established the Umayyad Caliphate in 661.

5. These disagreements led to the development of three rival sects in the Muslim community. The Shi'ites supported Ali's claim to the caliphate and believed that the position of caliph rightly belonged to the descendants of Ali. Those known as the Sunnis believed that the first three caliphs had been correctly chosen and supported the Umayyad Caliphate. The most militant followers of Ali formed the Kharijite (rebel) sects. Most of the 800 million Muslims of today are either Sunnis or Shi'ites.

II. The Rise and Fall of the Caliphate, 632–1258

A. The Islamic Conquests, 634–711

1. The Islamic conquests of areas outside Arabia began in the seventh century. In the first wave of conquest, the Arabs took Syria, Egypt, and the Sasanid Empire. In the late seventh and early eighth centuries, Islamic forces took Tunisia, Spain, Algeria, Morocco, and Sind.

2. Common explanations for the rapidity of the Muslim advance include lust for booty, religious fanaticism, and the weakness of the foes of Islam. None of these explanations has a strong basis in fact. The most convincing explanation finds the causes of Muslim expansion in the talent of the Muslim leaders and the structure of Arab society.

3. During the period of expansion, the Arab forces were organized into regular, paid armies and kept in military camps and garrison towns so that they did not overrun the countryside. The Arab Muslims became minority rulers, thinly spread over non-Muslim societies that they dominated and taxed, but did not try to convert.

B. The Umayyad and Early Abbasid Caliphates, 661–850

1. The Umayyads ruled an Arab empire, not a Muslim empire. They administered their territory through the established Sasanid and Byzantine apparatus, gradually bringing in Muslim bureaucrats and the Arabic language. Rebellions overthrew the Umayyads in 750; one branch of the family, however, remained in power in Spain.

2. Upon the fall of the Umayyads, the family of Abbas—an uncle of Muhammad—took over and established the Abbasid Caliphate. The Abbasids, who held the caliphate until 1258, provided renewed religious leadership, which they combined with a style of rulership and royal ceremony derived from the Sasanids.

3. Literature and learning, including the translation of Greek texts and secular Arab poetry, thrived under the Abbasids. Baghdad was a center of Abbasid culture; other areas shared in this culture to varying extents. The Abbasid period also saw an acceleration of the rate of conversion of non-Muslim subjects to Islam in the ninth century.

C. Political Fragmentation, 850–1050

1. Abbasid power began to decline in the second half of the ninth century because the caliphs found it impossible to maintain control over their vast territory. One factor in the decline of Abbasid power was the difficulty of transportation and communications. Another factor was the dissatisfaction of the non-Muslim provincial populations with a political and economic system that was centered on Baghdad. In the ninth century, local revolts carved the Abbasid realm into smaller Muslim states that did not pay taxes or homage to the caliphs in Baghdad.

2. In Baghdad, the caliphs had come to rely on Turkish slave troops known as Mamluks. In the late ninth century, when they were not paid properly, the mamluks took control of the caliphate, choosing whomever they wanted to be caliph and dominating the government. Then in 945, the caliphate fell under the control of the Iranian Shi'ite Buyids. As the Abbasid Caliphate declined, various provincial regimes rose to power. These included the Samanids in Bukhara and the Fatimids in Egypt.

3. In Spain, the Umayyads held power over a society in which Islamic, Roman, German, and Jewish cultures combined to form a unique Iberian variant of Islamic civilization. Muslim Spain saw substantial urbanization; the introduction of citrus crops; a diverse, irrigated, agricultural sector; and a florescence of Muslim and Jewish intellectual activity.

4. Underlying the political diversity of the fragmented Muslim world was a strong sense of religious identity preserved by the religious scholars—the ulama.

D. Assault from Within and Without, 1050–1258

1. In Central Asia and the Middle East, another nomad group, the Seljuk Turks, took advantage of the decline of the Abbasids to establish the Suljuk Sultanate. The Seljuks ruled a territory stretching from Afghanistan to Baghdad and took Anatolia from the Byzantines in 1071.

2. Turkish depredations, the deterioration of the Tigris-Euphrates irrigation system, insufficient revenue, and insufficient food resources led to the collapse of the city of Baghdad.

3. The Crusades also put some pressure on the Islamic lands, but the Muslims were able to unite under Saladin and his descendants to drive the Christians out. However, Saladin's descendants were not able to restore unity and order to the Islamic world, which was hit by another Turkish invasion in 1250 and by the Mongol invasions of the thirteenth century.

III. Islamic Civilization

A. Law and Dogma

1. Islamic law—Shari'a—evolved over time in response to the Muslim community's need for a legal system. The most important source of law was the traditions of the Prophet (sunna) as revealed in reports (hadith) about his words or deeds.

2. Specialists on Islamic law collected and edited tens of thousands of hadith, discarding those that seemed to be spurious and publishing the others. The Shari'a, developed over centuries, held that all Muslims are brothers and sisters and shared the same moral values.

B. Converts and Cities

1. Conversion and urbanization were related. During the early period of Islamic expansion, converts to Islam needed to learn about their new religion and found that the best way to do so was to move to the wealthy, expanding urban areas where the Muslim population was concentrated. Discrimination in their native, rural, non-Muslim villages also spurred new converts to move to the cities.

2. Urban social life and the practice of Islam itself were varied because the Muslims had no central authority to prescribe religious dogma. The growing cities provided an expanding market for agricultural and manufactured products and contributed to an increase in trade.

3. In medicine and astronomy, Muslim scholars built on and surpassed the work of the Greek and Hellenistic civilizations and developed skills and theories far more sophisticated than those of Christian Europe.

C. Islam, Women, and Slaves

1. Muslim women were veiled and secluded as they had been previously in the Byzantine and the Sasanid empires. Women could be influential in the family, but only slave women could have a public role or appear in public before men.

2. Muslim women did have rights under Islamic law. These rights included the right to inherit and own property and to retain it in marriage, the right to divorce, to remarry, to testify in court, and to go on pilgrimage.

3. Stories about Muhammad's young wife A'isha illustrate what Muslims feared most about women: sexual infidelity and meddling in politics. Muhammad's faithful first wife Khadija and his daughter Fatima are held up as models of female propriety.

4. Islam did not permit homosexuality, but notable Muslims including rulers and poets advocated the practice of male homosexuality.

5. Muslims were not permitted to enslave their fellow Muslims, Jews, Christians, or Zoroastrians except when taken as prisoners of war. Muslims could and did hold non- Muslim slaves, but the status of slave was not hereditary.

D. The Recentering of Islam

1. The decline of the caliphate and factionalism within the ulama deprived Islam of a religious center. During the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, two new sources of religious authority developed: the madrasas (religious colleges) and the Sufi brotherhoods.

2. Sufi brotherhoods were mystic fraternities whose members sought union with God through rituals and training. The early Sufis were mystics who went into ecstasies and expressed their ideas in poetry; the Sufi brotherhoods developed into more prosaic organizations of Muslim men.

3. Sufi brotherhoods provided their members with spiritual guidance and rules for everyday life. The brotherhoods originated in the urban areas and then spread to the countryside.

IV. Comparative Perspectives

A. Similarities Between the Sasanid and Roman Empires

1. Both empires from the third to the seventh centuries forged strong relations between the ruler and the dominant religion.

2. As priestly hierarchies came to resemble governmental structures, citizens began to identify themselves more with religion than ruler. Consequently, founders of new religions, such as Muhammad, began commanding both political and religious loyalty.

B. Comparing Local and Universal Islam

1. The concept of the umma united all Muslims in a universal community, even though the religion spread out over diverse cultures and traditions.

2. New religious institutions such as the madrasas and Sufi brotherhoods also provided a sense of community for Muslims as they carried Islam into new regions.

CHAPTER 10

Outline Chapter 10: Christian Societies Emerge in Europe, 600–1200

I . The Byzantine Empire, 600–1200

A. An Empire Beleaguered

1. Following the Sasanids, the Muslim Arabs took the wealthy provinces of Syria, Egypt, and Tunisia from the Byzantine Empire and converted their people to Islam. These losses permanently reduced the power of the Byzantine Empire.

2. On the religious and political fronts, the Byzantine Empire experienced declining relations with the popes and princes of Western Europe and the formal schism between the Latin and Orthodox churches in 1054.

B. Society and Urban Life

1. The Byzantine Empire experienced a decline of urbanism similar to that seen in the west, but it was not as severe. One result was the loss of the middle class, so that Byzantine society was characterized by a tremendous gap between the wealth of the aristocrats and the poverty of the peasants.

2. In the Byzantine period, the family became more rigid; women were confined to their houses and wore veils if they went out. However, Byzantine women ruled alongside their husbands between 1028 and 1056, and women did not take refuge in nunneries.

3. The Byzantine emperors intervened in the economy by setting prices, controlling the provision of grain to the capital, and monopolizing trade on certain goods. As a result, Constantinople was well supplied, but the cities and rural areas of the rest of the empire lagged behind in terms of wealth and technology.

4. Gradually, Western Europeans began to view the Byzantine Empire as a crumbling power. For their part, Byzantines thought that westerners were uncouth barbarians.

C. Cultural Achievements

1. Legal scholars put together a collection of Roman laws and edicts under the title Body of Civil Law. This compilation became the basis of Western European civil law.

2. Byzantine architects developed the technique of making domed buildings. The Italian Renaissance architects adopted the dome in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.

3. In the ninth century, the Byzantine missionaries Cyril and Methodius preached to the Slavs of Moravia and taught their followers to write in the Cyrillic script.

II. Early Medieval Europe, 600–1000

A. A Time of Insecurity

1. In the fifth century, the Roman Empire broke down. Europe was politically fragmented, with Germanic kings ruling a number of dissimilar kingdoms.

2. Western Europe continued to suffer invasions because Muslim Arabs and Berbers took the Iberian Peninsula and pushed into France.

3. In the eighth century, the Carolingians united various Frankish kingdoms into a larger empire. At its height, under Charlemagne, the empire included Gaul and parts of Germany and Italy. The empire was subdivided by Charlemagne's grandsons and was never united again.

4. Vikings attacked England, France, and Spain in the late eighth and ninth centuries. Vikings also settled Iceland and Normandy, from which the Norman William the Conqueror invaded England in 1066.

B. A Self-Sufficient Economy

1. The fall of the Roman Empire was accompanied by an economic transformation that included de-urbanization and a decline in trade. Without the domination of Rome and its great tradition, regional elites became more self-sufficient and local small traditions flourished.

2. The medieval diet in the north was based on beer, lard or butter, and bread. In the south, the staples were wheat, wine, and olive oil.

3. Self-sufficient farming estates called manors were the primary centers of agricultural production. Manors grew from the need for self-sufficiency and self-defense.

4. The lord of a manor had almost unlimited power over his agricultural workers—the serfs. The conditions of agricultural workers varied because the tradition of a free peasantry survived in some areas.

C. Early Medieval Society in the West

1. During the early medieval period, a class of nobles emerged and developed into mounted knights. Landholding and military service became almost inseparable. The complex network of relationships between landholding and the obligation to provide military service to a lord is often referred to as feudalism.

2. The need for military security led to new military technology, including the stirrup, bigger horses, and the armor and weapons of the knight. This equipment was expensive, and knights therefore needed land to support themselves.

3. Kings and nobles granted land (a fief) to a man in return for a promise to supply military service. By the tenth century, these fiefs had become hereditary.

4. Kings were weak because they depended on their vassals—who might very well hold fiefs from and be obliged to more than one lord. Vassals held most of a king's realm, and most of the vassals granted substantial parts of land to their vassals.

5. Kings and nobles had limited ability to administer and tax their realms. Their power was further limited by their inability to tax the vast landholdings of the Church. For most medieval people, the lord's manor was the government.

6. Noble women were pawns in marriage politics. Women could own land, however, and non-noble women worked alongside the men.

III. The Western Church

A. Politics and the Church

1. The popes sought to combine their religious power with political power by forging alliances with kings and finally by choosing (in 962) to crown a German king as Holy Roman Emperor. The Holy Roman Empire was in fact no more than a loose coalition of German princes.

2. Even within the Holy Roman Empire, secular rulers argued that they should have the power to appoint bishops who held land in fief. Popes disagreed, which led to a conflict known as the investiture controversy. This issue was resolved through compromise in 1122. In England, conflict between secular power and the power of the church broke out when Henry II tried to bring the church under his control as part of a general effort to strengthen his power vis-à-vis the regional nobility.

3. Western Europe was heir to three legal traditions: Germanic feudal law, canon (church law), and Roman law. The presence of conflicting legal theories and legal jurisdictions was a significant characteristic of Western Europe.

B. Monasticism

1. Christian monasticism developed in Egypt in the fourth century on the basis of previous religious practices such as celibacy, devotion to prayer, and isolation from society.

2. In Western Europe, Benedict of Nursia (480–547) organized monasteries and supplied them with a set of written rules that governed all aspects of ritual and of everyday life. Thousands of men and women left society to devote themselves to monastic life.

3. Monasteries served a number of functions. They were centers of literacy and learning and refuges for widows and other vulnerable women. They also functioned as inns and orphanages and managed their own estates of agricultural land.

4. It was difficult for the Catholic hierarchy to exercise oversight over the monasteries. In the eleventh century, a reform movement developed within the monastic establishment when the abbey of Cluny worked to improve the administration and discipline of monasteries.

IV. Kievan Russia, 900–1200

A. The Rise of the Kievan State

1. Russia includes territory from the Black and Caspian Seas in the south to the Baltic and White Seas in the north. The territory includes a series of ecological zones running from east to west and is crossed by several navigable rivers.

2. In its early history, Russia was inhabited by a number of peoples of different language and ethnic groups whose territory shifted from century to century. What emerged was a general pattern of Slavs in the east, Finns in the north, and Turkic tribes in the south.

3. Forest dwellers, steppe nomads, and farmers in the various ecological zones traded with each other. Long-distance caravan trade linked Russia to the Silk Road, while Varangians (relatives of Vikings) were active traders on the rivers, and the Khazar Turks built a trading kingdom at the mouth of the Volga.

4. The Rus were societies of western Slav farmers ruled by Varangian nobles. Their most important cities were Kiev and Novgorod, both centers of trade.

5. In 980, Vladimir I became Grand Prince of Kiev. He chose Orthodox Christianity as the religion of his state and imitated the culture of the Byzantine Empire, building churches, adopting the Cyrillic alphabet, and orienting his trade toward the Byzantines.

6. Internal political struggles and conflict with external foes led to a decline of Kievan Russia after 1100.

B. Society and Culture

1. Kievan Russia had poor agricultural land, a short growing season, and primitive farming technology. Food production was low, and the political power of the Kievan state relied more on trade than it did on landholding.

2. The major cities of Kiev and Novgorod had populations of 30,000 to 50,000—much smaller than Constantinople or large Muslim cities. Kiev, Novgorod, and other much smaller urban areas were centers for craftspeople and artisans, whose social status was higher than that of peasants.

3. Christianity spread slowly in the Kievan state. Pagan customs and polygamy persisted until as late as the twelfth century. In the twelfth century, Christianity triumphed and the church became more powerful, with some clergy functioning as tax collectors for the state.

V. Western Europe Revives, 1000–1200

A. The Role of Technology

1. Western Europe's population and agricultural production increased in the period from 1000–1200, feeding a resurgence of trade and enabling kings to strengthen their control. Historians attribute the revival to new technologies and to the appearance of self-governing cities.

2. Historians agree that technology played a significant role in European population growth from 1000–1200. Among the technological innovations associated with this population growth are the heavy moldboard plow, the horse collar, and the breast-strap harness.

3. Historians are not sure whether the horse collar and breast-strap harness were disseminated to Europe from Central Asia or from Tunisia and Libya, nor is it precisely clear when and why European farmers began using teams of horses rather than the slower and weaker oxen to plow the heavy soils of northern Europe.

B. Cities and the Rebirth of the Trade

1. Independent, self-governing cities emerged first in Italy and Flanders. They relied on manufacturing and trade for their income, and they had legal independence so that their laws could favor manufacturing and trade.

2. In Italy, Venice emerged as a dominant sea power, trading in Muslim ports for spices and other goods. In Flanders, cities like Ghent imported wool from England and wove it into cloth for export.

3. The recovery of trade was accompanied by an increase in the use of high-value gold and silver coins, which had been rarely used in early medieval Europe. During the mid-twelfth century, Europeans began minting first silver and then gold coins.

VI. The Crusades, 1095–1204

A. The Roots of the Crusades

1. The Crusades were a series of Christian military campaigns against Muslims in the eastern Mediterranean between 1100 and 1200. Factors causing the Crusades included religious zeal, knights' willingness to engage in church-sanctioned warfare, a desire for land on the part of younger sons of the European nobility, and an interest in trade.

2. The tradition of pilgrimages, Muslim control of Christian religious sites, and the Byzantine Empire's requests for help against the Muslims combined to make the Holy Land the focus of the Crusades. In 1095, Pope Urban II initiated the First Crusade when he called upon the Europeans to stop fighting each other and fight the Muslims instead.

B. The Impact of the Crusades

1. The Crusades had a limited impact on the Muslim world. More significant was that the Crusaders ended Europe's intellectual isolation when Arabic and Greek manuscripts gave Europeans their first access to the work of the ancient Greek philosophers.

2. The Crusades had a significant impact on the lifestyle of European elites.

VII. Comparative Perspectives

A. Church Differences Between Western Europe and Byzantium

1. Church leaders developed different theological viewpoints and customs.

2. Western church leaders wrote their treatises in Latin; eastern church leaders wrote in Greek.

3. The eastern church was influenced by Arab conquests of the seventh century; the western church was not. Arabian conquests separated the two churches through an interruption in communication, leading to more distinctions in their development.

B. Political and Economic Distinctions Between Western Europe and Byzantium

1. Initially, the Byzantine Empire, following Roman political and legal heritage that had mostly faded in the west, enjoyed more economic prosperity and sophistication in the arts and culture than the west.

2. Christianity became embedded in Byzantine society before it did in the western church.

3. The Byzantine Empire did not witness the improved military techniques, new agricultural technologies, population growth, and trade of Western Europe, leading to its decline in prosperity and cultural innovation in comparison to the west.

CHAPTER 11

Outline Chapter 11: Inner and East Asia, 400–1200

I. The Tang Empires, 618–755

A. Tang Origins

1. The Tang Empire was established in 618. The Tang state carried out a program of territorial expansion, avoided over centralization, and combined Turkic influence with Chinese Confucian traditions.

B. Buddhism and the Tang Empire

1. The Tang emperors legitimized their control by using the Buddhist idea that kings are spiritual agents who bring their subjects into a Buddhist realm. Buddhist monasteries were important allies of the early Tang emperors; in return for their assistance, they received tax exemptions, land, and gifts.

2. Mahayana Buddhism was the most important school of Buddhism in Central Asia and East Asia. Mahayana beliefs were flexible, encouraged the adaptation of local deities into a Mahayana pantheon, and encouraged the translation of Buddhist texts into local languages.

3. Buddhism spread through Central and East Asia, following the trade routes that converged on the Tang capital, Chang'an. These trade routes also brought other peoples and cultural influences to Chang'an, making it a cosmopolitan city.

C. To Chang'an by Land and Sea

1. Chang'an was the destination of ambassadors from other states who were sent to China under the tributary system. The city of Chang'an itself had over a million residents, most of them living outside the city walls.

2. Foreigners in Chang'an lived in special compounds; urban residents lived in walled, gated residential quarters. Roads and canals, including the Grand Canal, brought people and goods to the city. With Chinese control over South China firmly established, Islamic and Jewish merchants from Western Asia came to China via the Indian Ocean trade routes.

3. Large Chinese commercial ships plied the sea routes to Southeast Asia, carrying large amounts of goods. Bubonic plague was also brought from West Asia to China along the sea routes.

D. Trade and Cultural Exchange

1. Tang China combined Central Asian influences, transmitted mostly by Turkic peoples, with Chinese culture, bringing polo, grape wine, tea, and spices. In trade, China lost its monopoly on silk but began to produce its own cotton, tea, and sugar.

2. Tang roads, river transport, and canals facilitated a tremendous growth in trade. Tang China exported far more than it imported, with high-quality silks and porcelain being among its most desired products.

II. Rivals for Power in Inner Asia and China, 600–907

A. The Uighur and Tibetan Empires

1. In the mid-eighth century, a Turkic group, the Uighurs, built an empire in Central Asia. The Uighurs were known as merchants and scribes, had strong ties to both Islam and China, and developed their own script. The Uighur Empire lasted for about fifty years.

2. Tibet was a large empire with access to Southeast Asia, China, and South and Central Asia. Tibet was thus open to Indian, Chinese, Islamic, and even (via Iran) Greek culture.

3. In the early Tang, relations between China and Tibet were friendly. The Tibetan king received a Chinese princess, and Mahayana Buddhism was brought to Tibet and combined with the local religion. But by the late 600s, friendly relations had given way to military rivalry in which Tibet allied with the southwestern kingdom of Nanchao against the Tang.

4. In the ninth century, a Tibetan king attempted to eliminate Buddhism but failed. Tibet then entered a long period of monastic rule and isolation.

B. Upheavals and Repression, 750–879

1. In the late ninth century, the Tang Empire broke the power of the Buddhist monasteries and Confucian ideology was reasserted. The reason for the crackdown was that Buddhism was seen as undermining the family system and eroding the tax base by accumulating tax-free land and attracting hundreds of thousands of people to become monks and nuns.

2. Buddhism also had been used to legitimize women's participation in politics. The most significant example of this is the career of Wu Zhao, who took control of the government and made herself emperor with the ideological and material support of Buddhism.

3. When Buddhism was repressed, Confucian scholars concocted accounts that painted highly critical portraits of Wu Zhao and other influential women in Chinese history. The crackdown on Buddhism also brought the destruction of many Buddhist cultural artifacts.

C. The End of the Tang Empire, 879–907

1. As its territory expanded and it faced internal rebellions, the Tang dynasty relied on powerful provincial military governors to maintain peace. In 907, the Tang state ended, and regional military governors established their own kingdoms.

2. None of these smaller kingdoms was able to integrate territory on the scale of the Tang. As a result, East Asia was cut off from communication with the Islamic world and Europe.

III. The Emergence of East Asia, to 1200

A. The Liao and Jin Challenge

1. After the fall of the Tang, a number of new states emerged in the former Tang territory: the Liao, the Jin, and the Chinese Song. As the Liao and Jin cut the Chinese off from Central Asia, the Song developed seafaring and strengthened contacts with Korea, Japan, and Southeast Asia.

2. The Liao state included nomads and settled agriculturalists. The Liao kings presented themselves to their various subjects as Confucian rulers, Buddhist monarchs, and nomadic leaders. The Liao rulers were of the Kitan ethnic group.

3. The Liao Empire lasted from 916–1121. The Liao had a strong military and forced the Song to give them annual payments of cash and silk in return for peace.

4. To rid themselves of the Liao, the Song helped the Jurchens of northeast Asia to defeat the Liao. The Jurchens established their own Jin Empire, turned on the Song, and drove them out of north and central China in 1127. The Song continued to reign in south China as the Southern Song Empire (1127–1279).

B. Song Industries

1. During the Song period, the Chinese made a number of technological innovations, many of them based on information that had been brought to China from West Asia during the cosmopolitan Tang era. Many of these innovations had to do with mathematics, astronomy, and calendar making.

2. In 1088, the engineer Su Song constructed a huge, chain-driven mechanical clock that told the time and the day of the month, and indicated the movements of the moon and certain stars and planets. Song inventors also improved the previously invented compass, making it suitable for seafaring.

3. In shipbuilding, the Song introduced the sternpost rudder and watertight bulkheads. These innovations were later adopted in the Persian Gulf.

4. The Song also had a standing, professionally trained, regularly paid military. Iron and coal were important strategic resources for the Song military. The Song produced large amounts of high-grade iron and steel for weapons, armor, and defensive works. The Song also developed and used gunpowder weapons in their wars.

C. Economy and Society in Song China

1. Song society was dominated by civilian officials and put higher value on civil pursuits than on military affairs. Song thinkers developed a sophisticated Neo-Confucian philosophy, while certain Buddhist sects, particularly Chan (Zen) continued to be popular.

2. The civil service examination system, introduced in the Tang, reached its mature form in the Song. The examination broke the domination of the hereditary aristocracy by allowing men to be chosen for government service on the basis of merit. However, men from poor families were unlikely to be able to devote the necessary time and resources to studying for the rigorous examinations.

3. With the invention of moveable type, the Song government was able to mass-produce authorized preparation texts for examination-takers. Printing also contributed to the dissemination of new agricultural technology and thus helped to increase agricultural production and spur population growth in South China.

4. During the Song period, China's population rose to 100 million. Population growth and economic growth fed the rise of large, crowded, but very well-managed cities like Hangzhou.

5. The Song period saw the wide use of an interregional credit system called flying money and the introduction of government-issued paper money. The paper money caused inflation and was later withdrawn.

6. The Song government was not able to control the market economy as closely as previous governments had done. Certain government functions, including tax collection, were privatized, and a new merchant elite thrived in the cities, their wealth derived from trade rather than land.

7. Women's status declined during the Song period. Women were entirely subordinated to men and lost their rights to own and manage property; remarriage was forbidden. Painfully bound feet became a mandatory status symbol for elite women. Working-class women and women from non-Han peoples of southern China did not bind their feet and had more independence than elite Han Chinese women did.

IV. New Kingdoms in East Asia

A. Korea

1. The Korean hereditary elite absorbed Confucianism and Buddhism from China and passed them along to Japan. The several small Korean kingdoms were united first by Silla in 668, and then by Koryo in the early 900s. Korea used woodblock printing as early as the 700s, and later invented moveable type, which it passed on to Song China.

B. Japan

1. Japan's mountainous terrain was home to hundreds of small states that were unified, perhaps by horse-riding warriors from Korea, in the fourth or fifth century. The unified state established its government at Yamato on Honshu Island.

2. In the mid-seventh century, the rulers of Japan implemented a series of political reforms to establish a centralized government, legal code, national histories, architecture, and city planning based on the model of Tang China. However, the Japanese did not copy the Chinese model uncritically: they adapted it to the needs of Japan and maintained their own concept of emperorship. The native religion of Shinto survived alongside the imported Buddhist religion.

3. Women of the aristocracy became royal consorts, thus linking the court with their own kinsmen. A constitution that influenced Japanese political thought for centuries was developed in 604 when Siuko, a woman from an immigrant aristocratic family, reigned as empress, taking over for her husband at his death in 592.

4. During the Heian period (794–1185), the Fujiwara clan dominated the Japanese government. The Heian period is known for the aesthetic refinement of its aristocracy and for the elevation of civil officials above warriors.

5. By the late 1000s, some warrior clans had become wealthy and powerful. After years of fighting, one warrior clan took control of Japan and established the Kamakura Shogunate, with its capital at Kamakura in eastern Honshu.

C. Vietnam

1. Geographical proximity and a similar, irrigated wet-rice agriculture made Vietnam suitable for integration with southern China. Economic and cultural assimilation took place during Tang and Song times, when the elite of Annam (northern Vietnam) modeled their high culture on that of the Chinese. When the Tang Empire fell, Annam established itself as an independent state under the name Dai Viet.

2. In southern Vietnam, the kingdom of Champa was influenced by Malay and Indian as well as by Chinese culture. During the Song period, when Dai Viet was established, Champa cultivated a relationship with the Song state and exported the fast-maturing Champa rice to China.

3. East Asian countries shared a common Confucian interest in hierarchy, but the status of women varied from country to country. Foot-binding was not common outside China. Before Confucianism was introduced to Annam, women there had a higher status than women in Confucian China. Nowhere, however, was the education of women considered valuable or even desirable.

CHAPTER 12

Outline Chapter 12: Mongol Eurasia and Its Aftermath, 1200–1500

I. The Rise of the Mongols, 1200–1260

A. Nomadism in Central and Inner Asia

1. Nomadic groups depended on scarce water and pasture resources; in times of scarcity, conflicts occurred, resulting in the extermination of smaller groups and in the formation of alliances and out-migration. Around the year 1000, the lands inhabited by the Mongols experienced unusually dry weather, with its attendant effects on the availability of resources and pressures on the nomadic Mongol tribes.

2. Mongol groups were strongly hierarchical organizations headed by a single leader or khan, but the khans had to ask that their decisions be ratified by a council of the leaders of powerful families. Powerful Mongol groups demanded and received tribute in goods and in slaves from those less powerful. Some groups were able to live almost entirely on tribute.

3. The various Mongol groups formed complex federations that were often tied together by marriage alliances. Women from prestigious families often played an important role in negotiating these alliances. Wives and mothers of rulers traditionally managed state affairs between the death of a ruler and the selection of a successor, often working to secure a relative to the position.

4. The seasonal movements of the Mongol tribes brought them into contact with Manicheanism, Judaism, Christianity, Buddhism, and Islam. The Mongols accepted religious pluralism. Mongol khans were thought to represent the Sky God, who transcended all cultures and religions; khans were thus conceived of as universal rulers who both transcended and used the various religions of their subjects.

B. The Mongol Conquests, 1215–1283

1. Between 1206 and 1234, under the leadership of Genghis Khan and his successors, the Mongols conquered all of North China and were threatening the Southern Song. During this period and onward to about 1265, the Mongol realms were united because the khans of the Golden Horde, the Jagadai domains of Central Asia, and the Il-khans all recognized the authority of the Great Khan in Mongolia.

2. When Khubilai declared himself Great Khan in 1265, the other Mongol khans refused to accept him.

3. Khubilai founded the Yuan Empire, with its capital at Beijing in 1271; in 1279, he conquered the Southern Song. After 1279, the Yuan attempted to extend its control to Southeast Asia. Annam and Champa were forced to pay tribute to the Yuan, but an expedition to Java ended in failure.

4. Historians have pointed to a number of factors that may have contributed to the Mongols' ability to conquer such vast territories. These factors include superior horsemanship, better bows, and the technique of following a volley of arrows with a deadly cavalry charge. Other reasons for the Mongols' success include their ability to learn new military techniques, adopt new military technology, and incorporate non-Mongol soldiers into their armies; their reputation for slaughtering all those who would not surrender; and their ability to take advantage of rivalries among their enemies.

C. Overland Trade and the Plague

1. The Mongol conquests opened overland trade routes and brought about an unprecedented commercial integration of Eurasia. The growth of long-distance trade under the Mongols led to significant transfer of military and scientific knowledge among Europe, the Middle East, China, Iran, and Japan.

2. Diseases including the bubonic plague also spread over the trade routes of the Mongol Empire. The plague that had lingered in Yunnan (now southwest China) was transferred to central and north China, to Central Asia, to Kaffa, and from there to the Mediterranean world.

II. The Mongols and Islam, 1260–1500

A. Mongol Rivalry

1. In the 1260s, the Il-khan Mongol Empire controlled parts of Armenia and all of Azerbaijan, Mesopotamia, and Iran. Relations between the Buddhist/shamanist Il-khan Mongols and their Muslim subjects were tense because the Mongols had murdered the last Abbasid caliph and because Mongol religious beliefs and customs were contrary to those of Islam.

2. At the same time, Russia was under the domination of the Golden Horde, led by Genghis Khan's grandson Batu, who had converted to Islam and announced his intention to avenge the last caliph. This led to the first conflict between Mongol domains.

3. During this conflict, European leaders attempted to make an alliance with the Il-khans to drive the Muslims out of Syria, Lebanon, and Palestine, while the Il-khans sought European help in driving the Golden Horde out of the Caucasus. These plans for an alliance never came to fruition because the Il-khan ruler Ghazan became a Muslim in 1295.

B. Islam and the State

1. The goal of the Il-khan State was to collect as much tax revenue as possible, which it did through a tax farming system.

2. In the short term, the tax farming system was able to deliver large amounts of grain, cash, and silk. In the long term, overtaxation led to increases in the price of grain; a shrinking tax base; and, by 1295, a severe economic crisis.

3. Attempts to end the economic crisis through tax reduction programs coupled with the introduction of paper money failed to avert a depression that lasted until 1349. Thus, the Ilkhan domains fragmented as Mongol nobles fought each other for diminishing resources and Mongols from the Golden Horde attacked and dismembered the Il-khan Empire.

4. As the Il-khan Empire and the Golden Horde declined in the fourteenth century, Timur, the last Central Asian conqueror, built the Jagadai Khanate in central and western Eurasia. Timur's descendants, the Timurids, ruled the Middle East for several generations.

C. Culture and Science in Islamic Eurasia

1. In literature, the historian Juvaini wrote the first comprehensive account of the rise of the Mongols under Genghis Khan. Juvaini's work inspired the work of Rashid al-Din, who produced a history of the world that was published in a number of beautifully illustrated editions. Rashid al-Din, a Jew converted to Islam who served as adviser to the Il-khan ruler, was a good example of the cosmopolitanism of the Mongol world. The Timurids also supported notable historians, including the Moroccan Ibn Khaldun (1332–1406).

2. Muslims under Mongol rulership also made great strides in astronomy, calendar making, and the prediction of eclipses. Their innovations included the use of epicycles to explain the movement of the moon around the earth, the invention of more precise astronomical instruments, and the collection of astronomical data from all parts of the Islamic world and China for predicting eclipses with greater accuracy.

3. In mathematics, Muslim scholars adapted the Indian numerical system, devised the method for indicating decimal fractions, and calculated the value of pi more accurately than had been done in classical times. Muslim advances in science, astronomy, and mathematics were passed along to Europe and had a significant effect on the development of European science and mathematics.

III. Regional Responses in Western Eurasia

A. Russia and Rule from Afar

1. After they defeated the Kievan Rus, the Mongols of the Golden Horde made their capital at the mouth of the Volga, which was also the end of the overland caravan route from Central Asia. From their capital, the Mongols ruled Russia "from afar," leaving the Orthodox Church in place and using the Russian princes as their agents. As in other Mongol realms, the main goal of the Golden Horde was to extract as much tax revenue as possible from their subjects.

2. Because Prince Alexander of Novgorod had assisted the Mongols in their conquest of Russia, the Mongols favored Novgorod and Moscow (ruled by Prince Alexander's brother). The favor shown to Novgorod and Moscow combined with the Mongol devastation of the Ukrainian countryside caused the Russian population to shift from Kiev toward Novgorod and Moscow, and Moscow emerged as the new center of the Russian civilization.

3. Some historians believe that Mongol domination had a negative effect on Russia, bringing economic depression and cultural isolation. Other historians argue that the Kievan state was already declining when the Mongols came, the overtaxation of Russians under Mongol rule was the work of the Russian princes, Russia was isolated by the Orthodox church, and the structure of Russian government did not change appreciably under Mongol rule.

4. Ivan III, the prince of Moscow, ended Mongol rule in 1480 and adopted the title of tsar.

B. New States in Eastern Europe and Anatolia

1. Europe was divided between the political forces of the papacy and those of the Holy Roman Emperor Frederick II. Under these conditions, the states of Eastern Europe—particularly Hungary and Poland—faced the Mongol attacks alone.

2. The Mongol armies that attacked Europe were actually an international force including Mongols, Turks, Chinese, Iranians, and Europeans and led by Mongol generals..

3. After the Mongol withdrawal, Europeans initiated a variety of diplomatic and trade overtures toward the Mongols. Contact between Europeans and Mongols increased through the thirteenth century and brought knowledge of geography, natural resources, commerce, science, technology and mathematics from various parts of the Mongol realms to Europe. At the same time, the Mongol invasions and the bubonic plague caused Europeans to question their accepted customs and religious beliefs.

4. The rise and fall of Mongol domination in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries was accompanied by the rise of stronger centralized states, including Lithuania and the various Balkan kingdoms. Lithuania in particular was able to capitalize on the decline of Mongol power to assert control over its neighbors, particularly Poland.

5. During the period of Mongol domination, Anatolia functioned as a route by which Islamic culture was transferred to Europe via Constantinople. The Ottomans, who established themselves in eastern Anatolia in the 1300s but were kept in check by the Timurids, expanded eastward in the 1400s and conquered Constantinople in 1453.

IV. Mongol Domination in China, 1271–1368

A. The Yuan Empire, 1279–1368

1. Khubilai Khan understood and practiced Chinese traditions of government. He constructed a Chinese-style capital at Beijing and a summer capital at Shangdu, where he and his courtiers could practice riding and shooting.

2. When the Mongols came to China, it was politically fragmented, consisting of three states: the Tanggut, the Jin, and the Southern Song. The Mongols unified these states and restored or preserved the characteristic features of Chinese government.

3. The Mongols also made some innovations in government. These included tax farming, the use of Western Asian Muslims as officials, and a hierarchical system of legally defined status groups defined in terms of race and function. Under the Yuan hierarchical system, Confucians had a relatively weak role, while the status of merchants and doctors was elevated.

4. Under Mongol rule, China's cities and ports prospered, trade recovered, and merchants flourished. Merchants organized corporations to pool money and share risks. The flourishing mercantile economy led the Chinese gentry elite to move into the cities, where a lively urban culture of popular entertainment, vernacular literature, and the Mandarin dialect of Chinese developed.

5. In the rural areas, cotton growing, spinning, and weaving were introduced to mainland China from Hainan Island, and the Mongols encouraged the construction of irrigation systems. In general, however, farmers in the Yuan were overtaxed and brutalized, while dams and dikes were neglected.

6. During the Yuan period, China's population declined by perhaps as much as 40 percent, with northern China seeing the greatest loss of population; however, the Yangzi Valley actually saw a significant increase. Possible reasons for this pattern include warfare; the flooding of the Yellow River; north-south migration; and the spread of diseases, including the bubonic plague in the 1300s.

B. The Fall of the Yuan Empire

1. In 1368, the Chinese leader Zhu Yuanzhang brought an end to years of chaos and rebellion when he overthrew the Mongols and established the Ming Empire. The Mongols continued to hold power in Mongolia, Turkestan, and Central Asia, from which they were able to disrupt the overland Eurasian trade and threaten the Ming dynasty.

2. The Ming Empire was also threatened on its northeastern borders by the Jurchens of Manchuria. The Jurchens, who had been influenced by Mongolian culture, posed a significant threat to the Ming by the late 1400s.

V. The Early Ming Empire, 1368–1500

A. Ming China on a Mongol Foundation

1. Former monk, soldier, and bandit, Zhu Yuanzhang established the Ming Empire in 1368. Zhu's regime established its capital in Nanjing and made great efforts to reject the culture of the Mongols, close off trade relations with Central Asia and the Middle East, and reassert the primacy of Confucian ideology.

2. At a deeper level, the Ming actually continued many institutions and practices that had been introduced during the Yuan. Areas of continuity include the Yuan provincial structure that maintained closer control over local affairs; the use of hereditary professional categories; the Mongol calendar; and, starting with the reign of the Yongle emperor, the use of Beijing as capital.

3. Between 1405 and 1433, the Ming dispatched a series of expeditions to Southeast Asia and the Indian Ocean under the Muslim eunuch admiral Zheng He. The goals of these missions were to reestablish trade links with the Middle East and bring Southeast Asian countries and their overseas Chinese populations under Chinese control, or at least under its influence.

4. Zheng He's expeditions retraced routes that were largely known to the Chinese already. The voyages added as many as fifty countries to China's list of tributaries. However, there was no significant increase in long-distance trade and the voyages were, overall, not profitable.

5. Many historians wonder why the voyages ceased and whether or not China could have gone on to become a great mercantile power or acquire an overseas empire. In answering this question, it is useful to remember that the Zheng He voyages did not use new technology, were not profitable, were undertaken as the personal project of the Yongle Emperor, and may have been inspired partly by his need to prove his worth.

6. The end of the Zheng He voyages may also be related to the need to use limited resources for other projects, including coastal defense against Japanese pirates and defense of the northern borders against the Mongols. The end of the Zheng He voyages was not the end of Chinese seafaring: it was only the end of the state's organization and funding of such large-scale expeditions.

B. Technology and Population

1. The Ming saw less technological innovation than the Song; in the area of metallurgy, the Chinese lost the knowledge of how to make high-quality bronze and steel. Reasons for the slowdown in technological innovation include the high cost of metals and wood, the revival of a civil service examination system that rewarded scholarship and administration, a labor glut, lack of pressure from technologically sophisticated enemies, and a fear of technology transfer.

2. Korea and Japan moved ahead of China in technological innovation. Korea excelled in firearms, shipbuilding, meteorology, and calendar making, while Japan surpassed China in mining, metallurgy, and novel household goods.

C. The Ming Achievement

1. The Ming was a period of great wealth, consumerism, and cultural brilliance.

2. One aspect of Ming popular culture was the development of vernacular novels like Water Margin and Romance of the Three Kingdoms. The Ming was also known for its porcelain making and for other goods, including furniture, lacquered screens, and silk.

VI. Centralization and Militarism in East Asia, 1200–1500

A. Korea from the Mongols to the Yi, 1231–1500

1. Korea's leaders initially resisted the Mongol invasions but gave up in 1258 when the king of Koryo surrendered and joined his family to the Mongols by marriage. The Koryo kings then fell under the influence of the Mongols, and Korea profited from exchange with the Yuan in which new technologies, including cotton, gunpowder, astronomy, calendar making, and celestial clocks, were introduced.

2. Koryo collapsed shortly after the fall of the Yuan and was replaced by the Yi dynasty. Like the Ming, the Yi reestablished local identity and restored the status of Confucian scholarship while maintaining Mongol administrative practices and institutions.

3. Technological innovations of the Yi period include the use of moveable type in copper frames, meteorological science, a local calendar, the use of fertilizer, and the engineering of reservoirs. The growing of cash crops, particularly cotton, became common during the Yi period.

4. The Koreans were innovators in military technology. Among their innovations were patrol ships with cannon mounted on them, gunpowder arrow-launchers, and armored ships.

B. Political Transformation in Japan, 1274–1500

1. The first (unsuccessful) Mongol invasion of Japan in 1274 made the decentralized local lords of Kamakura Japan develop a greater sense of unity as the shogun took steps to centralize planning and preparation for the expected second assault.

2. The second Mongol invasion (1281) was defeated by a combination of Japanese defensive preparations and a typhoon. The Kamakura regime continued to prepare for further invasions. As a result, the warrior elite consolidated their position in Japanese society, and trade and communication within Japan increased, but the Kamakura government found its resources strained by the expense of defense preparations.

3. The Kamakura shogunate was destroyed in a civil war, and the Ashikaga shogunate was established in 1338. The Ashikaga period was characterized by a relatively weak shogunal state and strong provincial lords who sponsored the development of markets, religious institutions, schools, and increased agricultural production.

4. The delicate artistry and the simple elegance of architecture and gardens were influenced by the popularity of Zen Buddhism, which emphasizes meditation over ritual.

5. After the Onin War of 1477, precipitated by conflict over succession upon Yoshimasa's retirement, the shogunate exercised no power and the provinces were controlled by independent regional lords who fought with each other. The regional lords also carried out trade with continental Asia.

C. The Emergence of Vietnam, 1200–1500

1. The area of Vietnam was divided between two states: the Chinese-influenced Annam in the north and the Indian-influenced Champa in the south. The Mongols extracted tribute from both states, but with the fall of the Yuan Empire, they began to fight with each other.

2. The Ming ruled Annam through a puppet government for almost thirty years in the early fifteenth century until the Annamese threw off Ming control in 1428. By 1500, Annam had completely conquered Champa and established a Chinese-style government over all of Vietnam.

VII. Conclusion

A. Trade between China and Europe received active Mongol stimulation through the protection of routes and encouragement of industrial production.

B. The Mongols ruled with an unprecedented openness, employing talented people irrespective of their linguistic, ethnic, or religious affiliations, generating an exchange of ideas, techniques, and products across the breadth of Eurasia.

C. Where Mongol military activity reached its limit of expansion, it stimulated local aspirations for independence.

D. In China, Korea, Annam, and Japan the threat of Mongol attack and domination encouraged centralization of government, improvement of military techniques, and renewed stress on local cultural identity.

CHAPTER 13

Outline Chapter 13: Latin Europe, 1200–1500

I. Rural Growth and Crisis

A. Peasants, Population, and Plague

1. In 1200 C.E., most Europeans were peasants, bound to the land in serfdom and using inefficient agricultural practices. Fifteen to thirty such heavily taxed farming families supported each noble household.

2. Women labored in the fields with men but were subordinate to them.

3. Europe's population more than doubled between 1000 and 1445. Population growth was accompanied by new agricultural technologies in northern Europe, including the vthree-field system and the cultivation of oats.

4. As population grew, people opened new land for cultivation, including land with poor soil and poor growing conditions. This caused a decline in average crop yields beginning around 1250.

5. The population pressure was eased by the Black Death (bubonic plague), which was brought from Kaffa to Italy and southern France in 1346. The plague ravaged Europe for two years and returned periodically in the late 1300s and 1400s, causing substantial decreases in population.

B. Social Rebellion

1. As a result of the plague, labor became more expensive in Western Europe. This gave rise to a series of peasant and worker uprisings, higher wages, and the end of serfdom.

2. Rural living standards improved, the period of apprenticeship for artisans was reduced, and per capita income rose.

C. Mines and Mills

1. Between 1200 and 1500, Europeans invented and used a variety of mechanical devices including water wheels and windmills. Mills were expensive to build, but over time they brought great profits to their owners.

2. Industrial enterprises, including mining, ironworking, stone quarrying, and tanning, grew during these centuries. The results included both greater productivity and environmental damage, including water pollution and deforestation.

II. Urban Revival

A. Trading Cities

1. Increases in trade and in manufacturing contributed to the growth of cities after 1200. The relationship among trade, manufacturing, and urbanization is demonstrated in the growth of the cities of northern Italy and in the urban areas of Champagne and Flanders.

2. The Venetian capture of Constantinople (1204); the opening of the Central Asian caravan trade under the Mongol Empire; and the post-Mongol development of the Mediterranean galley trade with Constantinople, Beirut, and Alexandria brought profits and growth to Venice. The increase in sea trade also brought profits to Genoa in the Mediterranean and to the cities of the Hanseatic League in the Baltic and the North Sea.

3. Flanders prospered from its woolen textile industries, while the towns of Champagne benefited from their position on the major land route through France and the series of trade fairs sponsored by their nobles.

4. Textile industries also began to develop in England and in Florence. Europeans made extensive use of water wheels and windmills in the textile, paper, and other industries.

B. Civic Life

1. Some European cities were city-states, while others enjoyed autonomy from local nobles: they were thus better able to respond to changing market conditions than Chinese or Islamic cities. European cities also offered their citizens more freedom and social mobility.

2. Most of Europe's Jews lived in the cities. Jews were subject to persecution everywhere but Rome; they were blamed for disasters like the Black Death and expelled from Spain.

3. Guilds regulated the practice of and access to trades. Women were rarely allowed to join guilds, but they did work in unskilled non-guild jobs in the textile industry and in the food and beverage trades.

4. The growth in commerce gave rise to bankers like the Medicis of Florence and the Fuggers of Augsburg, who handled financial transactions for merchants, the church, and the kings and princes of Europe. Because the Church prohibited usury, many moneylenders were Jews; Christian bankers got around the prohibition through such devices as asking for gifts in lieu of interest.

C. Gothic Cathedrals

1. Gothic cathedrals are the masterpieces of late medieval architecture and craftsmanship. Their distinctive features include the pointed Gothic arch, flying buttresses, high towers and spires, and large interiors lit by huge windows.

2. The men who designed and built the Gothic cathedrals had no formal training in design and engineering; they learned through their mistakes.

III. Learning, Literature, and the Renaissance

A. Universities and Scholarship

1. After 1100, Western Europeans got access to Greek and Arabic works on science, philosophy, and medicine. These manuscripts were translated and explicated by Jewish scholars and studied at Christian monasteries, which remained the primary centers of learning.

2. After 1200, colleges and universities emerged as new centers of learning. Some were established by students; most were teaching guilds established by professors to oversee the training, control the membership, and fight for the interests of the profession.

3. Universities generally specialized in a particular branch of learning; Bologna was famous for its law faculty, others for medicine or theology. Theology was the most prominent discipline of the period because theologians sought to synthesize the rational philosophy of the Greeks with the Christian faith of the Latin West in an intellectual movement known as scholasticism.

B. Humanists and Printers

1. Dante Alighieri (1265–1321) and Geoffrey Chaucer (1340–1400) were among the great writers of the later Middle Ages. Dante's Divine Comedy tells the story of the author's journey through the nine layers of Hell and his entry into Paradise, while Chaucer's Canterbury Tales is a rich portrayal of the lives of everyday people in late medieval England.

2. Dante influenced the intellectual movement of the humanists—men such as Petrarch and Boccaccio, who were interested in the humanities and in the classical literature of Greece and Rome. The humanists had a tremendous influence on the reform of secondary education.

3. Some of the humanists wrote in the vernacular. Most of them wrote in Latin; many worked to restore the original texts of Latin and Greek authors and of the Bible through exhaustive comparative analysis of the many various versions that had been produced over the centuries. As a part of this enterprise, Pope Nicholas V established the Vatican Library, and the Dutch humanist Erasmus produced a critical edition of the New Testament.

4. The influence of the humanist writers was increased by the development of the printing press. Johann Gutenberg perfected the art of printing in 1454; Gutenberg's press and more than two hundred others had produced at least 10 million printed works by 1500.

C. Renaissance Artists

1. Fourteenth- and fifteenth-century artists built on the more natural paintings of Giotto as they developed a style of painting that concentrated on the depiction of Greek and Roman gods and of scenes from daily life. The realistic style was also influenced by Jan van Eyck's development of oil paints. Leonardo da Vinci and Michelangelo were two of the famous artists of this period.

2. Wealthy merchant and clerical patrons like the Medicis of Florence and the church contributed to the development of Renaissance art. The artistic and intellectual developments of the Renaissance did not stop in Europe; the university, printing, and oil painting were later adopted all over the world.

IV. Political and Military Transformations

A. Monarchs, Nobles, and the Church

1. Thirteenth-century European states were ruled by weak monarchs whose power was limited by their modest treasuries, the regional nobility, the independent towns, and the church.

2. Two changes in weaponry began to undermine the utility—and therefore the economic position—of the noble knights. These two innovations were the armor-piercing crossbow and the development of firearms.

3. King Philip the Fair of France reduced the power of the church when he arrested the pope and had a new (French) one installed at Avignon, but monarchs still faced resistance, particularly from their stronger vassals. In England, the Norman conquest of 1066 had consolidated and centralized royal power, but the kings continued to find their power limited by the pope and by the English nobles, who forced the king to recognize their hereditary rights as defined in the Magna Carta.

B. The Hundred Years War

1. The Hundred Years War pitted France against England, whose King Edward III claimed the French throne in 1337. The war was fought with the new military technology: crossbows; longbows; pikes (for pulling knights off their horses); and firearms, including an improved cannon.

2. The French, whose superior cannon destroyed the castles of the English and their allies, finally defeated the English. The war left the French monarchy in a stronger position than before.

C. New Monarchies in France and England

1. The new monarchies that emerged after the Hundred Years War had stronger central governments, more stable national boundaries, and stronger representative institutions. Both the English and the French monarchs consolidated their control over their nobles.

2. The advent of new military technology—cannon and hand-held firearms—meant that the castle and the knight were outdated. The new monarchs depended on professional standing armies of bowmen, pikemen, musketeers, and artillery units.

3. The new monarchs had to find new sources of revenue to pay for these standing armies. To raise money, the new monarchs taxed land, merchants, and the church.

4. By the end of the fifteenth century, there had been a shift in power away from the nobility and the church and toward the monarchs. This process was not complete, however, and monarchs were still hemmed in by the nobles, the church, and by new parliamentary institutions: the Parliament in England and the Estates General in France.

D. Iberian Unification

1. Spain and Portugal emerged as strong centralized states through a process of marriage alliances, mergers, warfare, and the reconquest of the Iberian Peninsula from the Muslims. Reconquest offered the nobility large landed estates upon which they could grow rich without having to work.

2. The reconquest took place over a period of several centuries, but it picked up after the Christians put the Muslims on the defensive with a victory in 1212.

3 Portugal became completely established in 1249. In 1415, the Portuguese captured the Moroccan port of Ceuta, which gave them access to the Saharan trade.

4. On the Iberian Peninsula, Castile and Aragon were united in 1469 and the Muslims were driven out of their last Iberian stronghold (Granada) in 1492. Spain then expelled all Jews and Muslims from its territory; Portugal also expelled its Jewish population.

V. Conclusion

A. Ecologically, the peoples of Latin Europe harnessed the power of wind and water and mined and refined their mineral wealth at the cost of pollution and deforestation. A demographic crisis climaxed with the Black Death in the mid-fourteenth century.

B. Politically, frequent wars caused kingdoms of moderate size to develop exceptional military strength.

C. Culturally, autonomous universities and printing supported the advance of knowledge while new inventions underlay the new dynamism in commerce, warfare, industry, and navigation.

D. Many of the tools that the Latin West used to challenge Eastern supremacy originated in the East. From the eleventh century onward, population pressure, religious zeal, economic enterprise, and intellectual curiosity drove expansion of territory and resources.

CHAPTER 14

Outline Chapter 14: Southern Empires, Southern Seas, 1200–1500

I. Tropical Lands and Peoples

A. The Tropical Environment

1. The tropical zone falls between the Tropic of Cancer in the north and the Tropic of Capricorn in the south. The Afro-Asian tropics have a cycle of rainy and dry seasons dictated by the alternating winds known as monsoons.

2. While those parts of the tropics such as coastal West Africa, west-central Africa, and southern India get abundant rainfall, there is also an arid zone extending across northern Africa (the Sahara) and northwest India, and another arid zone in southwestern Africa. Altitude also affects climate, with high-altitude mountain ranges and plateaus having cooler weather and shorter growing seasons than the low-altitude coastal plains and river valleys.

B. Human Ecosystems

1. Human societies adopted different means of surviving to fit into the different ecological zones found in the tropics. In areas such as central Africa, the upper altitudes of the Himalayas, and some seacoasts, wild food and fish was so abundant that human societies thrived without having developed agricultural or herding economies.

2. Human communities in the arid areas of the tropics relied on herding and supplemented their diets with grain and vegetables obtained through trade with settled agriculturalists. The vast majority of the people of the tropics were farmers who cultivated various crops (rice, wheat, sorghum millet, etc.) depending on the conditions of soil, climate, and water.

3. In those parts of South and Southeast Asia that had ample water supplies, intensive agriculture transformed the environment and supported dense populations. In most parts of sub-Saharan Africa and many parts of Southeast Asia, farmers abandoned their fields every few years and cleared new areas by cutting and burning the natural vegetation.

C. Water Systems and Irrigation

1. The tropics have an uneven distribution of rainfall during the year. To have year-round access to water for intensive agriculture, tropical farming societies constructed dams, irrigation canals, and reservoirs.

2. In India, Cambodia, and Sri Lanka, governments mobilized vast resources to construct and maintain large irrigation and water-control projects. Such huge projects increased production, but they were highly vulnerable to natural disasters and political disruptions. In contrast, the smaller irrigation systems constructed at the village level were easier to reconstruct and provided greater long-term stability.

D. Mineral Resources

1. Tropical peoples used iron for agricultural implements, weapons, and needles. Copper, particularly important in Africa, was used to make wire and decorative objects. Africa was also known for its production of gold.

2. Metalworking and food-producing systems mobilized the labor of ordinary people to produce surpluses that in places supported powerful states and profitable commercial systems. Neither of those elite enterprises would have been possible without the work of ordinary people.

II. New Islamic Empires

A. Mali in the Western Sudan

1. Islam spread to sub-Saharan Africa by a gradual process of peaceful conversion. Conversion was facilitated by commercial contacts.

2. In 1240, Sundiata (the Muslim leader of the Malinke people) established the kingdom of Mali. Mali's economy rested on agriculture and was supplemented by control of regional and trans-Saharan trading routes and by control of the gold mines of the Niger headwaters.

3. The Mali ruler Mansa Kankan Musa (r. 1312–1337) demonstrated his fabulous wealth during a pilgrimage to Mecca. When he returned to Mali, Mansa Musa established new mosques and Quran schools.

4. The kingdom of Mali declined and collapsed in the mid- to late fifteenth century because of rebellions from within and attacks from without. Intellectual life and trade moved to other African states, including the Hausa states and Kanem-Bornu.

B. The Delhi Sultanate in India

1. Between 1206 and 1236, the divided states of northwest India were defeated by violent Muslim Turkish conquerors under the leadership of Sultan Iltutmish, who established the Delhi Sultanate as a Muslim state. Although the Muslim elite then settled down to rule India relatively peacefully, their Hindu subjects never forgave the violence of the conquest.

2. Iltutmish passed his throne on to his daughter, Raziya. Raziya was a talented ruler, but she was driven from office by men unwilling to accept a female monarch. Under Ala-ud-din (r. 1296–1316) and Muhammad ibn Tughluq (r. 1325–1351), the Delhi Sultanate carried out a policy of aggressive territorial expansion that was accompanied (in the case of Tughluq) by a policy of religious toleration toward Hindus—a policy that was reversed by Tughluq's successor.

3. In general, the Delhi sultans ruled by terror and were a burden on their subjects. In the mid-fourteenth century, internal rivalries and external threats undermined the stability of the sultanate. The sultanate was destroyed when Timur sacked Delhi in 1398.

III. Indian Ocean Trade

A. Monsoon Mariners

1. The Indian Ocean trade increased between 1200 and 1500, stimulated by the prosperity of Europe, Asia, and African and Southeast Asian states.

2. In the Red and Arabian Seas, trade was carried on dhows. From India on to Southeast Asia, junks dominated the trade routes.

3. Junks were technologically advanced vessels, having watertight compartments and up to twelve sails, and carrying cargoes of up to 1,000 tons. Junks were developed in China, but during the fifteenth century, junks were also built in Bengal and Southeast Asia and sailed with crews from those places.

4. The Indian Ocean trade was decentralized and cooperative, with various regions supplying particular goods. In each region, a certain port functioned as the major emporium for trade in which goods from smaller ports were consolidated and shipped onward.

B. Africa: The Swahili Coast and Zimbabwe

1. By 1500, there were thirty or forty separate city-states along the East African coast participating in the Indian Ocean trade. The people of these coastal cities, the Swahili people, all spoke an African language enriched with Arabic and Persian vocabulary.

2. Swahili cities, including Kilwa, were famous as exporters of gold that was mined in or around the inland kingdom whose capital was Great Zimbabwe.

3. Great Zimbabwe's economy rested on agriculture, cattle herding, and trade. The city declined due to an ecological crisis brought on by deforestation and overgrazing.

C. Arabia: Aden and the Red Sea

1. Aden had enough rainfall to produce wheat for export and a location that made it a central transit point for trade from the Persian Gulf, East Africa, and Egypt. Aden's merchants prospered on this trade and built what appeared to travelers to be a wealthy and impressive city.

2. In general, a common interest in trade allowed the various peoples and religions of the Indian Ocean Basin to live in peace. Violence did sometimes break out, however, as when Christian Ethiopia fought with the Muslims of the Red Sea coast over control of trade.

D. India: Gujarat and the Malabar Coast

1. The state of Gujarat prospered from the Indian Ocean trade, exporting cotton textiles and indigo in return for gold and silver. Gujarat was not simply a commercial center; it was also a manufacturing center that produced textiles, leather goods, carpets, silk, and other commodities. Gujarat's overseas trade was dominated by Muslims, but Hindus also benefited.

2. Calicut and other cities of the Malabar Coast exported cotton textiles and spices and served as clearing-houses for long-distance trade. The cities of the Malabar Coast were unified in a loose confederation whose rulers were tolerant of other religious and ethnic groups.

E. Southeast Asia: The Rise of Malacca

1. The Strait of Malacca is the principal passage from the Indian Ocean to the South China Sea. In the fourteenth century, a gang of Chinese pirates preyed upon the strait, nominally under the control of the Java-based kingdom of Majapahit.

2. In 1407, the forces of the Ming dynasty crushed the Chinese pirates. The Muslim ruler of Malacca took advantage of this to exert his domination over the strait and to make Malacca into a major port and a center of trade.

IV. Social and Cultural Change

A. Architecture, Learning, and Religion

1. Commercial contacts and the spread of Islam led to a variety of social and cultural changes in which local cultures incorporated and changed ideas, customs, and architectural styles from other civilizations. African and Indian mosques are

good examples of the synthesis of Middle Eastern and local architectural styles; in Ethiopia, a native tradition of rock carving led to the construction of eleven churches carved from solid rock.

2. In the field of education, the spread of Islam brought literacy to African peoples who first learned Arabic and then used the Arabic script to write their own languages. In India, literacy was already established, but the spread of Islam brought the development of a new Persian-influenced language (Urdu) and papermaking technology.

3. As it spread to Africa, India, and Southeast Asia, Islam also brought with it the study of Islamic law and administration and Greek science, mathematics, and medicine. Timbuktu, Delhi, and Malacca were two new centers of Islamic learning.

4. Islam spread peacefully; forced conversions were rare. Muslim domination of trade contributed to the spread of Islam as merchants attracted by the common moral code and laws of Islam converted and as Muslim merchants in foreign lands established households and converted their local wives and servants. The Islamic destruction of the last center of Buddhism in India contributed to the spread of Islam in that country.

5. Islam brought social and cultural changes to the communities that converted, but Islam itself was changed, developing differently in African, Indian, and Indonesian societies.

B. Social and Gender Distinctions

1. The gap between elites and the common people widened in tropical societies as the wealthy urban elites prospered from the increased Indian Ocean trade.

2. Slavery increased in both Africa and India. An estimated 2.5 million African slaves were exported across the Sahara and the Red Sea between 1200 and 1500, while more were shipped from the cities of the Swahili coast.

3. Most slaves were trained in specific skills; in some cases, hereditary military slaves could become rich and powerful. Other slaves worked at hard menial jobs like copper mining, while others, particularly women, were employed as household servants and entertainers. The large number of slaves meant that the price of slaves was quite low.

4. While there is not much information on possible changes in the status of women in the tropics, some scholars speculate that restrictions on women were eased somewhat in Hindu societies. Nonetheless, early arranged marriage was the rule for Indian women, and they were expected to obey strict rules of fidelity and chastity.

5. Women's status was generally determined by the status of their male masters. However, women did practice certain skills other than child rearing. These included cooking, spinning, pottery making, and clothing production.

6. It is difficult to tell what effect the spread of Islam might have had on women. It is clear that in some places, such as Mali, Muslims did not adopt the Arab practice of veiling and secluding women.

V. Conclusion

A. Political Comparisons

1. The Mali empire of the western Sudan arose among African natives who had earlier converted to Islam voluntarily.

2. The Dehli Sultanate of India, though providing political unity to northern India, arose through invasion, conquest, and violence, and was intolerant of native religions.

B. Economic and Cultural Comparisons

1. Ships in the Arabian Sea to the west of India were the dhows, carrying up to 400 tons.

2. Ships to the east, traveling to Southeast Asia, were the larger junks, carrying over 1,000 tons.

3. Life in urban trading centers included more cultural diversity than was experienced close to centers of imperial power.

4. To one contemporary observer, citizens of Mali experienced greater social justice than Indians living under the rule of Muhammad ibn Tughluq of the Dehli Sultanate.

CHAPTER 15

Outline Chapter 15: The Maritime Revolution, to 1550

I. Global Maritime Expansion Before 1450

A. The Pacific Ocean

1. Over a period of several thousand years, peoples originally from Asia crossed the water to settle the islands of the East Indies, New Guinea, the Melanesian and Polynesian islands, the Marquesas, New Zealand, and other Pacific islands out to Hawaii. Polynesian use of the sweet potato, domesticated in South America, suggests that they may have reached the Americas.

2. Polynesian migration and establishment of colonies was aided by the development of large, double-hulled canoes that used both paddlers and sails. Polynesian mariners navigated by the stars and by their observations of ocean currents and evidence of land.

B. The Indian Ocean

1. Malayo-Indonesians colonized the island of Madagascar in a series of voyages that continued through the fifteenth century.

2. Arab seafarers used the regular pattern of the monsoon winds to establish trade routes in the Indian Ocean. These trade routes flourished when the rise of Islam created new markets and new networks of Muslim traders.

3. The Chinese Ming dynasty sponsored a series of voyages to the Indian Ocean between 1405 and 1433. The Ming voyages were carried out on a grand scale, involving fleets of over sixty large treasure ships and hundreds of smaller support vessels.

4. The treasure ships carried out trade in luxury goods including silk and precious metals, as well as stimulating diplomatic relations with various African and Asian states. The voyages, which were not profitable and inspired opposition in court, were ended in 1433.

C. The Atlantic Ocean

1. During the relatively warm centuries of the early Middle Ages, the Vikings, navigating by the stars and the seas, explored and settled Iceland, Greenland, and Newfoundland (Vinland). When a colder climate returned after 1200, the northern settlements in Greenland and the settlement in Newfoundland were abandoned.

2. A few southern Europeans and Africans attempted to explore the Atlantic in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. Voyagers from Genoa in 1291 and from Mali in the 1300s set out into the Atlantic but did not return. Genoese and Portuguese explorers discovered and settled the Madeiras, the Azores, and the Canaries in the fourteenth century.

3. In the Americas, the Arawak from South America had colonized the Lesser and Greater Antilles by the year 1000. The Carib followed, first taking over Arawak settlements in the Lesser Antilles and then, in the late fifteenth century, raiding the Greater Antilles.

II. European Expansion, 1400–1550

A. Motives for Exploration

1. The Iberian kingdoms sponsored voyages of exploration for a number of reasons, including both the adventurous personalities of their leaders and long-term trends in European historical development: the revival of trade, the struggle with Islam for control of the Mediterranean, curiosity about the outside world, and the alliances between rulers and merchants.

2. The city-states of northern Italy had no incentive to explore Atlantic trade routes because they had established a system of alliances and trade with the Muslims that gave them a monopoly on access to Asian goods. Also, Italian ships were designed for the calm waters of the Mediterranean and could not stand up to the violent weather of the Atlantic.

3. The Iberian kingdoms had a history of centuries of warfare with Muslims. They had no significant share in the Mediterranean trade, but they had advanced shipbuilding and cannon technology. They were open to new geographical knowledge and had exceptional leaders.

B. Portuguese Voyages

1. The Portuguese gained more knowledge of the sources of gold and slaves south of the Sahara when their forces, led by Prince Henry, captured the North African caravan city of Ceuta. Prince Henry ("the Navigator") then sponsored a research and navigation institute at Sagres to collect information about and send expeditions to the African lands south of North Africa.

2. The staff of Prince Henry's research institute in Sagres studied and improved navigational instruments, including the compass and the astrolabe. They also designed a new vessel, the caravel, whose small size, shallow draft, combination of square and lateen sails, and cannon made it well suited for the task of exploration.

3. Portuguese explorers eventually learned to pick up the prevailing westerly winds that would blow them back to Portugal, contributing important knowledge about oceanic wind patterns to the maritime community.

4. The Portuguese voyages eventually produced a financial return, first from trade in slaves, and then from the gold trade.

5. Beginning in 1469, the process of exploration picked up speed as private commercial enterprises began to get involved. The Lisbon merchant Fernao Gomes sent expeditions that discovered and developed the island of São Tomé and explored the Gold Coast. Bartolomeu Dias and Vasco da Gama rounded the tip of Africa and established contact with India, thus laying the basis for Portugal's maritime trading empire.

C. Spanish Voyages

1. When Christopher Columbus approached the Spanish crown with his project of finding a new route to Asia, the Portuguese had already established their route to the Indian Ocean. The King and Queen of Spain agreed to fund a modest voyage of discovery, and Columbus set out in 1492 with letters of introduction to Asian rulers and an Arabic interpreter.

2. After three voyages, Columbus was still certain that he had found Asia, but other Europeans realized that he had discovered entirely new lands. These new discoveries led the Spanish and the Portuguese to sign the Treaty of Tordesillas, in which they divided the world between them along a line drawn down the center of the North Atlantic.

3. Ferdinand Magellan's voyage across the Pacific confirmed Portugal's claim to the Molucca Islands and established the Spanish claim to the Philippines.

III. Encounters with Europe, 1450–1550

A. Western Africa

1. During the fifteenth century, many Africans welcomed the Portuguese and profited from their trade, in which they often held the upper hand. In return for their gold, Africans received from the Portuguese merchants a variety of Asian, African, and European goods, including firearms. Interaction between the Portuguese and African rulers varied from place to place.

2. The oba (king) of the powerful kingdom of Benin sent an ambassador to Portugal and established a royal monopoly on trade with the Portuguese. Benin exported a number of goods, including some slaves, and its rulers showed a mild interest in Christianity. After 1538, Benin purposely limited its contact with the Portuguese, declining to receive missionaries and closing the market in male slaves.

3. The kingdom of Kongo had fewer goods to export and consequently relied more on the slave trade. When the Christian King Afonso I lost his monopoly over the slave trade, his power was weakened and some of his subjects rose in revolt.

B. Eastern Africa

1. In Eastern Africa, some Muslim states were suspicious of the Portuguese, while others welcomed the Portuguese as allies in their struggles against their neighbors. On the Swahili Coast, Malindi befriended the Portuguese and was spared when the Portuguese attacked and looted many of the other Swahili city-states in 1505.

2 Christian Ethiopia sought and gained Portuguese support in its war against the Muslim forces of Adal. The Muslims were defeated, but Ethiopia was unable to make a long-term alliance with the Portuguese because the Ethiopians refused to transfer their religious loyalty from the patriarch of Alexandria to the Roman pope.

C. Indian Ocean States

1. When Vasco da Gama arrived in Calicut in 1498, he made a very poor impression with his simple gifts. Nonetheless, the Portuguese were determined to control the Indian Ocean trade, and their superior ships and firepower gave them the ability to do so.

2. To assert their control, the Portuguese bombarded the Swahili city-states in 1505, captured the Indian port of Goa in 1510, and took Hormuz in 1515. Extending their reach eastward, Portuguese forces captured Malacca in 1511 and set up a trading post at Macao in southern China in 1557.

3. The Portuguese used their control over the major ports to require that all spices be carried in Portuguese ships and that all other ships purchase Portuguese passports and pay customs duties to the Portuguese.

4. Reactions to this Portuguese aggression varied. The Mughal emperors took no action, while the Ottomans resisted and were able at least to maintain superiority in the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf. Some smaller states cooperated with the Portuguese; others tried evasion and resistance.

5. The Portuguese never gained complete control of the Indian Ocean trade, but they did dominate it enough to bring themselves considerable profit and to break the Italian city-states' monopoly on pepper.

D. The Americas

1. While the Portuguese built a maritime trading empire in Africa and Asia, the Spanish built a territorial empire in the Americas. The reasons for the difference are to be found in the isolation of Amerindian communities and their lack of resistance to Old World diseases.

2. The Arawak were an agricultural people who mined and worked gold but did not trade it over long distances and had no iron. Spanish wars killed tens of thousands of Arawak and undermined their economy; by 1502, the remaining Arawak of Hispaniola were forced to serve as laborers for the Spanish.

3. What the Spanish did in the Antilles was an extension of Spanish actions against the Muslims in the previous centuries: defeating non-Christians and putting them and their land under Christian control. The actions of conquistadors in other parts of the Caribbean followed the same pattern.

4. On the mainland, Hernan Cortes relied on native allies, cavalry charges, steel swords, and cannon to defeat the forces of the Aztec Empire and capture the Tenochtitlan. The conquest was also aided by the spread of smallpox among the Aztecs. Similarly, Francisco Pizarro's conquest of the Inca Empire was made possible by the dissatisfaction of the Inca Empire's recently conquered peoples and by Spanish cannon and steel swords.

IV. Conclusion

A. Imperial Comparisons

1. Strong centralized governments like China's were not inclined to attempt long-distance exploration.

2. Weaker rulers such as the Iberian monarchs left the details of exploration to individuals, such as Columbus, who proposed them.

3. Dominance of the Americas by Spain and Portugal was aided by the native populations' vulnerability to European disease and by the superior weaponry of Europe.

4. Natives of Asia and Africa had more immunity to European diseases from earlier contact and were more able to resist militarily.

B. Economic Comparisons

1. Europeans found sophisticated markets and trade networks in Africa and Asia.

2. In contrast, Europeans needed to introduce new technology and strong political control over American natives to exploit their natural resources

CHAPTER 16

Outline Chapter 16: Transformations in Europe, 1500–1750

I. Culture and Ideas

A. Early Reformation

1. In 1500, the Catholic Church, benefiting from European prosperity, was building new churches, including a new Saint Peter's Basilica in Rome. Pope Leo X raised money for the new basilica by authorizing the sale of indulgences.

2. The German monk Martin Luther challenged the pope on the issue of indulgences and other practices that he considered corrupt or not Christian. Luther began the Protestant Reformation, arguing that salvation could be by faith alone, that Christian belief could be based only on the Bible and on Christian tradition.

3. The Protestant leader John Calvin formulated a different theological position in The Institutes of the Christian Religion. Calvin argued that salvation was God's gift to those who were predestined and that Christian congregations should be self-governing and stress simplicity in life and in worship.

4. The Protestant Reformation appealed not only to religious sentiments but also to Germans who disliked the Italian-dominated Catholic Church and to peasants and urban workers who wanted to reject the religion of their masters.

5. The Catholic Church agreed on a number of internal reforms and a reaffirmation of fundamental Catholic beliefs in the Council of Trent. These responses to the Protestant Reformation, along with the activities of the newly established Society of Jesus (the Jesuits) comprise the "Catholic Reformation."

6. The Protestant Reformation led to a number of wars of religion, the last of them concluded in 1648.

B. Local Religion, Traditional Culture and Witch-Hunts

1. European concepts of the natural world were derived from both local religion and folk customs. Most people believed that natural events could have supernatural causes.

2. Belief in the supernatural is vividly demonstrated in the witch-hunts of the late sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries. In the witch-hunts, over 100,000 people (three-fourths of them women) were tried and about half of them executed on charges of witchcraft.

3. Reasons for the witch-hunts are many but at bottom was the tension between traditional beliefs and new religious and political institutions.

C. The Scientific Revolution

1. European intellectuals derived their understanding of the natural world from the writings of the Greeks and the Romans. These writings suggested that everything on earth was reducible to four elements; that the sun, moon, planets, and stars were so light and pure that they floated in crystalline spheres and rotated around the earth in perfectly circular orbits.

2. The observations of Copernicus and other scientists, including Galileo, undermined this earth-centered model of the universe and led to the introduction of the Copernican suncentered model.

3. The Copernican model was initially criticized and suppressed by Protestant leaders and by the Catholic Church. Despite opposition, printed books spread these and other new scientific ideas among European intellectuals.

4. Isaac Newton's discovery of the law of gravity showed how natural laws govern all physical objects. Newton's discoveries led to the development of Newtonian physics. However, Newton and other scientists did not believe that their discoveries were in conflict with religious belief.

D. The Early Enlightenment

1. The advances in scientific thought inspired European governments and groups of individuals to question the reasonableness of accepted practices in fields ranging from agriculture to laws, religions, and social hierarchies. This intellectual movement, which assumed that social behavior and institutions were governed by scientific laws, is called the Enlightenment.

2. The Enlightenment thinkers were also influenced by the Reformation and by accounts of other cultures (including Jesuit accounts of China).

3. The new scientific methods provided the enlightened thinkers with a model for changing European society. These thinkers were not a homogeneous group; they drew inspiration from disparate sources and espoused a variety of agendas. Most were optimistic that the application of reason would lead to human progress.

4. The ideas of the Enlightenment aroused opposition from many absolutist rulers and from clergy, but the printing press made possible the survival and dissemination of new ideas.

II. Social and Economic Life

A. The Bourgeoisie

1. Europe's cities experienced spectacular growth between 1500 and 1700.

2. The wealthy urban bourgeoisie thrived on manufacturing, finance, and especially trade, including the profitable trade in grain.

3. Amsterdam's growth, built on trade and finance, exemplifies the power of seventeenth century bourgeoisie enterprise.

4. The bourgeoisie forged mutually beneficial relationships with the monarchs and built extensive family and ethnic networks to facilitate trade between different parts of the world.

5. Partnerships between merchants and governments led to the development of joint-stock companies and stock exchanges. Governments also played a key role in the improvement of Europe's transportation infrastructure.

6. The Anglo-Dutch wars of the seventeenth century provide evidence of the growing importance of trade in international affairs.

7. The bourgeois gentry gradually increased their ownership of land; many entered the ranks of the nobility by marrying into noble families or by purchasing titles of nobility.

B. Peasants and Laborers

1. While serfdom declined and disappeared in Western Europe, it gained new prominence in Eastern Europe.

2. African slaves, working in the Americas, contributed greatly to Europe's economy.

3. It is possible that the condition of the average person in Western Europe declined between 1500 and 1700.

4. New World crops helped Western European peasants avoid starvation.

5. High consumption of wood for heating, cooking, construction, shipbuilding, and industrial uses led to severe deforestation in Europe in the late seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries. Shortages drove the cost of wood up.

6. As the price of wood rose, Europeans began to use coal instead of wood. Some efforts were also made to conserve forests and to plant trees, particularly to provide wood for naval vessels.

7. The urban poor consisted of "deserving poor" (permanent residents) and large numbers of "unworthy poor"—migrants, peddlers, beggars, and criminals.

C. Women and the Family

1. Women's status and work were closely tied to that of their husbands and families.

2. Common people in early modern Europe married relatively late until young men could make a living on their own and young women could work enough to earn their dowries. The young people of the bourgeois class also married late partly because men delayed marriage until after finishing their education. Late marriage enabled young couples to be independent of their parents; it also helped to keep the birth rate low.

3. Bourgeois parents put great emphasis on education and promoted the establishment of schools.

4. Most schools, professions, and guilds barred women from participation.

III. Political Innovations

A. State Development

1. Between 1516 and 1519, Charles of Burgundy, descendant of the Austrian Habsburg family, inherited the thrones of Castile and Aragon, with their colonial empires; the Austrian Habsburg possessions; and the position of Holy Roman Emperor. Charles was able to forge a coalition to defeat the Ottomans at the gates of Vienna in 1529, but he was unable to unify his many territorial possessions.

2. Lutheran German princes rebelled against the French-speaking Catholic Charles, seizing church lands and giving rise to the German Wars of Religion. When Charles abdicated the throne, Spain went to his son Philip while a weakened Holy Roman Empire went to his brother Ferdinand.

3. Meanwhile, the rulers of Spain, France, and England pursued their own efforts at political unification.

B. Monarchies in England and France

1. In England, a conflict between Parliament and the king led to a civil war and the establishment of a Puritan republic under Oliver Cromwell. After the Stuart line was restored, Parliament enforced its will on the monarchy when it drove King James II from the throne in the Glorious Revolution of 1688 and forced his successors, William and Mary, to sign a document, the Bill of Rights, to limit the power of the crown.

2. In France, the Bourbon kings were able to circumvent the representative assembly known as the Estates General and develop an absolutist style of government. Louis XIV's finance minister Colbert was able to increase revenue through more efficient tax collection and by promoting economic growth, while Louis entertained and controlled the French nobility by requiring them to attend his court at Versailles.

C. Warfare and Diplomacy

1. Constant warfare in early modern Europe led to a military revolution in which cannon, muskets, and commoner foot soldiers became the mainstays of European armies. Armies grew in size, and most European states maintained standing armies (except England, which maintained a standing navy).

2. To manage the large standing armies and to use the troops more effectively in battle, Europeans devised new command structures, signal techniques, and marching drills.

3. Developments in naval technology during this period included warships with multiple tiers of cannon and four-wheel cannon carriages that made reloading easier. England took the lead in the development of new naval technology, as was demonstrated when the English Royal Navy defeated Spain's Catholic Armada in 1588, signaling an end to Spain's military dominance in Europe.

4. With the defeat of Spain, France rose as the strongest power on continental Europe, while its rival England held superiority in naval power. During the War of the Spanish Succession, England, allied with Austria and Prussia, was able to prevent the French house of Bourbon from taking over the Spanish throne.

5. With the War of the Spanish Succession, the four powers of Europe—France, Britain, Austria, and Russia—were able to maintain a balance of power that prevented any one power from becoming too strong for about two centuries.

D. Paying the Piper

1. The rulers of European states needed to raise new revenue to pay the heavy costs of their wars; the most successful made profitable alliances with commercial elites. The Spanish, however, undermined their economy by driving out Jews, Protestants, and the descendants of Muslims so that the bullion they gained from their American empire was spent on payments to creditors and for manufactured goods and food.

2. The northern provinces of the Netherlands wrested their autonomy from Spain and became a dominant commercial power. The United Provinces of the Free Netherlands and particularly the province of Holland favored commercial interests, craftspeople, and manufacturing enterprises, and Amsterdam became a major center of finance and shipping.

3. After 1650, England used its naval power to break Dutch dominance in overseas trade. The English government also improved its financial position by collecting taxes directly and by creating a central bank.

4. The French government streamlined tax collection, used protective tariffs to promote domestic industries, and improved its transportation network. The French were not, however, able to introduce direct tax collection, tax the land of nobles, or secure low-cost loans.

IV. Conclusion

A. The religious reformations combined with the Scientific Revolution led the way for the Enlightenment, an age of reason, and the movement to apply newly discovered natural laws to social behavior.

B. Foreign and domestic trade spawned rapid growth in European cities and the rise of a wealthy commercial class, with Amsterdam in the Netherlands the most vivid example. Agricultural improvements increased production but the Little Ice Age and increased mining of forests caused more difficulties for the poor.

C. The Holy Roman Empire declined in strength from religious fragmentation while Spain and France increased centralized power. The English increased naval power and established direct taxation and a central bank, making the nation stronger financially than other European powers.

CHAPTER 17

Outline Chapter 17: The Diversity of American Colonial Societies, 1530–1770

I. The Columbian Exchange

A. Demographic Changes

1. The peoples of the New World lacked immunity to diseases from the Old World. Smallpox, measles, diphtheria, typhus, influenza, malaria, yellow fever, and maybe pulmonary plague caused severe declines in the population of native peoples in the Spanish and Portuguese colonies.

2. Similar patterns of contagion and mortality may be observed in the English and French colonies in North America. Europeans did not use disease as a tool of empire, but the spread of Old World diseases clearly undermined the ability of native peoples to resist settlement and accelerated cultural change.

B. Transfer of Plants and Animals

1. European, Asian, and African food crops were introduced to the Americas, while American crops, including maize, beans, potatoes, manioc, and tobacco, were brought to the Eastern Hemisphere. The introduction of New World food crops is thought to be one factor contributing to the rapid growth in world population after 1700.

2. The introduction of European livestock such as cattle, pigs, horses, and sheep had a dramatic influence on the environment and on the cultures of the native people of the Americas.

3. Old World livestock destroyed the crops of some Amerindian farmers. Other Amerindians benefited from the introduction of cattle, sheep, and horses.

II. Spanish America and Brazil

A. State and Church

1. The Spanish crown tried to exert direct control over its American colonies but the difficulty of communication between Spain and the New World led to a situation in which the viceroys of New Spain and Peru and their subordinate officials enjoyed a substantial degree of power.

2. After some years of neglect and mismanagement, the Portuguese in 1720 appointed a viceroy to administer Brazil.

3. The governmental institutions established by Spain and Portugal were highly developed, costly bureaucracies that thwarted local economic initiative and political experimentation.

4. The Catholic Church played an important role in transferring European language, culture, and Christian beliefs to the New World. Catholic clergy converted large numbers of Amerindians, although some of them secretly held on to some of their native beliefs and practices.

5. Catholic clergy also acted to protect Amerindians from some of the exploitation and abuse of the Spanish settlers. One example is Bartolome de Las Casas, a former settler turned priest who denounced Spanish policies toward the Amerindians and worked to improve the status of Amerindians through legal reforms such as the New Laws of 1542.

6. Catholic missionaries were frustrated as Amerindian converts blended Christian beliefs with elements of their own cosmology and ritual. In response, the Church redirected its energies toward the colonial cities and towns, where the Church founded universities and secondary schools and played a significant role in the intellectual and economic life of the colonies.

B. Colonial Economies

1. The colonial economies of Latin America were dominated by the silver mines of Peru and Mexico and by the sugar plantations of Brazil. This led to a dependence on mineral and agricultural exports.

2. The economy of the Spanish colonies was dominated by the silver mines of Alto Peru (Bolivia) and Peru until 1680, and then by the silver mines of Mexico. Silver mining and processing required a large labor force and led to environmental effects that included deforestation and mercury poisoning.

3. In the agricultural economy that dominated Spanish America up to the 1540s, Spanish settlers used the forced-labor system of encomienda to exploit Amerindian labor. With the development of silver-mining economies, new systems of labor exploitation were devised: in Mexico, free-wage labor, and in Peru, the mita.

4. Under the mita system, one-seventh of adult male Amerindians were drafted for forced labor at less than subsistence wages for two to four months of the year. The mita system undermined the traditional agricultural economy, weakened Amerindian village life, and promoted the assimilation of Amerindians into Spanish colonial society.

5. The Portuguese developed the African slave-labor sugar plantation system in the Atlantic islands and then set up similar plantations in Brazil. The Brazilian plantations first used Amerindian slaves and then the more expensive but more productive (and more disease-resistant) African slaves.

6. Sugar and silver played important roles in integrating the American colonial economies into the system of world trade.

C. Society in Colonial Latin America

1. The elite of Spanish America consisted of a relatively small number of Spanish immigrants and a larger number of their American-born descendants (creoles). The Spanish-born dominated the highest levels of government, church, and business, while the creoles controlled agriculture and mining.

2. Under colonial rule, the cultural diversity of Amerindian peoples and the class differentiation within the Amerindian ethnic groups both were eroded.

3. People of African descent played various roles in the history of the Spanish colonies. Slaves and free blacks from the Iberian Peninsula participated in the conquest and settlement of Spanish America; later, the direct slave trade with Africa led both to an increase in the number of blacks and to a decline in the legal status of blacks in the Spanish colonies.

4. At first, people brought from various parts of Africa retained their different cultural identities; but with time, their various traditions blended and mixed with European and Amerindian languages and beliefs to form distinctive local cultures. Slave resistance, including rebellions, was always brought under control, but runaway slaves occasionally formed groups that defended themselves for years.

5. Most slaves were engaged in agricultural labor and were forced to submit to harsh discipline and brutal punishments. The overwhelming preponderance of males made it impossible for slaves to preserve traditional African family and marriage patterns or to adopt those of Europe.

6. In colonial Brazil, Portuguese immigrants controlled politics and the economy, but by the early seventeenth century, Africans and their American-born descendants—both slave and free—were the largest ethnic group.

7. The growing population of individuals of mixed European and Amerindian descent (mestizos), European and African descent (mulattos), and mixed African and Amerindian descent were known collectively as castas.

III. English and French Colonies in North America

A. Early English Experiments

1. Attempts to establish colonies in the Americas in the late sixteenth century ended in failure.

2. In the seventeenth century, hope that colonies would prove to be profitable investments, combined with the successful colonization of Ireland, led to a new wave of interest in establishing colonies in the New World.

B. The South

1. The Virginia Company established the colony of Jamestown on an unhealthy island in the James River in 1606. After the English Crown took over management of the colony in 1624, Virginia (Chesapeake Bay area) developed as a tobacco plantation economy with a dispersed population and with no city of any significant size.

2. The plantations of the Chesapeake Bay area initially relied on English indentured servants for labor. As life expectancy increased, planters came to prefer to invest in slaves; the slave population of Virginia increased from 950 in 1660 to 120,000 in 1756.

3. Virginia was administered by a Crown-appointed governor and by representatives of towns meeting together as the House of Burgesses. The House of Burgesses developed into a form of democratic representation at the same time as slavery was growing.

4. Colonists in the Carolinas first prospered in the fur trade with Amerindian deer-hunters. The consequences of the fur trade included environmental damage brought on by overhunting, Amerindian dependency on European goods, ethnic conflicts among Amerindians fighting over hunting grounds, and a series of unsuccessful Amerindian attacks on the English colonists in the early 1700s.

5. The southern part of the Carolinas was settled by planters from Barbados and developed a slave-labor plantation economy, producing rice and indigo. Enslaved Africans and their descendants formed the majority population and developed their own culture; a slave uprising (the Stono Rebellion) in 1739 led to more repressive policies toward slaves throughout the southern colonies.

6. Colonial South Carolina was the most hierarchical society in British North America. A wealthy planter class dominated a population of small farmers, merchants, cattle ranchers, artisans, and fur-traders who, in turn, stood above the people of mixed English-Amerindian or English-African background and slaves.

C. New England

1. The Pilgrims, who wanted to break completely with the Church of England, established the small Plymouth Colony in 1620. The Puritans, who wanted only to reform the Church of England, formed a chartered joint-stock company (the Massachusetts Bay Company) and established the Massachusetts Bay colony in 1630.

2. The Massachusetts Bay colony had a normal gender balance, saw a rapid increase in population, and was more homogenous and less hierarchical than the southern colonies. The political institutions of the colony were derived from the terms of its charter and included an elected governor and, in 1650, a lower legislative house.

3. Without the soil or the climate to produce cash crops, the Massachusetts economy evolved from dependence on fur, forest products, and fish to a dependence on commerce and shipping. Massachusetts's merchants engaged in a diversified trade across the Atlantic, which made Boston the largest city in British North America in 1740.

D. The Middle Atlantic Region

1. Manhattan Island was first colonized by the Dutch and then taken by the English and renamed New York. New York became a commercial and shipping center; it derived particular benefit from its position as an outlet for the export of grain to the Caribbean and southern Europe.

2. Pennsylvania was first developed as a proprietary colony for Quakers but soon developed into a wealthy grain-exporting colony with Philadelphia as its major commercial city. In contrast to rice-exporting South Carolina's slave agriculture, Pennsylvania's grain was produced by free family farmers, including a substantial number of Germans.

E. French America

1. Patterns of French settlement closely resembled those of Spain and Portugal; the French were committed to missionary work, and they emphasized the extraction of natural resources—furs. French expansion was driven by the fur trade and resulted in depletion of beaver and deer populations and made Amerindians dependent upon European goods.

2. The fur trade provided Amerindians with firearms, which increased the violence of the wars that they fought over control of hunting grounds.

3. Catholic missionaries, including the Jesuits, attempted to convert the Amerindian population of French America, but, meeting with indigenous resistance, they turned their attention to work in the French settlements. These settlements, dependent on the fur trade, were small and grew slowly. This pattern of settlement allowed Amerindians in French America to preserve a greater degree of independence than they could in the Spanish, Portuguese, or British colonies.

4. The French expanded aggressively to the west and south, establishing a second fur-trading colony in Louisiana in 1699. This expansion led to war with England in which the French, defeated in 1759, were forced to yield Canada to the English and to cede Louisiana to Spain.

IV. Colonial Expansion and Conflict

A. Imperial Reform in Spanish America and Brazil

1. After 1713, Spain's new Bourbon dynasty undertook a series of administrative reforms, including expanded inter-colonial trade, new commercial monopolies on certain goods, a stronger navy, and better policing of the trade in contraband goods to the Spanish colonies.

2. Threatened by the independence and power of Jesuit influence, both Portuguese and Spanish monarchies expelled them from their American colonies.

3. The Bourbon policies were detrimental to the interests of the grazing and agricultural export economies, which were increasingly linked to illegitimate trade with the English, French, and Dutch. The new monopolies aroused opposition from creole elites whose only gain from the reforms was their role as leaders of militias that were intended to counter the threat of war with England.

4. The Bourbon policies were also a factor in the Amerindian uprisings, including the uprising led by the Peruvian Amerindian leader José Gabriel Condorcanqui (Tupac Amaru II). The rebellion was suppressed after more than two years and cost the Spanish colonies over 100,000 lives and enormous amounts of property damage.

5. Brazil also underwent a period of economic expansion and administrative reform in the 1700s. Economic expansion fueled by gold, diamonds, coffee, and cotton underwrote the Pombal reforms, paid for the importation of nearly 2 million African slaves, and underwrote a new wave of British imports.

B. Reform and Reorganization in British America

1. In the latter half of the seventeenth century, the British Crown tried to control colonial trading (smuggling) and manufacture by passing a series of Navigation Acts and by suspending the elected assemblies of the New England colonies. Colonists resisted by overthrowing the governors of New York and Massachusetts and by removing the Catholic proprietor of Maryland, thus setting the stage for future confrontational politics.

2. During the eighteenth century, economic growth and new immigration into the British colonies was accompanied by increased urbanization and a more stratified social structure.

V. Conclusion

A. Political and Economic Comparisons

1. Amerindians in the colonies of Spain, Portugal, France, and England all experienced European subjugation.

2. Of the Catholic powers of Spain, Portugal, and France, Spain gained the most wealth and developed the most centralized control.

3. British colonial governments were more likely to develop according to local interests than the French, Spanish, and Portuguese colonial governments.

B. Environmental and Cultural Comparisons

1. The environments in all colonies underwent change from the introduction of European technology, animals, and plants.

2. All lost natural resources to European markets.

3. The Catholic nations forced more cultural uniformity on their colonies than Britain did in the more religiously and ethnically diverse British colonies.

4. The British colonies welcomed a much larger influx of European migrants than did the other New World colonies.

CHAPTER 18

Outline Chapter 18: The Atlantic System and Africa, 1550–1800

I. Plantations in the West Indies

A. Colonization Before 1650

1. Spanish settlers introduced sugar-cane cultivation into the West Indies shortly after 1500 but did not do much else toward the further development of the islands. After 1600, the French and English developed colonies based on tobacco cultivation.

2. Tobacco consumption became popular in England in the early 1600s. Tobacco production in the West Indies was stimulated by two new developments: the formation of chartered companies and the availability of cheap labor in the form of European indentured servants.

3. In the mid-1600s, competition from milder Virginia tobacco and the expulsion of experienced Dutch sugar producers from Brazil combined to bring the West Indian economies from tobacco to sugar production.

4. The Portuguese had introduced sugar-cane cultivation to Brazil, and the Dutch West India Company, chartered to bring the Dutch wars against Spain to the New World, had taken control of a large portion of the Brazilian sugar-producing region. Over a fifteen-year period, the Dutch improved the efficiency of the Brazilian sugar industry and brought slaves from Elmina and Luanda (also seized from Portugal) to Brazil and the West Indies.

5. When Portugal reconquered Brazil in 1654, the Dutch sugar planters brought the Brazilian system to the French and English Caribbean Islands.

B. Sugar and Slaves

1. Between 1640 and the 1680s, colonies like Guadeloupe, Martinique, and particularly Barbados made the transition from a tobacco economy to a sugar economy. In the process of doing so, their demand for labor caused a sharp and significant increase in the volume of the Atlantic slave trade.

2. The shift from European indentured servants to enslaved African labor was caused by a number of factors, including a decline in the number of Europeans willing to indenture themselves to the West Indies and a rise in sugar prices that made planters more able to invest in slaves.

II. Plantation Life in the Eighteenth Century

A. Technology and Environment

1. Sugar plantations both grew sugar cane and processed the cane into sugar crystals, molasses, and rum. The technology for growing and harvesting cane was simple, but the machinery required for processing (rollers, copper kettles, and so on) was more complicated and expensive. The expenses of sugar production led planters to seek economies of scale by running large plantations.

2. Sugar production damaged the environment by causing soil exhaustion and deforestation. Repeated cultivation of sugar cane exhausted the soil of the plantations and led the planters to open new fields, thus accelerating the deforestation that had begun under the Spanish.

3. European colonization led to the introduction of European and African plants and animals that crowded out indigenous species. Colonization also pushed the indigenous peoples to extinction.

B. Slaves' Lives

1. West Indian society consisted of a wealthy land-owning plantocracy, their many slaves, and a few people in between.

2. A plantation had to extract as much labor as possible from its slaves to turn a profit. Slaves were organized into "gangs" for fieldwork, while those male slaves not doing fieldwork were engaged in specialized tasks.

3. Slaves were rewarded for good work and punished harshly for failure to meet their production quotas or for any form of resistance. On Sundays, slaves cultivated their own food crops and did other chores; they had very little rest and relaxation, no education, and little time or opportunity for family life.

4. Disease, harsh working conditions, and dangerous mill machinery all contributed to the short life expectancy of slaves in the Caribbean. The high mortality rate added to the volume of the Atlantic slave trade and meant that the majority of slaves on West Indian plantations were born in Africa.

5. Slaves frequently ran away and occasionally staged violent rebellions such as that led by a slave named Tacky in Jamaica in 1760. European planters sought to prevent rebellions by curtailing African cultural traditions, religions, and languages.

C. Free Whites and Free Blacks

1. In Saint Domingue, there were three groups of free people: the wealthy great whites, the less well-off little whites, and the free blacks. In the British colonies, where sugar almost completely dominated the economy, there were very few free small landholders, white or black.

2. Only a very wealthy man could afford the capital to invest in the land, machinery, and slaves needed to establish a sugar plantation. West Indian planters were very wealthy and translated their wealth into political power, controlling the colonial assemblies and even gaining a number of seats in the British Parliament.

3. Slave owners who fathered children by female slaves often gave both mother and child their freedom; over time, this practice (manumission) produced a significant free black population. The largest group of freed slaves in the French, Spanish, and Portuguese colonies came from self-purchase. Another source for the free black population was runaway slaves, known in the Caribbean as maroons.

III. Creating the Atlantic Economy

A. Capitalism and Mercantilism

1. The system of royal monopoly control of colonies and their trade as practiced by Spain and Portugal in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries proved to be inefficient and expensive. In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, the two new institutions of capitalism and mercantilism established the framework within which government-protected private enterprise participated in the Atlantic economy.

2. The mechanisms of early capitalism included banks, joint-stock companies, stock exchanges, and insurance.

3. Mercantilism was a number of state policies that promoted private investment in overseas trade and accumulation of capital in the form of precious metals. The instruments of mercantilism included chartered companies, such as the Dutch West India Company and the French Royal African Company, and the use of military force to pursue commercial dominance.

4. The French and English eliminated Dutch competition from the Americas by defeating the Dutch in a series of wars between 1652 and 1678. The French and the English then revoked the monopoly privileges of their chartered companies but continued to use high tariffs to prevent foreigners from gaining access to trade with their colonies. The Atlantic became the major trading area for the British, the French, and the Portuguese in the eighteenth century.

B. The Atlantic Circuit

1. The Atlantic Circuit was a clockwise network of trade routes going from Europe to Africa, from Africa to the plantation colonies of the Americas (the Middle Passage), and then from the colonies to Europe. If all went well, a ship would make a profit on each leg of the circuit.

2. The Atlantic Circuit was supplemented by a number of other trade routes: Europe to the Indian Ocean; Europe to the West Indies; New England to the West Indies; and the “Triangular Trade” among New England, Africa, and the West Indies.

3. As the Atlantic system developed, increased demand for sugar in seventeenth- and eighteenth-century Europe was associated with an increase in the flow of slaves from Africa to the New World.

4. The slave trade was a highly specialized business in which chartered companies (in the seventeenth century) and then private traders (in the eighteenth century) purchased slaves in Africa, packed them into specially designed or modified ships, and delivered them for sale to the plantation colonies.

5. Disease, maltreatment, suicide, and psychological depression all contributed to the average death rate of one out of every six slaves shipped on the Middle Passage. Disease was the single most important cause of death, killing the European crew of the slave ships at roughly the same rate as it killed the slaves themselves.

IV. Africa, the Atlantic, and Islam

A. The Gold Coast and the Slave Coast

1. European trade with Africa grew tremendously after 1650 as merchants sought to purchase slaves and other goods. The growth in the slave trade was accompanied by continued trade in other goods, but it did not lead to any significant European colonization of Africa.

2. African merchants were discriminating about the types and the amounts of merchandise that they demanded in return for slaves and other goods, and they raised the price of slaves in response to increased demand. African governments on the Gold and Slave Coasts were strong enough to make Europeans observe African trading customs, while the Europeans, competing with each other for African trade, were unable to present a strong, united bargaining position.

3. Exchange of slaves for firearms contributed to state formation in the Gold and Slave Coasts. The kingdom of Dahomey used firearms acquired in the slave trade to expand its territory, while the kingdoms of Oyo and Asante had interests both in the Atlantic trade and in overland trade with their northern neighbors.

4. The African kings and merchants of the Gold and Slave Coasts obtained slaves from among the prisoners of war captured in conflicts between African kingdoms.

B. The Bight of Biafra and Angola

1. There were no sizeable states—and no large-scale wars—in the interior of the Bight of Biafra; kidnapping was the main source of people to sell into slavery. African traders who specialized in procuring people for the slave trade did business at inland markets or fairs and brought the slaves to the coast for sale.

2. In the Portuguese-held territory of Angola, Afro-Portuguese caravan merchants brought trade goods to the interior and exchanged them for slaves, whom they transported to the coast for sale to Portuguese middlemen, who then sold the slaves to slave dealers for shipment to Brazil. Many of these slaves were prisoners of war, a byproduct generated by the wars of territorial expansion fought by the federation of Lunda kingdoms.

3. Enslavement has also been linked to environmental crises in the interior of Angola. Droughts forced refugees to flee to kingdoms in better-watered areas, where the kings traded the grown male refugees to slave dealers in exchange for Indian textiles and European goods that they then used to cement old alliances, attract new followers, and build a stronger, larger state.

4. Although the organization of the Atlantic trade varied from place to place, it was always based on a partnership between European traders and a few African political and merchant elites who benefited from the trade, while many more Africans suffered from it.

C. Africa’s European and Islamic Contacts

1. In the centuries between 1550 and 1800, Europeans built a growing trade with Africa but did not acquire very much African territory. The only significant European colonies were those on islands; the Portuguese in Angola; and the Dutch Cape Colony, which was tied to the Indian Ocean trade rather than to the Atlantic trade.

2. Muslim territorial dominance was much more significant, with the Ottoman Empire controlling all of North Africa except Morocco and with Muslims taking large amounts of territory from Ethiopia. In the 1580s, Morocco attacked the sub-Saharan Muslim kingdom of Songhai, occupying the area for the next two centuries and causing the bulk of the trans-Saharan trade to shift from the western Sudan to the central Sudan.

3. The trans-Saharan slave trade was smaller in volume than the Atlantic slave trade and supplied slaves for the personal slave army of the Moroccan rulers as well as slaves for sugar plantation labor, servants, and artisans. The majority of slaves transported across the Sahara were women destined for service as concubines or servants and children, including eunuchs, meant for service as harem guards.

4. Muslims had no moral objection to owning or trading in slaves, but religious law forbade the enslavement of fellow Muslims. Even so, some Muslim states south of the Sahara did enslave African Muslims.

5. Muslim cultural influences south of the Sahara were much stronger than European cultural influences. Islam and the Arabic language spread more rapidly than Christianity and English, which were largely confined to the coastal trading centers.

6. The European and Islamic slave trade could not have had a significant effect on the overall population of the African continent, but they did have an acute effect on certain areas from which large numbers of people were taken into slavery. The higher proportion of women taken across the Sahara in the Muslim slave trade magnified its long-term demographic effects.

7. The volume of trade goods imported into sub-Saharan Africa was not large enough to have had any significant effect on the livelihood of traditional African artisans. Both African and European merchants benefited from this trade, but Europeans directed the Atlantic system and derived greater benefit from it than the African merchants did.

V. Conclusion

A. Economically:

1. European powers colonized the Caribbean islands, which were transformed under capitalism.

2. The British switched from indentured servitude to slavery very quickly in the Caribbean because of their capitalistic ventures.

3. France was also able to profit quickly through state monopolies and state-sanctioned companies.

4. The Dutch were more successful at transporting slaves and sugar technology than colonization.

5. Spain's introduction of slaves and sugar to the Caribbean did not translate into the most success among European powers, except for their island of Cuba.

B. Culturally:

1. All West Indian plantation societies were affected by the introduction of European and African plants and people and participation in a world market.

2. Though Africa's participation in the Atlantic trade system was as important as sugar production in the West Indies, Africans maintained control of their own region.

CHAPTER 19

Outline Chapter 19: Between Europe and China, 1500–1750

I. The Ottoman Empire, to 1750

A. Expansion and Frontiers

1. Osman established the Ottoman Empire in northwestern Anatolia in 1300. He and his successors consolidated control over Anatolia, fought Christian enemies in Greece and in the Balkans, and captured Serbia and the Byzantine capital of Constantinople.

2. Sultan Suleiman the Magnificent (r. 1520–1566) conquered Belgrade (1521) and Rhodes (1522) and laid siege to Vienna (1529), but withdrew with the onset of winter.

3. The Ottoman Empire fought with Venice for two centuries as it attempted to exert its control over the Mediterranean. The Ottomans forced the Venetians to pay tribute but continued to allow them to trade.

4. Muslim merchants in the Red Sea and Indian Ocean requested Ottoman naval support against the Portuguese. The Ottomans responded vigorously to Portuguese threats against nearby ports such as Aden, but they saw no reason to commit much effort to the defense of non-Ottoman Muslim merchants in the Indian Ocean.

B. Central Institutions

1. The original Ottoman military forces of mounted warriors armed with bows were supplemented in the late fourteenth century when the Ottomans formed captured Balkan Christian men into a force called the new troops (Janissaries), who fought on foot and were armed with guns. In the early fifteenth century, the Ottomans began to recruit men for the Janissaries and for positions in the bureaucracy through a levy on male Christian children.

2. Ottoman land forces were powerful enough to defeat the Safavids, but the Ottomans were defeated at sea by combined Christian forces at the Battle of Lepanto in 1571. The Turkish cavalry were paid in land grants.

3. The Ottoman Empire was a cosmopolitan society in which the Osmanli-speaking, tax-exempt military class (askeri) served the sultan as soldiers and bureaucrats and were exempt from paying taxes.

4. In the view of the Ottomans, the sultan supplied justice and defense for the common people (the raya), while the raya supported the sultan and his military through their taxes. In practice, the common people had little direct contact with the Ottoman government, being ruled by local notables and by their own religious.

C. Crisis of the Military State, 1585–1650

1. The increasing importance and expense of firearms meant that the size and cost of the Janissaries increased over time, while the importance of the landholding Turkish cavalry decreased. At the same time, New World silver brought inflation and undermined the purchasing power of the fixed tax income of the cavalry.

2. Financial deterioration and the use of short-term mercenary soldiers brought a wave of rebellions and banditry to Anatolia. The Janissaries began to marry, went into business, and enrolled their sons in the Janissary corps, which grew in number but declined in military readiness.

D. Economic Change and Growing Weakness

1. The period of crisis led to significant changes in Ottoman institutions. The sultan now lived a secluded life in his palace, the affairs of government were in the hands of chief administrators, the devshirme had been discontinued, and the Janissaries had become a politically powerful hereditary elite who spent more time on crafts and trade than on military training.

2. In the rural areas, the system of land grants in return for military service had been replaced by a system of tax farming. Rural administration came to depend on powerful provincial governors and wealthy tax farmers.

3. In the context of disorder and decline, formerly peripheral places like Izmir flourished as Ottoman control over trade declined and European merchants came to purchase Iranian silk and local agricultural products. This growing trade brought the agricultural economies of western Anatolia, the Balkans, and the Mediterranean coast into the European commercial network.

4. By the middle of the eighteenth century, it was clear that the Ottoman Empire was in economic and military decline. Europeans dominated Ottoman import and export trade by sea, but they did not control strategic ports or establish colonial settlements on Ottoman territory.

5. During the Tulip Period (1718–1730), the Ottoman ruling class enjoyed European luxury goods and replicated the Dutch tulip mania of the sixteenth century. In 1730, the Patrona Halil rebellion indicated the weakness of the central state; provincial elites took advantage of this weakness to increase their power and their wealth.

II. The Safavid Empire, 1502–1722

A. Safavid Society and Religion

1. Ismail declared himself shah of Iran in 1502 and ordered that his followers and subjects all adopt Shi'ite Islam.

2. It took a century of brutal force and instruction by Shi'ite scholars from Lebanon and Bahrain to make Iran a Shi'ite land, but when it was done, the result was to create a deep chasm between Iran and its Sunni neighbors.

3. Conversion to Shi'ite belief made permanent the cultural difference between Iran and its Arab neighbors that had already been developing. From the tenth century onward, Persian literature and Persian decorative styles had been diverging from Arabic culture—a process that had intensified when the Mongols destroyed Baghdad and thus put an end to that city's role as an influential center of Islamic culture.

4. Under the Safavids, Iranian culture was further distinguished by the strength of Shi'ite beliefs, including the concept of the Hidden Imam and the deeply emotional annual commemoration of the martyrdom of Imam Husayn.

B. A Tale of Two Cities: Isfahan and Istanbul

1. Isfahan and Istanbul were very different in their outward appearance. Istanbul was a busy port city with a colony of European merchants, a walled palace, and a skyline punctuated by brick domes and soaring minarets. Isfahan was an inland city with few Europeans, unobtrusive minarets, brightly tiled domes, and an open palace with a huge plaza for polo games.

2. Both cities were built for walking (not for wheeled vehicles), had few open spaces, narrow and irregular streets, and artisan and merchant guilds.

3. Women were seldom seen in public in Istanbul or in Isfahan, being confined in women's quarters in their homes; however, records indicate that Ottoman women were active in the real estate market and appeared in court cases. Public life was almost entirely the domain of men.

4. Despite an Armenian merchant community, Isfahan was not a cosmopolitan city, nor was the population of the Safavid Empire particularly diverse. Istanbul's location gave it a cosmopolitan character comparable to that of other great seaports, in spite of the fact that the sultan's wealth was built on his territorial possessions, not on the voyages of his merchants.

C. Economic Crisis and Political Collapse

1. Iran's manufactures included silk and its famous carpets but, overall, the manufacturing sector was small and not very productive. The agricultural sector (farming and herding) did not see any significant technological developments partly because the nomad chieftains who ruled the rural areas had no interest in building the agricultural economy.

2. Like the Ottomans, the Safavids were plagued by the expense of firearms and by the reluctance of nomad warriors to use firearms. Shah Abbas responded by establishing a slave corps of year-round professional soldiers armed with guns.

3. In the late sixteenth century, inflation caused by cheap silver and a decline in overland trade made it difficult for the Safavid state to pay its army and bureaucracy. An Afghan army took advantage of this weakness to capture Isfahan and end Safavid rule in 1722.

III. The Mughal Empire

A. Political Foundations

1. The Mughal Empire was established and consolidated by the Turkic warrior Babur (1483– 1530) and his grandson Akbar (r. 1556–1605). Akbar established a central administration and granted nonhereditary land revenues to his military officers and government officials.

2. Akbar and his successors gave efficient administration and peace to their prosperous northern heartland.

3. Foreign trade boomed, but the Mughals, like the Safavids, did not maintain a navy or merchant marine, preferring to allow Europeans to serve as carriers.

B. Hindus and Muslims

1. The violence and destruction of the Mughal conquest of India horrified Hindus, but they offered no concerted resistance. Fifteen percent of Mughal officials holding land revenues were Hindus, most of them from northern Rajput warrior families.

2. Akbar was the most illustrious of the Mughal rulers: he took the throne at thirteen and commanded the government on his own at twenty. Akbar worked for reconciliation between Hindus and Muslims by marrying a Hindu Rajput princess and by introducing reforms that reduced taxation and legal discrimination against Hindus.

3. Akbar made himself the center of a short-lived eclectic new religion (Divine Faith) and sponsored a court culture in which Hindu and Muslim elements were mixed.

C. Central Decay and Regional Challenges, 1707–1761

1. The Mughal Empire declined after the death of Aurangzeb in 1707. Factors contributing to the Mughal decline include the land grant system, the failure to completely integrate Aurangzeb's newly conquered territory into the imperial administration, and the rise of regional powers. The real power of the Mughal rulers came to an end in 1739 after Nadir Shah raided Delhi; the empire survived in name until 1857.

2. As the Mughal government lost power, Mughal regional officials bearing the title of nawab established their own more or less independent states. These regional states were prosperous, but they could not effectively prevent the intrusion of Europeans such as the French, whose representative Joseph Dupleix captured the English trading center of Madras and became a power broker in southern India until he was recalled to France in 1754.

IV. The Maritime Worlds of Islam, 1500–1750

A. Muslims in Southeast Asia

1. It is not clear exactly when and how Islam spread in Southeast Asia. It appears that conversion and the formation of Muslim communities began in port cities and royal courts in the fourteenth century and was transmitted to the countryside by itinerant Sufis.

2. In the places where it had spread, Islam functioned as a political ideology that strengthened resistance to European incursions in places such as the Sulu archipelago, Mindanao, Brunei, and Acheh.

3. The rulers and the people of Southeast Asian kingdoms appear to have developed understandings of Islam that deviated from the standards of scholars from Mecca and Medina.

4. Royal courts and port cities began to adopt the more orthodox practices advocated by pilgrims returning from Arabia, while the rural people developed forms of Islam that incorporated some of their pre-Muslim religious and social practices.

B. Muslims in Coastal Africa

1. The Muslim-ruled port cities of the Swahili Coast were not well connected with each other, nor did they have much contact with the people of their dry hinterlands. Cooperation was hindered by the thick bush country that separated the tracts of coastal land and by the fact that the cities competed with each other for trade.

2. The Portuguese conquered all of the Swahili ports except for Malindi, which cooperated with Portugal. Between 1650 and 1729, the Arabs of Oman drove the Portuguese out of the Swahili Coast and created a maritime empire of their own.

3. In northwest Africa, Spanish and Portuguese seizure of coastal Morocco provoked a victorious militant response from the Sa'adi family, who claimed descent from the Prophet Muhammad. By the early seventeenth century, British ships faced raids by Moroccans as far north as Britain itself.

4. Muslim sea raiders from Algerian, Tunisian, and Libyan ports imitated European warfare against European ships in the Mediterranean.

C. European Powers in Southern Seas

1. The better-organized Dutch drove the Portuguese out of the Malacca in 1641, conquered local kingdoms on Sumatra and Java, and established a colonial capital at Batavia (now Jakarta).

2. When European merchants from other countries began to come to Southeast Asia, the Dutch found it impossible to maintain monopoly control over the spice market. Instead, they turned to crop production, focusing on lumber and coffee.

V. Conclusion

A. Despite their efforts in conquering more land, the land-based Mughal, Safavid, and Ottoman empires faced increasing difficulty in maintaining traditional military forces compared to smaller European countries.

B. In contrast to the Asian tradition that imperial wealth came from control of broad expanses of agricultural land, European countries promoted joint-stock companies and enjoyed the prosperity gained from their ever-increasing control of Indian Ocean commerce.

C. Eighteenth-century European observers marveled no less at the riches and industry of the Ottoman, Mughal, and Safavid lands than at the fundamental weakness of their political and military systems.

CHAPTER 20

Outline Chapter 20: East Asia in Global Perspective

I. Japanese Reunification

A. Civil War and the Invasion of Korea, 1500–1603

1. In the twelfth century, with imperial unity dissolved, Japan came under the control of a number of regional warlords called daimyo.

2. Warfare among the daimyo was common, and in 1592, the most powerful of these warlords, Hideyoshi, chose to lead an invasion of Korea.

3. Although the Korean and Japanese languages are closely related, the dominant influence on Yi dynasty Korea was China.

4. Despite the creative use of technological and military skill, the Koreans and their Chinese allies were defeated by the Japanese.

5. After Hideyoshi's death in 1598, the Japanese withdrew their forces and, in 1606, made peace with Korea.

6. The Japanese withdrawal left Korea in disarray and the Manchu in a greatly strengthened position.

B. The Tokugawa Shogunate, to 1800

1. In the late 1500s, Japan's Ashikaga Shogunate had lost control and the country had fallen into a period of chaotic wars among local lords; a new shogun, Tokugawa Ieyasu, brought all the local lords under the administration of his Tokugawa Shogunate in 1600.

2. The Tokugawa Shogunate gave loyal regional lords rice lands close to the shogunal capital in central Japan, while those lords who had not been supporters of the Tokugawa were given undeveloped lands at the northern and southern extremes of the islands. The Japanese emperor remained in Kyoto but had no political power. This political structure had an important influence on the subsequent development of the Japanese economy.

3. The decentralized system of regional lords meant that Japan developed well-spaced urban centers in all regions, while the shogun's requirement that the regional lords visit Edo frequently stimulated the development of the transportation infrastructure and the development of commerce, particularly the development of wholesale rice exchanges.

4. The samurai became bureaucrats and consumers of luxury goods, spurring the development of an increasingly independent merchant class whose most successful families cultivated alliances with regional lords and with the shogun himself. By the end of the 1700s, the wealthy industrial families were politically influential and held the key to modernization and the development of heavy industry.

C. Japan and the Europeans

1. Jesuits came to Japan in the late 1500s, and while they had limited success in converting the regional lords, they did make a significant number of converts among the farmers of southern and eastern Japan. A rural rebellion in this area in the 1630s was blamed on Christians. The Tokugawa Shogunate responded with persecutions; a ban on Christianity; and, in 1649, the closing of the country.

2. The closed country policy was intended to prevent the spread of foreign influence but not to exclude knowledge of foreign cultures. A small number of European traders, mainly Dutch, were allowed to reside on a small island near Nagasaki, and Japanese who were interested in the European knowledge that could be gained from European books developed a field known as Dutch studies.

3. Some of the "outer lords" at the northern and southern extremes of Japan relied on overseas trade with Korea, Okinawa, Taiwan, China, and Southeast Asia for their fortunes. These lords ignored the closed country policy, and those in the south, in particular, became wealthy from their control of maritime trade.

D. Elite Decline and Social Crisis

1. Patterns of population growth and economic growth also contributed to the reversal of fortunes between the inner and outer lords. Population growth in central Japan put a strain on the agricultural economy, but in the outer provinces, economic growth outstripped population growth.

2. The Tokugawa system was also undermined by changes in rice prices and in interest rates, which combined to make both the samurai and the regional lords dependent on the willingness of the merchants to give them credit.

3. The Tokugawa shoguns accepted the Confucian idea that agriculture should be the basis of the state and that merchants should occupy a low social position because they lacked moral virtue, but the decentralized political system made it difficult for the shogunate to regulate merchant activities. In fact, the decentralized system stimulated commerce so that, from 1600 to 1800, the economy grew faster than the population and merchants developed relative freedom, influence, and their own vibrant culture.

4. The ideological and social crisis of Tokugawa Japan's transformation from a military to a civil society is illustrated in the Forty-seven Ronin incident of 1702. This incident demonstrates the necessity of making the difficult decision to force the military to obey the civil law in the interests of building a centralized, standardized system of law with which the state could protect the interests of the people.

II. The Later Ming and Early Qing Empires

A. The Ming Empire, 1500–1644

1. The cultural brilliance and economic achievements of the early Ming continued up to 1600. But at the same time, a number of factors had combined to exhaust the Ming economy, weaken its government, and cause technological stagnation.

2. Some of the problems of the late Ming may be attributed to a drop in annual temperatures between 1645 and 1700, which may have contributed to the agricultural distress, migration, disease, and uprisings of this period. Climate change may also have driven the Mongols and the Manchus to protect their productive lands from Ming control and to take more land along the Ming borders.

3. The flow of New World silver into China in the 1500s and early 1600s caused inflation in prices and taxes that hit the rural population particularly hard.

4. In addition to these global causes of Ming decline, there were also internal factors particular to China. These included disorder and inefficiency in the urban industrial sector (such as the Jingdezhen ceramics factories), no growth in agricultural productivity, and low population growth.

B. Ming Collapse and the Rise of the Qing

1. The Ming also suffered from increased threats on their borders: to the north and west, there was the threat posed by a newly reunified Mongol confederation, and in Korea the Ming incurred heavy financial losses when it helped the Koreans to defeat a Japanese invasion. Rebellions of native peoples rocked the southwest, and Japanese pirates plagued the southeast coast.

2. Rebel forces led by Li Zicheng overthrew the Ming in 1644, and the Manchu Qing Empire then entered Beijing, restored order, and claimed China for its own.

3. A Manchu imperial family ruled the Qing Empire, but the Manchus were only a small proportion of the population and thus depended on diverse people for assistance in ruling the empire. Chinese made up the overwhelming majority of the people and the officials of the Qing Empire.

C. Trading Companies and Missionaries

1. Europeans were eager to trade with China, but enthusiasm for international trade developed slowly in China, particularly in the imperial court.

2. Over the course of the sixteenth century, the Portuguese, Spanish, and Dutch gained limited access to Chinese trade.

3. By the seventeenth century, the Dutch East India Company had become the major European trader in the Indian Ocean.

4. Catholic missionaries accompanied Portuguese and Spanish traders, and the Jesuits had notable success converting Chinese elites. The Jesuit Matteo Ricci (1552–1610) used his mastery of Chinese language and culture to gain access to the imperial court.

D. Emperor Kangxi

1. Kangxi (r. 1662–1722) took formal control over his government in 1669 (at the age of sixteen) by executing his chief regent. Kangxi was an intellectual prodigy and a successful military commander who expanded his territory and gave it a high degree of stability.

2. During the Kangxi period, the Qing were willing to incorporate ideas and technology from Mongolian, Tibetan, Korean, and Chinese sources. The Qing also adapted European knowledge and technology—mapmaking, astronomy, and anatomical and pharmaceutical knowledge—taught by the Jesuits who frequented Kangxi's court.

3. The Jesuits were also affected by their contact with China. They revised their religious teaching to allow Chinese converts to practice Confucian ancestor worship and they transmitted to Europe Chinese technology, including an early form of inoculation against smallpox and the management techniques of the huge imperial porcelain factories.

E. Chinese Influences on Europe

1. The exchange of ideas and information between the Qing and the Jesuits flowed in both directions.

2. The wealth and power of the Qing led to a tremendous enthusiasm in Europe for Chinese things such as silk, tea, porcelain, other decorative items, and wallpaper. Jesuit descriptions of China also led Europeans such as Voltaire to see the Qing emperors as benevolent despots or philosopher-kings from whom the Europeans could learn.

F. Tea and Diplomacy

1. The Qing were eager to expand trade, but they wanted to control it to be able to tax it more efficiently and to control piracy and smuggling. To do so, the Qing designated a single market point for each foreign sector: the market point for those coming from the South China Sea (including the various European traders) was the city of Canton. This system worked fairly well until the late 1700s.

2. In the late 1700s, the British East India Company and other English traders believed that China's vast market held the potential for unlimited profit and thought that the Qing trade system (the Canton System) stood in the way of opening up new paths for commerce. At the same time, the British Parliament was worried about the flow of British silver into China and convinced that opening the China market would help to bring more English merchants into the trade and bring about the end of the outmoded and nearly bankrupt East India Company.

3. In 1793–1794, the British sent a diplomatic mission led by Lord Macartney to open diplomatic relations with China and revise the trade system. The Macartney mission was a failure, as were similar diplomatic embassies sent by the Dutch, the French, and the Russians.

G. Population and Social Stress

1. The peace enforced by the Qing Empire and the temporary revival of agricultural productivity due to the introduction of American and African crops contributed to a population explosion that brought China's total population to between 350 million and 400 million by the late 1700s.

2. Population growth was accompanied by increased environmental stress: deforestation, erosion, silting up of river channels and canals, and flooding. The result was localized misery, migration, increased crime, and local rebellions.

3. While the territory and the population of the Qing Empire grew, the number of officials remained about the same. The Qing depended on local elites to maintain local order but was unable to enforce tax regulations; control standards for entry into government service; or prevent the declining revenue, increased corruption, and increased banditry in the late 1700s.

III. The Russian Empire

A. The Drive Across Northern Asia

1. Following the dissolution of Mongol power in Russia, the city of Moscow became the foundation for a new state, Muscovy, which absorbed the territory of the former Kievan state and Novgorod in the west and conquered the khanates of Kazan and Astrakhan. The Muscovite ruler Ivan IV took the title of tsar in 1547.

2. The natural direction for Russian expansion was east; expansion in Siberia was led by armed adventurers who defeated the only political power in the region, the Khanate of Sibir, and took land from the small hunting and fishing groups of native people. Siberia was valued first for its furs and timber and as a penal colony.

3. In the 1650s, the expanding Russian Empire met the expanding Qing Empire in Mongolia, Central Asia, and along the Amur. A treaty between the two powers in 1689 recognized Russian claims west of Mongolia.

B. Russian Society and Politics to 1725

1. As the empire expanded, it incorporated a diverse set of peoples, cultures, and religions. This often produced internal tensions.

2. The Cossacks belonged to close-knit bands and made temporary alliances with whoever could pay for their military services.

3. Despite the fact that the Cossacks often performed important services for the Russian Empire, they managed to maintain a high degree of autonomy.

4. Threats and invasions by Sweden and Poland and internal disputes among the Russian aristocracy (boyars) in the seventeenth century led to the overthrow of the old line of Muscovite rulers and the enthronement of Mikhail Romanov in 1613. The Romanov rulers combined consolidation of their authority with territorial expansion to the east.

5. As the power of the Romanov rose, the freedom of Russian peasants fell.

6. In 1649, Russian peasants were legally transformed into serfs.

C. Peter the Great

1. Peter the Great (r. 1689–1725) fought the Ottomans in an attempt to gain a warm-water port on the Black Sea and to liberate Constantinople (Istanbul) from Muslim rule, but he did not achieve either goal. Peter was more successful in the Great Northern War, in which he broke Swedish control over the Baltic and established direct contacts between Russia and Europe.

2. Following his victory in the Great Northern War, Peter built a new capital, St. Petersburg, which was to contribute the westernization of the Russian elites and demonstrate to Europeans the sophistication of Russia. The new capital was also intended to help break the power of the boyars by reducing their traditional roles in the government and in the army.

3. Peter wanted to use European technology and culture to strengthen Russia and to strengthen the autocratic power of his government; he was not interested in political liberalization. As an autocratic ruler, Peter brought the Russian Orthodox Church under his control; built industrial plants to serve the military; and increased the burdens of taxes and labor on the serfs, whom the Russian Empire depended upon for the production of basic foodstuffs.

D. Consolidation of the Empire

1. Russian expansion in Alaska and the American northwest was driven by the search for furs, which British and American entrepreneurs had also been interested in. Control of the natural resources of Siberia put the Russians in a position to dominate the fur and shipping industries of the North Pacific.

2. During the reign of Catherine the Great (r. 1762–1796), Russia was the world's largest land empire, built on an economic basis of large territory, agriculture, logging, fishing, and furs.

IV. Conclusion

A. Political Comparisons

1. Between 1500 and 1800, China and Russia grew dramatically, both in territory controlled and population.

2. Despite being headed by an emperor, Japan's size, homogeneity, and failure to add colonies disqualify it from being called a true empire.

3. Japan and Russia made greater progress in improving their military than did China.

4. Of Japan, Russia, and China, Russia did the most to build up its imperial navy.

B. Cultural, Social, and Economic Comparisons

1. As they expanded, both China and Russia pursued policies that tolerated diversity while promoting cultural assimilation.

2. While both Russian and Chinese leaders were willing to use foreign ideas and technologies, they tended to see their own culture as superior.

3. Merchants occupied a precarious position in both China and Japan.

CHAPTER 21

Outline Chapter 21: The Early Industrial Revolution, 1760–1851

I. Causes of the Industrial Revolution

A. Population Growth

1. In the eighteenth century, more reliable food supplies, earlier marriage, high birthrates, and more widespread resistance to disease contributed to significant population growth in Europe. England and Wales experienced particularly rapid population growth.

2. Rapid population growth meant that children accounted for a relatively high proportion of the total population. Population growth also contributed to migration of people from the countryside to the cities, from Ireland to England, and from Europe to the Americas.

B. The Agricultural Revolution

1. The agricultural revolution began long before the eighteenth century. New food crops, many of them from the Americas, and new forage crops produced more food per acre and allowed farmers to raise more cattle for meat and milk.

2. Only wealthy landowners could afford to invest in new crops and new farming methods. Rich landowners fenced off (enclosed) their own land and common land to apply new scientific farming methods; as they did so, they forced their former tenants to become sharecroppers or landless laborers, or to migrate to the cities.

C. Trade and Inventiveness

1. In most of Europe, increasing demand for goods was met with increasing production in traditional ways through the addition of new craftspeople to existing workshops and through the putting-out system.

2. Population growth and increased agricultural productivity were accompanied by a growth in trade and a fascination with technology and innovation.

D. Britain and Continental Europe

1. Eighteenth-century Britain had a number of characteristics that help to explain its peculiar role in the Industrial Revolution. These characteristics include economic growth, population growth, people who were willing to put new ideas into practice, strong mining and metal industries, the world's largest merchant marine, and a relatively fluid social structure.

2. Britain also had a good water transportation system, a unified market, and a highly developed commercial sector.

3. The economies of continental Europe experienced a similar dynamic expansion in the eighteenth century, but lack of markets and management skills and the constant warfare from 1789–1815 interrupted trade and weakened the incentive to invest in new technologies. Industrialization took hold in Europe after 1815, first in Belgium and France. European governments played a significant role in fostering industrialization.

II. The Technological Revolution

A. Mass Production: Pottery

1. Pottery was either imported or handmade for the aristocracy; in either event, ordinary people could not afford it. But the growing taste for tea, cocoa, and coffee created a demand for porcelain that would not spoil the flavor of these beverages.

2. In 1759, Josiah Wedgwood opened a pottery business that used division of labor and molds (rather than the potter's wheel) to mass-produce high quality porcelain at a low cost that made it affordable for everyday use.

B. Mechanization: The Cotton Industry

1. There was a strong market for cotton cloth, but the cotton plant did not grow in Europe. Restrictions on the import of cotton cloth led inventors and entrepreneurs to devise cheap mechanical methods for spinning cotton thread and weaving cotton cloth in England.

2. Beginning in the 1760s, a series of inventions revolutionized the spinning of cotton thread. These included the spinning jenny (1764), the water frame (1769), and the mule (1785). The increased supply of cotton thread and the demand for cotton cloth led to the invention of power looms and other machinery and processes for cotton textile production.

3. Mechanization of cotton textile production led to much greater efficiency and lower prices. Cotton became America's most valuable crop, produced for export to England and, from the 1820s, for America's own cotton textile industry.

C. The Iron Industry

1. Iron had been in use in Eurasia and Africa for thousands of years, but iron production was associated with deforestation that increased the price of charcoal and thus reduced the output of iron. Limited wood supplies and the high cost of skilled labor made iron a rare and valuable metal outside China before the eighteenth century.

2. In the eighteenth century, a series of inventions, including coke and puddling, made it possible for the British to produce large amounts of cheap iron. Increased production and lower cost led people to use iron for numerous applications, including bridge building and the construction of the Crystal Palace.

3. The idea of interchangeable parts originated in the eighteenth century, but it was widely adopted in the firearms, farm equipment, and sewing machine industries in the nineteenth century. The use of machinery to mass-produce consumer goods with identical parts was known as the American system of manufactures.

D. The Steam Engine

1. The steam engine was the most revolutionary invention of the Industrial Revolution. Between 1702 and 1712, Thomas Newcomen developed a crude, inefficient steam engine that was used to pump water out of coal mines.

2. In 1769, James Watt improved the Newcomen engine and began to manufacture engines for sale to manufacturers. Watt's engine provided a source of power that allowed factories to be located where animal, wind, and water power were lacking.

3. In the 1780s, the steam engine was used to power riverboats in France and America. In the 1830s, the development of more efficient engines made it possible to build ocean-going steamships.

E. Railroads

1. After 1800, inventors including Richard Trevithick and George Stephenson built lighter, more powerful high-pressure steam engines and used them to power steam locomotives that soon replaced the horses on horse-power railways.

2. Railway-building mania swept Britain from 1825 to 1845 as the major cities, and then small towns, were linked by a network of railroads. In the United States, railway booms in the 1840s and 1850s linked the country together and opened the Midwest to agricultural development.

3. In Europe, railways triggered industrialization. Europe's industrial areas were concentrated in the iron- and coal-rich areas of northern France, Belgium, the Ruhr, and Silesia.

F. Communication over Wires

1. The construction of railroads was accompanied by the development of the electric telegraph. Two systems of telegraphy were invented in 1837: Wheatestone and Cook's five-needle telegraph in England, and Morse's dots and dashes system in the United States.

2. In the 1840s and 1850s, Americans and Europeans had built the beginnings of what would become a global communications network.

III. The Impact of the Early Industrial Revolution

A. The New Industrial Cities

1. Industrialization brought about the rapid growth of towns and the development of megalopolises such as Greater London. The wealthy built fine homes, churches, and public buildings; the poor crowded into cheap, shoddy row houses.

2. Sudden population growth, crowding, and lack of municipal services made urban problems more serious than they had been in the past. Inadequate facilities for sewage disposal, air and water pollution, and diseases made urban life unhealthy and contributed to high infant mortality and short life expectancy.

3. Reports of the horrors of slum life led to municipal reforms that began to alleviate the ills of urban life after the mid-nineteenth century.

B. Rural Environments

1. Almost all the land in Europe had been transformed by human activity before the Industrial Revolution. Americans transformed their environment even faster than Europeans did, clearing land, using it until the soil was depleted, and then moving on.

2. Industrialization relieved pressure on the English environment in some ways; agricultural raw materials were replaced by industrial materials or by imports, while the use of coal and the availability of cheap iron reduced the demand for wood.

3. New transportation systems greatly changed rural life. Toll roads, canals, and then railroads linked isolated districts to the great centers of commerce, industry, and population.

C. Working Conditions

1. Industrialization offered new, highly paid opportunities for a small number of skilled carpenters, metalworkers, and machinists, but most industrial jobs were unskilled, repetitive, boring, and badly paid, and came with poor working conditions.

2. The separation of work from home had a major impact on women and on family life.

3. Women workers were concentrated in the textile mills and earned much less than men. Husbands and wives worked in separate places. Most of the female work force consisted of young women who took low-paid jobs as domestic servants.

4. Poverty and employers' preference for child workers led to high rates of child labor.

5. In America, the first industrialists offered good wages and decent working conditions to their women workers, but harsh working conditions, long hours, and low pay soon became standard. Protests by American women workers led factory owners to replace them with Irish women, who were willing to accept lower pay and worse conditions.

6. The Industrial Revolution increased the demand for cotton, sugar, and coffee. In doing so, industrialization helped to prolong slavery in the United States and the Caribbean and to extend slavery to the coffee-growing regions of Brazil.

D. Changes in Society

1. Industrialization increased disparities in income. The wages and standards of living of the workers varied with the fluctuations of the business cycle, but overall, workers' standards of living did not improve until the 1850s.

2. The real beneficiaries of the Industrial Revolution were the middle classes. Rising incomes allowed the middle class to build their own businesses, to keep women at home, and to develop a moral code that stood in contrast to the squalor and drunkenness of the working class.

IV. New Economic and Political Ideas

A. Laissez Faire and Its Critics

1. Adam Smith was the most famous proponent of the laissez-faire doctrine that government should refrain from interfering in business. Thomas Malthus and David Ricardo argued that the poverty of the working class was the result of overpopulation and that it could best be addressed, not by government action, but by delayed marriage and sexual restraint. Business people welcomed the idea of laissez faire.

2. Critics of laissez faire, such as Jeremy Bentham in England and Freidrich List in Germany, argued that the state should take action to manage the economy and to address social problems.

3. In France, the count of Saint-Simon developed a philosophy called positivism, which argued that the scientific method could solve social as well as technical problems.

B. Protests and Reforms

1. Workers initially responded to the harsh working conditions by changing jobs frequently, not reporting for work, doing poor-quality work when not closely watched, and engaging in riots or strikes. Workers gradually moved beyond the stage of individual, unorganized resistance to create organizations for collective action: benevolent societies and trade unions.

2. Mass movements persuaded the British government to investigate the abuses of industrial life and to offer ameliorative legislation that included the Factory Act of 1833, the Mines Act of 1842, and the repeal of the Corn Laws in 1846. In Europe, the revolutions of 1848 revealed widespread discontent, but European governments did not seek reform through accommodation.

V. The Limits of Industrialization Outside the West

A. Britain's Effect on Egypt

1. In the early nineteenth century, Egypt's ruler Muhammad Ali undertook a program of industrialization that was funded by the export of wheat and cotton and protected by high tariffs on imported goods.

2. The prospect of a powerful modern Egypt posed a threat to the British, so in 1839, Britain forced Muhammad Ali to eliminate all import duties. Without tariff protection, Egypt's industries could not compete with cheap British products; Egypt became an economic dependency of Britain.

B. Britain's Effect on India

1. Cheap machine-made British textiles forced Indian spinners and hand-weavers out of work. Most became landless peasants, and India became an exporter of raw materials and an importer of British industrial goods.

2. Railroads, coal mining, and telegraph lines were introduced to India in the mid-nineteenth century. Some Indian entrepreneurs were able to establish their own textile mills but, overall, India's industrialization proceeded at a very slow pace because the British administration did nothing to encourage Indian industry.

A. Britain's Effect on China

1. New military technologies changed the balance of power between Europe and China, allowing Britain to defeat the Chinese quickly and easily.

2. China's conservative elite and growing population of peasants concerned mainly with agriculture kept them from competing with Western technology.

VI. Conclusion

A. Industrialization was the most important change since the development of agriculture, with increased mechanical technology driving increased production of goods such as iron and cotton.

B. The industrial age caused environmental problems and increased stratification of society, with a new and growing middle class. It also generated concern for children working in factories and philosophies relative to the industrial age, such as those of Adam Smith and Jeremy Bentham.

C. Industrialization of western nations caused a separation between what would be considered wealthy and poor nations.

CHAPTER 22

Outline Chapter 22: Revolutionary Changes in the Atlantic World, 1750–1850

I. Prelude to Revolution: The Eighteenth-Century Crisis

A. Colonial Wars and Fiscal Crises

1. Rivalry among the European powers intensified in the early 1600s when the Dutch attacked Spanish and Portuguese possessions in the Americas and in Asia. In the 1600s and 1700s, the British then checked Dutch commercial and colonial ambitions and went on to defeat France in the Seven Years War (1756–1763) and take over French colonial possessions in the Americas and in India.

2. The unprecedented costs of the wars of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries drove European governments to seek new sources of revenue at a time when the intellectual environment of the Enlightenment inspired people to question and to protest the state's attempts to introduce new ways of collecting revenue.

B. The Enlightenment and the Old Order

1. The Enlightenment thinkers sought to apply the methods and questions of the Scientific Revolution to the study of human society. One way of doing so was to classify and systematize knowledge; another way was to search for natural laws that were thought to underlie human affairs and to devise scientific techniques of government and social regulation.

2. John Locke argued that governments were created to protect the people; he emphasized the importance of individual rights. Jean Jacques Rousseau asserted that the will of the people was sacred; he believed that people would act collectively on the basis of their shared historical experience.

3. Not all Enlightenment thinkers were radicals or atheists. Many, like Voltaire, believed that monarchs could be agents of change.

4. Some members of the European nobility (e.g., Catherine the Great of Russia, Frederick the Great of Prussia) patronized Enlightenment thinkers and used Enlightenment ideas as they reformed their bureaucracies, legal systems, tax systems, and economies. At the same time, these monarchs suppressed or banned radical ideas that promoted republicanism or attacked religion.

5. Many of the major intellectuals of the Enlightenment communicated with each other and with political leaders. Women were instrumental in the dissemination of their ideas; purchasing and discussing the writings of the Enlightenment thinkers; and, in the case of wealthy Parisian women, making their homes available for salons at which Enlightenment thinkers gathered.

6. The new ideas of the Enlightenment were particularly attractive to the expanding middle class in Europe and in the Western Hemisphere. Many European intellectuals saw the Americas as a new, uncorrupted place in which material and social progress would come more quickly than in Europe.

7. Benjamin Franklin came to symbolize the natural genius and the vast potential of America. Franklin's success in business, his intellectual and scientific accomplishments, and his political career offered proof that in America, where society was free of the chains of inherited privilege, genius could thrive.

C. Folk Cultures and Popular Protest

1. Most people in Western society did not share in the ideas of the Enlightenment; common people remained loyal to cultural values grounded in the preindustrial past. These cultural values prescribed a set of traditionally accepted mutual rights and obligations that connected the people to their rulers.

2. When eighteenth-century monarchs tried to increase their authority and to centralize power by introducing more efficient systems of tax collection and public administration, the people regarded these changes as violations of sacred customs and sometimes expressed their outrage in violent protests. Such protests aimed to restore custom and precedent, not to achieve revolutionary change. Rationalist Enlightenment reformers also sparked popular opposition when they sought to replace popular festivals with rational civic rituals.

3. Spontaneous popular uprisings had revolutionary potential only when they coincided with conflicts within the elite.

II. The American Revolution, 1775–1800

A. Frontiers and Taxes

1. After 1763, the British government faced two problems in its North American colonies: the danger of war with the Amerindians as colonists pushed west across the Appalachians, and the need to raise more taxes from the colonists to pay the increasing costs of colonial administration and defense. British attempts to impose new taxes or to prevent further westward settlement provoked protests in the colonies.

2. In the Great Lakes region, British policies undermined the Amerindian economy and provoked a series of Amerindian raids on the settled areas of Pennsylvania and Virginia. The Amerindian alliance that carried out these raids was defeated within a year. Fear of more violence led the British to establish a western limit for settlement in the Proclamation of 1763 and to slow down settlement of the regions north of the Ohio and east of the

Mississippi in the Quebec Act of 1774.

3. The British government tried to raise new revenue from the American colonies through a series of fiscal reforms and new taxes, including a number of new commercial regulations, including the Stamp Act of 1765 and other taxes and duties. In response to these actions, the colonists organized boycotts of British goods, staged violent protests, and attacked British officials.

4. Relations between the American colonists and the British authorities were further exacerbated by the killing of five civilians in the Boston Massacre (1770) and by the action of the British government in granting the East India Company a monopoly on the import of tea to the colonies. When colonists in Boston responded to the monopoly by dumping tea into Boston harbor, the British closed the port of Boston and put administration of Boston in the hands of a general.

B. The Course of Revolution, 1775–1783

1. Colonial governing bodies deposed British governors and established a Continental Congress that printed currency and organized an army. Ideological support for independence was given by the rhetoric of thousands of street-corner speakers, by Thomas Paine's pamphlet Common Sense, and in the Declaration of Independence.

2. The British sent a military force to pacify the colonies. The British force won most of its battles, but it was unable to control the countryside. The British were also unable to achieve a compromise political solution to the problems of the colonies.

3. Amerindians served as allies to both sides. The Mohawk leader Joseph Brant led one of the most effective Amerindian forces in support of the British; when the war was over, he and his followers fled to Canada.

4. France entered the war as an ally of the United States in 1778 and gave crucial assistance to the American forces, including naval support that enabled Washington to defeat Cornwallis at Yorktown, Virginia. Following this defeat, the British negotiators signed the Treaty of Paris (1783), giving unconditional independence to the former colonies.

C. The Construction of Republican Institutions, to 1800

1. After independence, each of the former colonies drafted written constitutions that were submitted to the voters for approval. The Articles of Confederation served as a constitution for the United States during and after the Revolutionary War.

2. In May 1787, a Constitutional Convention began to write a new constitution that established a system of government that was democratic but gave the vote only to a minority of the adult male population and protected slavery.

III. The French Revolution, 1789–1815

A. French Society and Fiscal Crisis

1. French society was divided into three estates: the First Estate (clergy), the Second Estate (hereditary nobility), and the Third Estate (everyone else). The clergy and the nobility controlled vast amounts of wealth, and the clergy was exempt from nearly all taxes.

2. The Third Estate included the rapidly growing, wealthy middle class (bourgeoisie). While the bourgeoisie prospered, France's peasants (80 percent of the population), its artisans, workers, and small shopkeepers, were suffering in the 1780s from economic depression caused by poor harvests. Urban poverty and rural suffering often led to violent protests, but these protests were not revolutionary.

3. During the 1700s, the expense of wars drove France into debt and inspired the French kings to try to introduce new taxes and fiscal reforms to increase revenue. These attempts met with resistance in the Parliaments and on the part of the high nobility.

B. Protest Turns to Revolution, 1789–1792

1. The king called a meeting of the Estates General to get approval of new taxes. The representatives of the Third Estate and some members of the First Estate declared themselves to be a National Assembly and pledged to write a constitution that would incorporate the idea of popular sovereignty.

2. As the king prepared to send troops to arrest the members of the National Assembly, the common people of Paris rose up in arms against the government, and peasant uprisings broke out in the countryside. The National Assembly was emboldened to set forth its position in the Declaration of the Rights of Man.

3. As the economic crisis grew worse, Parisian market women marched on Versailles and captured the king and his family. The National Assembly passed a new constitution that limited the power of the monarchy and restructured French politics and society. When Austria and Prussia threatened to intervene, the National Assembly declared war in 1791.

C. The Terror, 1793–1794

1. The king's attempt to flee in 1792 led to his execution and to the formation of a new government, the National Convention, which was dominated by the radical Mountain faction of the Jacobins and by their leader, Robespierre.

2. Under Robespierre, executive power was placed in the hands of the Committee of Public Safety, militant feminist forces were repressed, new actions against the clergy were approved, and suspected enemies of the revolution were imprisoned and guillotined in the Reign of Terror (1793–1794). In July 1794, conservatives in the National Convention voted for the arrest and execution of Robespierre.

D. Reaction and the Rise of Napoleon, 1795–1815

1. After Robespierre's execution, the Convention worked to undo the radical reforms of the Robespierre years, ratified a more conservative constitution, and created a new executive authority, the Directory. The Directory's suspension of the election results of 1797 signaled the end of the republican phase of the revolution, while Napoleon's seizure of power in 1799 marked the beginning of another form of government: popular authoritarianism.

2. Napoleon provided greater internal stability and protection of personal and property rights by negotiating an agreement with the Catholic Church (the Concordat of 1801), promulgating the Civil Code of 1804, and declaring himself emperor (also in 1804). At the same time, the Napoleonic system denied basic political and property rights to women and restricted speech and expression.

3. The stability of the Napoleonic system depended upon the success of the military and upon French diplomacy. No single European state could defeat Napoleon, but his occupation of the Iberian Peninsula turned into a costly war of attrition with Spanish and Portuguese resistance forces, while his 1812 attack on Russia ended in disaster. An alliance of Russia, Austria, Prussia, and England defeated Napoleon in 1814.

IV. Revolution Spreads, Conservatives Respond, 1789–1850

A. The Haitian Revolution, 1789–1804

1. The French colony of Saint Domingue was one of the richest European colonies in the Americas, but its economic success was based on one of the most brutal slave regimes in the Caribbean.

2. The political turmoil in France weakened the ability of colonial administrators to maintain order and led to conflict between slaves and gens de couleur on the one hand and whites on the other. A slave rebellion under the leadership of François Dominique Toussaint L'Ouverture took over the colony in 1794.

3. Napoleon's 1802 attempt to reestablish French authority led to the capture of L'Ouverture but failed to retake the colony, which became the independent republic of Haiti in 1804.

B. The Congress of Vienna and Conservative Retrenchment, 1815–1820

1. From 1814 to 1815, representatives of Britain, Russia, Prussia, and Austria met in Vienna to create a comprehensive peace settlement that would reestablish and safeguard the conservative order in Europe.

2. The Congress of Vienna restored the French monarchy; redrew the borders of France and other European states; and established a Holy Alliance of Austria, Russia, and Prussia. The Holy Alliance defeated liberal revolutions in Spain and Italy in 1820 and tried, without success, to repress liberal and nationalist ideas.

C. Nationalism, Reform, and Revolution, 1821–1850

1. Popular support for national self-determination and democratic reform grew throughout Europe. Greece gained its independence from the Ottoman Empire in 1830, while in France, the people of Paris forced the monarchy to accept constitutional rule and to extend voting privileges.

2. Democratic reform movements emerged in both Britain and in the United States. In the United States, the franchise was extended after the War of 1812, while in Britain, response to the unpopular Corn Laws resulted in a nearly 50 percent increase in the number of voters.

3. In Europe, the desire for national self-determination and democratic reform led to a series of revolutions in 1848. In France, the monarchy was overthrown and replaced by an elected president (Louis Napoleon); elsewhere in Europe, the revolutions of 1848 failed to gain either their nationalist or republican objectives.

V. Conclusion

A. The American Revolution

1. The expense of colonial wars led to the imposition of new taxes on colonials.

2. Resentment over taxation led the British American colonies to fight and win their independence.

3. The new American government reflected for contemporaries the democratic ideals of the Enlightenment.

B. The French Revolution

1. Revolutionaries in France created a more radical form of representative democracy than the one found in America and suffered more violence as well.

2. Events in France led to the Haitian Revolution and Haiti's independence.

3. Entrenched elite forces within, and foreign intervention from without, made the French and Haitian Revolutions more violent and destructive than the American Revolution. In France, chaos led to the rise of Napoleon.

C. Aftermath of Revolution

1. Conservative retrenchment after Napoleon prevailed in the short term in Europe, but nationalism and liberalism could not be held in check for long.

2. The new social classes arising with industrial capitalism ultimately demanded a new social and political order. The new political freedoms were limited to a minority. Women could not participate until the twentieth century, and slavery endured until the second half of the nineteenth century in America.

CHAPTER 23

Outline Chapter 23: Land Empires in the Age of Imperialism, 1800–1870

I. The Ottoman Empire

A. Egypt and the Napoleonic Example

1. In 1798, Napoleon invaded Egypt and defeated the Mamluk forces he encountered there. Fifteen months later, after a series of military defeats, Napoleon returned to France, seized power, and made himself emperor.

2. His generals had little hope of holding on to power and, in 1801, agreed to withdraw. Muhammad Ali emerged as the victor in the ensuing power struggle.

3. Muhammad Ali used many French practices in an effort to build up the new Egyptian state.

4. He established schools to train modern military officers and built factories to supply his new army.

5. In the 1830s, his son Ibrahim invaded Syria and started a similar set of reforms there.

6. European military pressure forced Muhammad Ali to withdraw to the present-day borders of Egypt and Israel.

7. Muhammad Ali remained Egypt's ruler until 1849, and his family held onto power until 1952.

B. Ottoman Reform and the European Model, 1807–1853

1. At the end of the eighteenth century, Sultan Selim III introduced reforms to strengthen the military and the central government and to standardize taxation and land tenure. These reforms aroused the opposition of Janissaries, the nobility, and the ulama.

2. Tension between the Sultanate and the Janissaries sparked a Janissary revolt in Serbia in 1805. Serbian peasants helped to defeat the Janissary uprising and went on to make Serbia independent of the Ottoman Empire.

3. Selim suspended his reform program in 1806, too late to prevent a massive military uprising in Istanbul in which Selim was captured and executed before reform forces could retake the capital.

4. The Greeks gained independence from the Ottoman Empire in 1829. Britain, France, and Russia assisted the Greeks in their struggle for independence and regarded the Greek victory as a triumph of European civilization.

5. Sultan Mahmud II believed that the loss of Greece indicated a profound weakness in Ottoman military and financial organization. Mahmud used popular outrage over the loss of Greece to justify a series of reforms that included the creation of a new army corps, elimination of the Janissaries, and reduction of the political power of the religious elite. Mahmud's secularizing reform program was further articulated in the Tanzimat (restructuring) reforms initiated by his successor Abdul Mejid in 1839.

6. Military cadets were sent to France and Germany for training, and reform of Ottoman military education became the model for general educational reforms in which foreign subjects were taught, foreign instructors were employed, and French became the preferred language in all advanced scientific and professional training.

7. Educational reform stimulated growth of the wealth and influence of urban elites. The reforms also brought about unexpected cultural and social effects that ranged from the introduction of European clothing styles to the equal access to the courts for all male subjects, to equalization of taxation.

8. The public rights and political participation granted during the Tanzimat were explicitly restricted to men. The reforms decreased the influence of women, while at the same time, the development of a cash economy and competitive labor market drove women from the work force.

C. The Crimean War and Its Aftermath

1. Russia's southward expansion at the expense of the Ottoman Empire led to the Crimean War. An alliance of Britain, France, and the Ottoman Empire defeated Russia and thus blocked Russian expansion into Eastern Europe and the Middle East.

2. The Crimean War brought significant changes to all combatants. The Russian government was further discredited and forced into making additional reforms, Britain and France carried out extensive propaganda campaigns that emphasized their roles in the war, and the French press promoted a sense of unity between Turkish and French society.

3. The Crimean War marked the transition from traditional to modern warfare. The percussion caps and breech-loading rifles that were used in the Crimean War were the beginning of a series of subsequent changes in military technology that included the invention of machine guns, the use of railways to transfer weapons and men, and trench warfare.

4. After the Crimean War, the Ottoman Empire continued to establish secular financial and commercial institutions on the European model. These reforms contributed to a shift of population from rural to urban areas and the development of professional and wage laborer classes, but they did not solve the regime's fiscal problems.

5. Problems associated with the reforms included the Ottoman state's dependence on foreign loans, a trade deficit, and inflation. In the 1860s and 1870s, discussion of a law that would have permitted all men to vote left Muslims worried that the Ottoman Empire was no longer a Muslim society. This worry may have contributed to Muslim hostilities against Christians in the Ottoman territories in Europe, Armenia, and the Middle East.

6. The decline of Ottoman power and wealth inspired a group of educated urban men known as the Young Ottomans to band together to work for constitutionalism, liberal reform, and the creation of a Turkish national state in place of the Ottoman Empire. A constitution was granted in 1876, but a coup soon placed a more conservative ruler on the throne; the Ottoman Empire thus continued its weakened existence under the sponsorship of the Western powers until 1922.

II. The Russian Empire

A. Russia and Europe

1. In 1700, only three percent of the Russian population lived in cities, and Russia was slow to acquire a modern infrastructure and modern forms of transportation.

2. While Russia aspired to Western-style economic development, fear of political change prevented real progress.

3. Nonetheless, Russia had more in common with the other European nations than did the Ottoman Empire.

4. Slavophiles and Westernizers debated the proper course for Russian development.

5. The diplomatic inclusion of Russia among the great powers of Europe was countered by a powerful sense of Russophobia in the west.

B. Russia and Asia

1. By the end of the eighteenth century, the Russian Empire had reached the Pacific Ocean and the borders of China. In the nineteenth century, Russian expansion continued to the south, bringing Russia into conflict with China, Japan, Iran, and the Ottoman Empire.

2. Britain took steps to halt Russian expansion before Russia gained control of all of Central Asia.

C. Cultural Trends

1. Russia had had cultural contact with Europe since the late seventeenth century.

2. The reforms of Alexander I promised more on paper than they delivered in practice.

3. Opposition to reform came from wealthy families who feared reform would bring about imperial despotism, a fear that was realized during the reign of Nicholas I.

4. The Decemberist revolt was carried out by a group of reform-minded military officers upon the death of Alexander I. Their defeat amounted to the defeat of reform for the next three decades.

5. Heavy penalties were imposed on Russia in the treaty that ended the Crimean War. The new tsar, Alexander II, was called upon to institute major reforms.

6. Under Alexander II, reforms and cultural trends begun under his grandfather were encouraged and expanded.

7. The nineteenth century saw numerous Russian scholarly and scientific achievements, as well as the emergence of significant Russian writers and thinkers.

III. The Qing Empire

A. Economic and Social Disorder

1. When the Qing conquered China in the 1600s, they restored peace and stability and promoted the recovery and expansion of the agricultural economy, thus laying the foundation for the doubling of the Chinese population between 1650 and 1800. By 1800, population pressure was causing environmental damage and contributing to an increasing number of itinerant farmhands, laborers, and merchants.

2. There were numerous sources of discontent in Qing China. Various minority peoples had been driven off their land, and many people regarded the government as being weak, corrupt, and perhaps in collusion with the foreign merchants and missionaries in Canton and Macao. Discontent was manifest in a series of internal rebellions in the nineteenth century, beginning with the White Lotus rebellion (1794–1804).

B. The Opium War and Its Aftermath, 1839–1850

1. Believing the Europeans to be a remote and relatively unimportant people, the Qing did not at first pay much attention to trade issues or to the growth in the opium trade. In 1939, when the Qing government realized the harm being done by the opium trade, they decided to ban the use and import of opium and sent Lin Zexu to Canton to deal with the matter.

2. The attempt to ban the opium trade led to the Opium War (1839–1842), in which th better-armed British naval and ground forces defeated the Qing and forced them to sign the Treaty of Nanking. The Treaty of Nanking and subsequent treaties signed between the Qing and the various Western powers gave Westerners special privileges and resulted in the colonization of small pockets of Qing territory.

C. The Taiping Rebellion, 1850–1864

1. The Taiping Rebellion broke out in Guangxi province, where poor farmland, endemic poverty, and economic distress were complicated by ethnic divisions that relegated the minority Hakka people to the lowliest trades.

2. The founder of the Taiping movement was Hong Xiuquan, a man of Hakka background who became familiar with the teachings of Christian missionaries in Canton. Hong declared himself to be the younger brother of Jesus and founded a

religious group (the Heavenly Kingdom of Great Peace or Taiping movement) to which he recruited followers from among the Hakka people.

3. The Taiping forces defeated imperial troops in Guangxi, recruited (or forced) villagers into their segregated male and female battalions and work teams, and moved toward eastern and northern China. In 1853, the Taiping forces captured Nanjing and made it the capital of their Heavenly Kingdom of Great Peace.

4. The Qing were finally able to defeat the Taiping with help from military forces organized by provincial governors like Zeng Guofan and with the assistance of British and French forces.

5. The Taiping Rebellion was one of the world's bloodiest civil wars and the greatest armed conflict before the twentieth century. The results of the Taiping Rebellion included 20 to 30 million deaths, depopulation and destruction of rich agricultural lands in central and eastern China, and suffering and destruction in the cities and cultural centers of eastern China.

D. Decentralization at the End of the Qing Empire, 1864–1875

1. After the 1850s, the expenses of wars and the burden of indemnities payable to Western governments made it impossible for the Qing to get out of debt. With the Qing government so deeply in their debt, Britain and France became active participants in the period of recovery known as the Tongzhi Restoration that followed the Taiping Rebellion.

2. The real work of recovery was managed by provincial governors like Zeng Guofan, who looked to the United States as his model and worked to restore agriculture, reform the military, and industrialize armaments manufacture. The reform programs were supported by a coalition of Qing aristocrats, including the Empress Dowager Cixi, but they were unable to prevent the Qing Empire from disintegrating into a set of large power zones in which provincial governors exercised real authority.

IV. Conclusion

A. Similarity of Responses Among the Empires

1. Subjects of the Ottoman, Russian, and Qing Empires did not consider European economic pressure a challenge during the first half of the nineteenth century.

2. By the 1870s, European challenges to the empires had become widely realized—for the Ottoman and Russian Empires during the Crimean War, and for the Qing Empire during the Opium War.

3. Although historians view economic pressure as the force that weakened the empires, rulers of the Ottoman, Russian, and Qing Empires themselves considered their greatest challenge to be the military superiority of the Europeans.

B. Distinctions in Response Among the Empires

1. China's geographic distance protected it from the political tensions between Britain and Russia.

2. The Ottoman Empire was left out of deliberations among European powers that included Russia mainly because Europe anticipated the eventual demise of the Ottomans.

CHAPTER 24

Outline Chapter 24: Nation Building and Economic Transformation in the Americas, 1800–1900

I. Independence in Latin America, 1800–1830

A. Roots of Revolution, to 1810

1. Wealthy colonial residents of Latin America were frustrated by the political and economic power of colonial officials and angered by high taxes and imperial monopolies. Events in Europe ultimately caused a crisis of legitimacy that led to the colonial revolutions in Latin America.

2. The Portuguese royal family fled to Brazil, where King John VI maintained his court for over a decade.

3. Napoleon's invasion of Portugal and Spain in 1807 and 1808 led dissenters in Venezuela, Mexico, and Bolivia to overthrow Spanish colonial officials in 1808–1809. The Spanish authorities quickly reasserted control, but a new round of revolutions began in 1810.

B. Spanish South America 1810–1825

1. A Creole-led revolutionary junta declared independence in Venezuela in 1811. Spanish authorities were able to rally free blacks and slaves to defend the Spanish Empire because the junta's leaders were interested primarily in pursuing the interests of Creole landholders.

2. Simón Bolívar emerged as the leader of the Venezuelan revolutionaries. Bolívar used the force of his personality to attract new allies (including slaves and free blacks) to his cause and to command the loyalty of his troops.

3. Bolívar defeated the Spanish armies in 1824 and tried to forge Venezuela, Colombia, and Ecuador into a single nation. This project was a failure, as were Bolívar's other attempts to create a confederation of the former Spanish colonies.

4. Buenos Aires was another important center of revolutionary activity in Spanish South America.

5. In 1816, after Ferdinand regained the Spanish throne, local junta leaders declared independence as the United Provinces of Rio de la Plata.

6. The new government was weak, and the region quickly descended into political chaos.

C. Mexico, 1810–1823

1. In 1810, Mexico was Spain's richest and most populous colony, but the Amerindian population of central Mexico had suffered from dislocation due to mining and commercial enterprises and from a cycle of crop failures and epidemics.

2. On September 16, 1810, a parish priest, Miguel Hidalgo y Costilla, urged the people to rise up against the Spanish authorities. The resulting violent rebellion took place under the leadership of Hidalgo and then, after Hidalgo's capture and execution, under José María Morelos. Loyalist forces defeated the insurrection and executed Morelos in 1815.

3. In 1821, news of a military revolt in Spain inspired Colonel Agustín de Iturbide to declare Mexico's independence, with himself as emperor. In early 1823, the army overthrew Iturbide, and Mexico became a republic.

D. Brazil, to 1831

1. King John VI of Portugal ruled his kingdom from Brazil until 1821, when unrest in Spain and Portugal led him to return to Lisbon. King John's son Pedro remained in Brazil, where he ruled as regent until 1822, when he declared Brazil to be an independent constitutional monarchy, with himself as king.

2. Pedro's liberal policies (including opposition to slavery) alienated the political slaveholding elite, and he incurred heavy losses of men and money as he attempted to control Uruguay by military force. Street demonstrations and violence led Pedro I to abdicate in favor of his son, Pedro II, who reigned until republicans overthrew him in 1889.

II. The Problem of Order, 1825–1890

A. Constitutional Experiments

1. Leaders in both the United States and in Latin America espoused constitutionalism. In the United States, the colonists' prior experience with representative government contributed to the success of constitutionalism; in Latin America, inexperience with popular politics contributed to the failure of constitutions.

2. In Canada, Britain responded to demands for political reform by establishing limited self-rule in each of the provinces in the 1840s. In 1867, the provincial governments of Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia entered into a confederation to form the Dominion of Canada with a central government in Ottawa.

3. In Latin America, lack of experience with elected legislatures and municipal governments led the drafters of constitutions to experiment with untested and impractical political institutions. Latin American nations also found it difficult to define the political role of the church and to subordinate the army and its prestigious leaders to civilian government.

B. Personalist Leaders

1. Successful military leaders in both the United States and Latin America were able to use their military reputations as the foundations of political power. Latin America's slow development of stable political institutions made personalist politics much more influential than it was in the United States.

2. The first constitutions of nearly all the American republics excluded large numbers of poor citizens from full political participation. This led to the rise of populist leaders who articulated the desires of the excluded poor and who at times used populist politics to undermine constitutional order and move toward dictatorship. Andrew Jackson in the United States and José Antonio Páez in Venezuela are two examples of populist politicians who challenged the constitutional limits of their authority.

3. Páez declared Venezuela's independence from Bolívar's Gran Colombia in 1829 and ruled as president or dictator for the next eighteen years. Jackson, born in humble circumstances, was a successful general who, as president, increased the powers of the presidency at the expense of the Congress and the Supreme Court.

4. Personalist leaders like Páez and Jackson dominated national politics by identifying with the common people, but in practice, they promoted the interests of powerful property owners. Personalist leaders were common in both the United States and Latin America, but in Latin America, the weaker constitutional tradition, less protection of property rights, lower literacy levels, and less developed communications systems allowed personalist leaders to become dictators.

C. The Threat of Regionalism

1. After independence, the relatively weak central governments of the new nations were often unable to prevent regional elites from leading secessionist movements.

2. In Spanish America, all of the post-independence efforts to create large multistate federations failed. Central America split off from Mexico in 1823 and then broke up into five separate nations; Gran Colombia broke up into Venezuela, Colombia, and Ecuador; and Uruguay, Paraguay, and Bolivia declared their independence from Argentina.

3. Regionalism threatened the United States when the issue of slavery divided the nation, leading to the establishment of the Confederacy and the U.S. Civil War.

4. The Confederacy failed because of poor timing; the new states of the Western Hemisphere were most vulnerable during the first decades after independence. The Confederacy's attempt to secede from the United States came when the national government was well-established and strengthened by experience, economic growth, and population growth.

D. Foreign Interventions and Regional Wars

1. During the nineteenth century, wars between Western Hemisphere nations and invasions from the European powers often determined national borders, access to natural resources, and control of markets. By the end of the nineteenth century, the United States, Brazil, Argentina, and Chile had successfully waged wars against their neighbors and established themselves as regional powers.

2. European military intervention included the British attack on the United States in the War of 1812, the United States' war with Spain in 1898–1899, French and English naval blockades of Argentina, an English naval blockade of Brazil, and Spanish and French invasions of Mexico. When the French invaded Mexico in 1862, they ousted President Benito Juárez and established Maximilian Habsburg as emperor. Juárez drove the French out in 1867; Maximilian was captured and executed.

3. The United States defeated Mexico and forced the Mexican government to give up Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, and Colorado in 1848.

4. Chile defeated the combined forces of Peru and Bolivia in two wars (1836–1839 and 1879–1881). Chile gained nitrate mines and forced Bolivia to give up its only outlet to the sea.

5. Argentina and Brazil fought over control of Uruguay in the 1820s but finally recognized Uruguayan independence. Argentina, Brazil, and Uruguay then cooperated in a five-year war against Paraguay in which Paraguay was defeated, occupied, lost territory, and was forced to open its markets to foreign trade.

E. Native Peoples and the Nation-State

1. When the former colonies of the Western Hemisphere became independent, the colonial powers ceased to play a role as mediator for and protector of the native peoples. Independent Amerindian peoples posed a significant challenge to the new nations of the Western Hemisphere, but Amerindian military resistance was overcome in both North and South America by the end of the 1880s.

2. In the United States, rapid expansion of white settlements between 1790 and 1810 led to conflict between the forces of the American government and Amerindian confederations like that led by Tecumseh and Prophet in 1811–1812. Further white settlement led to the Indian Removal Act of 1830, which forced the resettlement of eastern Amerindian peoples to land west of the Mississippi River.

3. Amerindians living on the Great Plains had become skilled users of horses and firearms, and thus offered more formidable resistance to the expansion of white settlement. Horses and firearms had also made the Plains peoples less reliant on agriculture and more reliant on buffalo hunting. The near extinction of the buffalo, loss of land to ranchers, and nearly four decades of armed conflict with the United States Army forced the Plains Amerindians to give up their land and accept reservation life.

4. In Argentina and Chile, native people were able to check the expansion of white settlement until the 1860s, when population increase, political stability, and military modernization gave the Chilean and Argentinean governments the upper hand. In the 1870s, the governments of both Argentina and Chile crushed native resistance and drove surviving Amerindians onto marginal land.

5. In Mexico, plantation owners in the Yucatán Peninsula had forced Maya communities off their land and into poverty. In 1847, when the Mexican government was busy with its war against the United States, Maya communities in the Yucatán rose in a revolt (the Caste War) that nearly returned the Yucatán to Maya rule.

III. The Challenge of Social and Economic Change

A. The Abolition of Slavery

1. In most of the new nations, rhetorical assertion of the universal ideals of freedom and citizenship contrasted sharply with the reality of slavery. Slavery survived in much of the Western Hemisphere until the 1850s—it was strongest in those areas where the export of plantation products was most important.

2. In the early nineteenth century, slavery was weakened by abolition in some of the northern states of the United States; by the termination of the African slave trade to the United States (1808); and by the freeing of tens of thousands of slaves, who joined the revolutionary armies in the Spanish American republics. But at the same time, increased international demand for plantation products in the first half of the nineteenth century led to increased imports of slaves to Brazil and Cuba.

3. In the United States, abolitionists made moral and religious arguments against slavery. Two groups denied full citizenship rights under the Constitution, women and free African Americans, played important roles in the abolition

movement. The Emancipation Proclamation ended slavery in the rebel states not occupied by the Union army, while final abolition was accomplished with the passage of the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution in 1865.

4. In Brazil, progress toward the abolition of slavery was slower and depended on pressure from the British. The heroism of former slaves who joined the Brazilian army in the war against Paraguay helped to feed abolitionist sentiment that led to abolition in 1888.

5. In the Caribbean colonies, there was little support for abolition among whites or among free blacks. Abolition in the British Caribbean colonies was the result of government decisions made in the context of the declining profitability of the sugar plantations of the British West Indies, while abolition in the French colonies followed the overthrow of the government of Louis Philippe. Slavery was abolished in Puerto Rico in 1873 and in Cuba in 1886.

B. Immigration

1. As the slave trade ended, immigration from Europe and Asia increased. During the nineteenth century, Europe provided the majority of immigrants to the Western Hemisphere, while Asian immigration increased after 1850.

2. Immigration brought economic benefits, but hostility to immigration mounted in many nations. Asian immigrants faced discrimination and violence in the United States, Canada, Peru, Mexico, and Cuba; immigrants from European countries also faced prejudice and discrimination.

3. The desire to sustain a common citizenship inspired a number of policies that aimed to compel immigrants to assimilate. Schools in particular were used to inculcate language, cultural values, and patriotism.

C. American Cultures

1. Despite discrimination, immigrants altered the politics of many of the hemisphere's nations as they sought to influence government policies.

2. Immigrants, undergoing acculturation, were changed by their experiences in their adopted nations. At the same time, the languages, arts, music, and political cultures of the Western Hemisphere nations were influenced by the cultures of the immigrants.

D. Women's Rights and the Struggle for Social Justice

1. In the second half of the nineteenth century, women's rights movements made slow progress toward the achievement of economic, legal, political, and educational equality in the United States, Canada, and Latin America. Most working-class women played no role in the women's rights movements; nonetheless, economic circumstances forced working class women to take jobs outside the home and thus to contribute to the transformation of gender relations.

2. Despite the abolition of slavery, various forms of discrimination against persons of African descent remained in place throughout the Western Hemisphere at the end of the century. Attempts to overturn racist stereotypes and to celebrate black cultural achievements in political and literary magazines failed to end racial discrimination.

3. Successful men and women of mixed ethnicity in Latin America faced less discrimination than did those in the United States.

E. Development and Underdevelopment

1. Nearly all the nations of the Western Hemisphere experienced economic growth during the nineteenth century, but the United States was the only one to industrialize. Only the United States, Canada, and Argentina attained living standards similar to those in Western Europe.

2. Rising demand for mine products led to mining booms in the western United States, Mexico, and Chile. Heavily capitalized European and North American corporations played a significant role in developing mining enterprises in Latin America. The expense of transportation and communications technology also increased dependence on foreign capital.

3. Latin America, the United States, and Canada all participated in the increasingly integrated world market, but interdependence and competition produced deep structural differences among Western Hemisphere economies. Those nations that industrialized achieved prosperity and development, while those nations that depended on the export of raw materials and low-wage industries experienced under-development.

4. Cyclical swings in international markets partially explain why Canada and the United States achieved development while Latin America remained underdeveloped. Both the United States and Canada gained independence during periods of global economic expansion. Latin American countries gained independence during the 1820s, when the global economy was contracting.

5. Weak governments, political instability, and (in some cases) civil war also slowed Latin American development. Latin America became dependent on Britain and, later, on the United States for technology and capital.

F. Altered Environments

1. Population growth, economic expansion, and the introduction of new plants and animals brought about deforestation, soil exhaustion, and erosion. Rapid urbanization put strain on water delivery systems and sewage and garbage disposal systems and led to the spread of the timber industry. The expansion of the mining industry led to erosion and pollution in the western United States, Chile, and Brazil.

2. Faced with a choice between protecting the environment or achieving economic growth, all of the hemisphere's nations chose economic growth.

IV. Conclusion

A. Constitutional Challenges

1. All new nations in the Western Hemisphere evolved from their colonial political traditions.

2. All but the United States suffered failed constitutions within a generation and were divided by distinct regions and ideologies.

B. Challenges of Expansion

1. The new nations faced foreign intervention and/or regional competition over territory.

2. Amerindians lost out to white encroachment throughout the hemisphere.

C. Social and Economic Changes

1. The end of slavery in the United States and Brazil followed long campaigns and protests to the point of Civil War. The poorest regions of the United States and Brazil were those that had relied upon slave labor. Amerindian populations were forced to marginal lands and remained at the bottom economically.

2. Immigrants to the Western Hemisphere tended to settle in regions that had not included slavery. Many came as indentured servants and some, such as the Chinese and East Indians, suffered racial discrimination.

3. Although economic growth throughout the hemisphere depended upon agricultural exports, the United States had become a major industrial nation by 1890.

CHAPTER 25

Outline Chapter 25: Varieties of Imperialism in Africa, India, Southeast Asia, and Latin America, 1750–1914

I. Changes and Exchanges in Africa

A. New African States

1. Serious drought hit the coastlands of southeastern Africa in the early nineteenth century and led to conflicts over grazing and farming lands. During these conflicts, Shaka used strict military drill and close-combat warfare to build the Zulu kingdom.

2. Some neighboring Africans created their own states (such as Swaziland and Lesotho) to protect themselves against the expansionist Zulu kingdom. Shaka ruled the Zulu kingdom for little more than a decade, but he succeeded in creating a new national identity as well as a new kingdom.

3. In West Africa, movements to purify Islam led to the construction of new states through the classic Muslim pattern of jihad. The largest of these reform movements occurred in the Hausa states and led to the establishment of the Sokoto Caliphate (1809–1906).

4. The new Muslim states became centers of Islamic learning and reform. Sokoto and other Muslim states both sold slaves and used slaves to raise food, thus making it possible for them to seclude free Muslim women in their homes in accordance with reformed Muslim practice.

B. Modernization in Egypt and Ethiopia

1. In Egypt, Muhammad Ali (r. 1805–1848) carried out a series of modernizing reforms for Egypt that combined Western methods with Islamic religious and cultural traditions.

2. Muhammad Ali's grandson Ismail placed even more emphasis on westernizing Egypt. Ismail's ambitious construction programs (railroads, the new capital city of Cairo) were funded by borrowing from French and British banks, which led Britain and France to occupy the country when the market for cotton collapsed after the American Civil War.

3. In the mid- to late nineteenth century Ethiopian kings reconquered territory that had been lost since the sixteenth century, purchased modern European weapons, and began to manufacture weapons locally. An attempt to hold British officials captive led to a temporary British occupation in the 1860s, but the British.

C. European Penetration

1. In 1830, France invaded Algeria; it took the French eighteen years to defeat Algerian resistance organized by the Muslim holy man Abd al-Qadir and another thirty years to put down resistance forces in the mountains. By 1871, 130,000 European settlers had taken possession of rich Algerian farmland.

2. European explorers carried out peaceful expeditions to trace the course of Africa's rivers, assess the mineral wealth of the continent, and convert Africans to Christianity. David Livingstone, Henry Morton Stanley, and other explorers traced the courses of the Nile, the Niger, the Zambezi, and the Congo rivers.

D. Abolition and Legitimate Trade

1. In 1808, news of slave revolts like that on Saint Domingue and the activities of abolitionists combined to lead Britain and the United States to prohibit their citizens from participating in the slave trade. The British used their navy to stop the slave trade, but the continued demand for slaves in Cuba and Brazil meant that the trade did not end until 1867.

2. As the slave trade declined, Africans expanded their legitimate trade in gold and other goods.

3. The most successful new export was palm oil, which was exported to British manufacturers of soap, candles, and lubricants. The increased export of palm oil altered the social structure of coastal trading communities of the Niger Delta, as is demonstrated in the career of the canoe slave Jaja, who became a wealthy palm oil trader in the 1870s.

4. The suppression of the slave trade also helped to spread Western cultural influences in West Africa. Missionaries converted and founded schools for the recaptives whom the British settled in Sierra Leone, while black Americans brought Western culture to Liberia and to other parts of Africa before and after emancipation in the United States.

E. Secondary Empires in Eastern Africa

1. When British patrols ended the slave trade on the Atlantic coast, slave traders in the Atlantic trade began to purchase their slaves from the East African markets that had traditionally supplied slaves to North Africa and the Middle East. Zanzibar Island and neighboring territories ruled by the sultan of Oman were important in the slave trade, the ivory trade, and the cultivation of cloves on plantations using slave labor.

2. The demand for ivory along the East African coast allowed African and Arab merchants hundreds of miles inland to build large personal trading empires like that of Tippu Tip. Historians refer to these empires as secondary empires because they depended on Western demand for ivory and other goods and on Western manufacturers for weapons.

II. India Under British Rule

A. Company Men

1. In the eighteenth century, the Mughal Empire was defeated and its capital sacked by marauding Iranian armies, while internally the Mughal's deputies (nawabs) had become de facto independent rulers of their states.

2. British, French, and Dutch companies staffed by ambitious young "company men" established trading posts in strategic places and hired Indian troops (sepoys) to defend them. By the early 1800s, the British East India Company had pushed the French out of south India, forced the Mughal Empire to recognize company rule over Bengal, and taken control of large territories that became the core of the Bombay Presidency.

B. Raj and Rebellion, 1818–1857

1. The British raj (reign) over India aimed both to introduce administrative and social reform and to maintain the support of Indian allies by respecting Indian social and religious customs.

2. Before 1850, the British created a government that relied on sepoy military power, disarmed the warriors of the Indian states, gave free reign to Christian missionaries, and established a private land ownership system to ease tax collection. At the same time, the British bolstered the traditional power of princes and holy men and invented so-called traditional rituals to celebrate their own rule.

3. British political and economic influence benefited Indian elites and created jobs in some sectors while bringing new oppression to the poor and causing the collapse of the traditional textile industry.

4. Discontent among the needy and particularly among the Indian soldiers led to the Sepoy Rebellion of 1857. The rebellion was suppressed in 1858, but it gave the British a severe shock.

C. Political Reform and Industrial Impact

1. After the rebellion of 1857–1858, the British eliminated the last traces of Mughal and company rule and installed a new government administered from London. The new government continued to emphasize both tradition and reform, maintained Indian princes in luxury, and staged elaborate ceremonial pageants known as durbars.

2. An efficient bureaucracy, the Indian Civil Service (ICS), now controlled the Indian masses. Recruitment into the ICS was by examinations that were theoretically open to all, but in practice, racist attitudes prevented Indians from gaining access to the upper levels of administration.

3. After 1857, the British government and British enterprises expanded the production and export of agricultural commodities and built irrigation systems, railroads, and telegraph lines. Freer movement of people into the cities caused the spread of cholera, which was brought under control when new sewage and filtered water systems were installed in the major cities in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.

D. Indian Nationalism

1. The failure of the rebellion of 1857 prompted some Indians to argue that the only way for Indians to regain control of their destiny was to reduce their country's social and ethnic divisions and to promote a Pan-Indian nationalism.

2. In the early nineteenth century, Rammouhan Roy and his Brahmo Samaj movement tried to reconcile Indian religious traditions with western values and to reform traditional abuses of women. After 1857, Indian intellectuals tended to turn toward western secular values and western nationalism as a way of developing a Pan-Indian nationalism that would transcend regional and religious differences.

3. Indian middle-class nationalists convened the first Indian National Congress in 1885. The congress promoted national unity and argued for greater inclusion of Indians in the Civil Service, but it was an elite organization with little support from the masses.

III. Britain's Eastern Empire

A. Colonies and Commerce

1. British defeat of French and Dutch forces in the Napoleonic Wars allowed Britain to expand its control in South Africa, Southeast Asia, and the southern Caribbean.

2. The Cape Colony was valuable to Britain because of its strategic importance as a supply station on the route to India. In response to British pressure, the descendants of earlier French and Dutch settlers (the Afrikaners) embarked on a "great trek" to found new colonies on the fertile high veld that had been depopulated by the Zulu wars.

3. The British also established a series of strategic outposts in Southeast Asia. Thomas Raffles established the free port of Singapore in 1824, Assam was annexed to India in 1826, and Burma was annexed in 1852.

B. Imperial Policies and Shipping

1. Britain in this period was more interested in trade than in acquiring territory. Most of the new colonies were intended to serve as ports in a global shipping network that the British envisioned in terms of free trade, as opposed to the previous mercantilist trade policy.

2. Whether colonized or not, more lands were being drawn into the commercial networks created by British expansion and industrialization. These areas became exporters of raw materials and agricultural goods and importers of affordable manufactured products.

3. A second impetus to global commercial expansion was the technological revolution in the construction of oceangoing ships in the nineteenth century. Use of iron to fasten timbers together and the use of huge canvas sails allowed shipbuilders to make larger, faster vessels that lowered the cost of shipping and thus stimulated maritime trade.

C. Colonization of Australia and New Zealand

1. The development of new ships and shipping contributed to the colonization of Australia and New Zealand by British settlers who displaced the indigenous populations.

2. Portuguese mariners sighted Australia in the early seventeenth century, and Captain James Cook surveyed New Zealand and the eastern Australian coast between 1769 and 1778. Unfamiliar diseases brought by new overseas contacts substantially reduced the populations of the hunter-gatherers of Australia and the Maori of New Zealand.

3. Australia received British convicts and, after the discovery of gold in 1851, a flood of free European (and some Chinese) settlers. British settlers came more slowly to New Zealand until defeat of the Maori, faster ships, and a short gold rush brought more British immigrants after 1860.

4. The British crown gradually turned governing power over to the British settlers of Australia and New Zealand, but Aborigines and the Maori experienced discrimination. However, Australia did develop powerful trade unions, New Zealand promoted the availability of land for the common person, and both Australia and New Zealand granted women the right to vote in 1894.

D. New Labor Migrations

1. Between 1834 and 1870, large numbers of Indians, Chinese, and Africans went overseas as laborers. British India was the greatest source of migrant laborers, and British colonies (particularly sugar plantations) were the principal destinations of the migrants.

2. With the end of slavery, the demand for cheap labor in the British colonies, Cuba, and Hawaii was filled by Indians, free Africans, Chinese, and Japanese workers. These workers served under contracts of indenture that bound them to work for a specified number of years in return for free passage to their overseas destination; a small salary; and free housing, clothing, and medical care.

3. These new indentured migrants were similar to the European emigrants of the time because they left their homelands voluntarily to make money that they could send or take back home or to finance a new life in their new country. However, people recruited as indentured laborers were generally much poorer than European emigrants, took lower-paying jobs, and were unable to afford the passage to the most desirable areas.

IV. Conclusion

A. Britain's Expansion from the European Perspective

1. Britain's power in the Indian Ocean Basin and South Pacific continued dominance begun by the Portuguese and Spanish, and then by the Dutch during the earlier imperialistic age.

2. Britain's control over South and Southeast Asia, Australia, and New Zealand continued the conquest and colonization of the Americas.

3. The importance of Britain's growing domination lay in their demand for new resources found in Africa and southern Asia.

B. Britain's Expansion from the Perspective of Africa, Asia, and the Pacific

1. African and Asian consumers preferred some of the industrially produced goods found in Europe over local handicrafts.

2. Britain's commercial expansion provided new markets for Asian and African goods as well.

3. Local power relationships affected native cultures more than did European forces.

4. Africans and Asians learned how to challenge western powers on their own terms.

Outline Chapter 26: The New Power Balance, 1850–1900

I. New Technologies and the World Economy

A. Railroads

1. By 1850, the first railroads had proved so successful that every industrializing country began to build railroad lines. Railroad building in Britain, France, Germany, Canada, Russia, Japan, and the United States fueled a tremendous expansion in the world's rail networks from 1850 to 1900.

2. In the non-industrialized world, railroads were also built wherever they would be of value to business or to government.

3. Railroads consumed huge amounts of land and timber for ties and bridges. Throughout the world, railroads opened new land to agriculture, mining, and other human exploitation of natural resources.

B. Steamships and Telegraph Cables

1. In the mid-nineteenth century, a number of technological developments in shipbuilding made it possible to increase the average size and speed of oceangoing vessels. These developments included the use of iron (and then steel) for hulls, propellers, and more efficient engines.

2. Entrepreneurs developed a form of organization known as the shipping line to make the most efficient use of these large and expensive new ships. Shipping lines also used the growing system of submarine telegraph cables to coordinate the movements of their ships around the globe.

C. The Steel and Chemical Industries

1. Steel is an especially hard and elastic form of iron that could be made only in small quantities by skilled blacksmiths before the eighteenth century. A series of inventions in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries made it possible to produce large quantities of steel at low cost.

2. Until the late eighteenth century, chemicals were also produced in small amounts in small workshops. The nineteenth century brought large-scale manufacture of chemicals and the invention of synthetic dyes and other new organic chemicals.

3. Nineteenth-century advances in explosives (including Alfred Nobel's invention of dynamite) had significant effects on both civil engineering and on the development of more powerful and more accurate firearms.

4. The complexity of industrial chemistry made it one of the first fields in which science and technology interacted on a daily basis. This development gave a great advantage to Germany, where government-funded research and cooperation between universities and industries made the German chemical and explosives industries the most advanced in the world by the end of the nineteenth century.

5. Waste products from steel and chemical production polluted the air and waterways.

D. Electricity

1. In the 1870s, inventors devised efficient generators that turned mechanical energy into electricity that could be used to power arc lamps, incandescent lamps, streetcars, subways, and electric motors for industry.

2. Electrically powered street cars helped to alleviate the urban pollution caused by horse-drawn vehicles.

E. World Trade and Finance

1. Between 1850 and 1913, world trade expanded tenfold, while the cost of freight dropped between 50 and 95 percent so that even cheap and heavy products such as agricultural products, raw materials, and machinery were shipped around the world.

2. The growth of trade and close connections between the industrial economies of Western Europe and North America brought greater prosperity to these areas, but it also made them more vulnerable to swings in the business cycle. One of the main causes of this growing interdependence was the financial power of Great Britain.

3. Nonindustrial areas were also tied to the world economy. The nonindustrial areas were even more vulnerable to swings in the business cycle because they depended on the export of raw materials that could often be replaced by synthetics or for which the industrial nations could develop new sources of supply. Nevertheless, until 1913, the value of exports from the tropical countries generally remained high, and the size of their populations remained moderate.

II. Social Changes

A. Population and Migrations

1. Between 1850 and 1914, Europe saw very rapid population growth, while emigration from Europe spurred population growth in the United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and Argentina. As a result, the proportion of people of European ancestry in the world's population rose from one-fifth to one-third.

2. Reasons for the increase in European population include a drop in the death rate, improved crop yields, the provision of grain from newly opened agricultural land in North America, and the provision of a more abundant year-round diet as a result of canning and refrigeration.

3. Asians also migrated in large numbers during this period, often as indentured laborers, to areas such as the Caribbean, Brazil, and California.

B. Urbanization and Urban Environments

1. In the latter half of the nineteenth century, European, North American, and Japanese cities grew tremendously both in terms of population and of size. In areas like the English Midlands, the German Ruhr, and around Tokyo Bay, towns fused into one another, creating new cities.

2. Urban growth was accompanied by changes in the character of urban life. Technologies that changed the quality of urban life for the rich (and later for the working class as well) included mass transportation networks, sewage and water supply systems, gas and electric lighting, police and fire departments, sanitation and garbage removal, building and health inspection, schools, parks, and other amenities.

3. New neighborhoods and cities were built (and older areas often rebuilt) on a rectangular grid pattern with broad boulevards and modern apartment buildings. Cities were divided into industrial, commercial, and residential zones, with the residential zones occupied by different social classes.

4. While urban environments improved in many ways, air quality worsened. Coal used as fuel polluted the air, while the waste of the thousands of horses that pulled carts and carriages lay stinking in the streets until horses were replaced by streetcars and automobiles in the early twentieth century.

C. Middle-Class Women's "Separate Sphere"

1. The term Victorian Age refers not only to the reign of Queen Victoria (r. 1837–1901), but also to the rules of behavior and the ideology surrounding the family and relations between men and women. Men and women were thought to belong in "separate spheres": the men in the workplace, the women in the home.

2. Before electrical appliances, a middle-class home demanded lots of work; the advent of modern technology in the nineteenth century eliminated some tasks and made others easier, but rising standards of cleanliness meant that technological advances did not translate into a decrease in the housewife's total workload.

3. The most important duty of middle-class women was to raise their children. Victorian mothers lavished much time and attention on their children, but girls received an education very different from that of boys.

4. Governments enforced legal discrimination against women throughout the nineteenth century, and society frowned on careers for middle-class women. Women were excluded from jobs that required higher education; teaching was a permissible career, but women teachers were expected to resign when they got married. Some middle-class women were not satisfied with home life and became involved in volunteer work or in the women's suffrage movement.

D. Working-Class Women

1. Working-class women led lives of toil and pain. Many became domestic servants, facing long hours of hard physical labor.

2. Many more young women worked in factories, where they were relegated to poorly paid work in the textiles and clothing trades. Married women were expected to stay home, raise children, do housework, and contribute to the family income by taking in boarders, doing sewing or other piecework jobs, or by washing other people's clothes.

III. Socialism and Labor Movements

A. Marx and Socialism

1. Socialism began as an intellectual movement. The best-known socialist was Karl Marx (1818–1883) who, along with Friedrich Engles (1820–1895) wrote the Communist Manifesto (1848) and Das Kapital (1867).

2. Marx saw history as a long series of clashes between social classes.

3. Marx's theories provided an intellectual framework for general dissatisfaction with unregulated industrial capitalism.

B. Labor Movements

1. Labor unions were organizations formed by industrial workers to defend their interests in negotiations with employers. Labor unions developed from the workers' "friendly societies" of the early nineteenth century and sought better wages, improved working conditions, and insurance for workers.

2. During the nineteenth century, workers were brought into electoral politics as the right to vote was extended to all adult males in Europe and North America. Instead of seeking the violent overthrow of the bourgeois class, socialists used their voting power to force concessions from the government and even to win elections.

3. Working-class women had little time for politics and were not welcome in the male-dominated trade unions or in the radical political parties. The few women who did participate in radical politics found it difficult to reconcile the demands of workers with those of women.

IV. Nationalism and the Rise of Italy, Germany, and Japan

A. Language and National Identity in Europe Before 1871

1. Language was usually the crucial element in creating a feeling of national unity, but language and citizenship rarely coincided. The idea of redrawing the boundaries of states to accommodate linguistic, religious, and cultural differences led to the forging of larger states from the many German and Italian principalities, but it threatened to break large multiethnic empires like Austria-Hungary into smaller states.

2. Until the 1860s, nationalism was associated with liberalism, as in the case of the Italian liberal nationalist Giuseppe Mazzini. After 1848, conservative political leaders learned how to preserve the social status quo by using public education, universal military service, and colonial conquests to build a sense of national identity that focused loyalty on the state.

B. The Unification of Italy, 1860–1870

1. By the mid-nineteenth century, popular sentiment favored Italian unification. Unification was opposed by Pope Pius IX and Austria.

2. Count Cavour, the prime minister of Piedmont-Sardinia, used the rivalry between France and Austria to gain the help of France in pushing the Austrians out of northern Italy.

3. In the south, Giuseppe Garibaldi led a revolutionary army in 1860 that defeated the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies.

4. A new Kingdom of Italy, headed by Victor Emmanuel (the former king of Piedmont- Sardinia) was formed in 1860. In time, Venetia (1866) and the Papal States (1870) were added to Italy.

C. The Unification of Germany, 1866–1871

1. Until the 1860s, the German-speaking people were divided among Prussia, the western half of the Austrian Empire, and numerous smaller states. Prussia took the lead in the movement for German unity because it had a strong industrial base in the Rhineland and an army that was equipped with the latest military, transportation, and communications technology.

2. During the reign of Wilhelm I (r. 1861–1888), the Prussian chancellor Otto von Bismarck achieved the unification of Germany through a combination of diplomacy and the Franco- Prussian War. Victory over France in the Franco-Prussian War completed the unification of Germany, but it also resulted in German control over the French provinces of Alsace and Lorraine and thus in the long-term enmity between France and Germany.

D. The West Challenges Japan

1. In the early nineteenth century, Japan was ruled by the Tokugawa Shogunate, and local lords had significant autonomy. This system made it hard for Japan to coordinate its response to outside threats.

2. In 1853, the American commodore Matthew C. Perry arrived in Japan with a fleet of steam-powered warships and demanded that the Japanese open their ports to trade and American ships.

3. Dissatisfaction with the shogunate's capitulation to American and European demands led to a civil war.

E. The Meiji Restoration and the Modernization of Japan, 1868–1894

1. The civil war was short-lived and led to the overthrow of the shogunate in 1868.

2. The new rulers of Japan were known as the Meiji oligarchs.

3. The Meiji oligarchs were willing to change their institutions and their society to help transform their country into a world-class industrial and military power. The Japanese learned industrial and military technology, science, engineering, and new educational systems.

4. The Japanese sent students to be educated in the West to learn western culture, including clothing styles.

5. The Japanese government encouraged industrialization, funding industrial development in cloth industries, then selling them to private investors.

F. Nationalism and Social Darwinism

1. After the Franco-Prussian War, all politicians tried to manipulate public opinion to bolster their governments by using the press and public education to foster nationalistic loyalties. In many countries, the dominant group used nationalism to justify the imposition of its language, religion, or customs on minority populations, as in the attempts of Russia to "Russify" its diverse ethnic populations.

2. Herbert Spencer (1820–1903) and others took up Charles Darwin's ideas of natural selection and survival of the fittest and applied them to human societies to justify European conquest of foreign nations and the social and gender hierarchies of western society.

V. The Great Powers of Europe, 1871–1900

A. Germany at the Center of Europe

1. International relations revolved around a united Germany, which, under Bismarck's leadership, isolated France and forged a loose coalition with Austria-Hungary and Russia. At home, Bismarck used mass politics and social legislation to gain popular support and to develop a strong sense of national unity and pride among the German people.

2. Wilhelm II (r. 1888–1918) dismissed Bismarck and initiated a German foreign policy that placed emphasis on the acquisition of colonies.

B. The Liberal Powers: France and Great Britain

1. France was now a second-rate power in Europe, its population and army being smaller than those of Germany. French society seemed divided between monarchist Catholics and republicans with anticlerical views; in fact, popular participation in politics, a strong sense of nationhood, and a system of universal education gave the French people a deeper cohesion than appeared on the surface.

2. In Britain, a stable government and a narrowing in the disparity of wealth were accompanied by a number of problems. Particularly notable were Irish resentment of English rule, an economy that was lagging behind those of the United States and Germany, and an enormous empire that was very expensive to administer and to defend. For most of the nineteenth century, Britain pursued a policy of "splendid isolation" toward Europe; preoccupation with India led the British to exaggerate the Russian threat to the Ottoman Empire and to the Central Asian approaches to India while they ignored the rise of Germany.

C. The Conservative Powers: Russia and Austria-Hungary

1. The forces of nationalism weakened Russia and Austria-Hungary. Austria had alienated its Slavic-speaking minorities by renaming itself the "Austro-Hungarian Empire." The empire offended Russia by attempting to dominate the Balkans.

2. Ethnic diversity also contributed to instability in Russia. Attempts to foster Russian nationalism and to impose the Russian language on a diverse population proved to be divisive.

3. In 1861, Tsar Alexander II emancipated the peasants from serfdom, but he did so in such a way that it only turned them into communal farmers with few skills and little capital. Tsars Alexander III (r. 1881–1894) and Nicholas II (r. 1894–1917) opposed all forms of social change.

4. Russian industrialization was carried out by the state; thus the middle class remained small and weak, while the land-owning aristocracy dominated the court and administration. Defeat in the Russo-Japanese War (1904–1905) and the Revolution of 1905 demonstrated Russia's weakness and caused Tsar Nicholas to introduce a constitution and a parliament (the Duma), but he soon reverted to the traditional despotism of his forefathers.

VI. China, Japan, and the Western Powers

A. China in Turmoil

1. With China weakened from the Taiping Rebellion, the British and French demanded that treaty ports be opened to them for trade.

2. The Empress Dowager Cixi opposed efforts to facilitate foreign trade internally, and Chinese officials secretly encouraged rebellion against foreign technology, thus weakening their resistance to western economic pressure.

B. Japan Confronts China

1. Japan's leader of the Meiji oligarchs, Yamagata Aritomo, led Japan into a program of military industrialization to expand their sphere of influence as well as help them compete with European economic power.

2. As Japan grew stronger, China grew weaker until Japan defeated China in the Sino- Japanese War of 1894. Later Japan helped western forces put down the Boxer Rebellion in China, then showed even more strength by defeating Russia in the Russo-Japanese War of 1905.

3. Despite efforts by European nations to limit Japan's growing influence, it gained control of southern Manchuria and then annexed Korea in 1910, making Japan an imperial power.

VII. Conclusion

A. Industrialization combined with the introduction of electricity, steel, new chemicals, and global communication served to increase the economic power of western nations and East Asia.

B. The problems of pollution were somewhat relieved. Working women entered the factories as elite women became protected within separate spheres.

C. Socialism became an intellectual movement, labor unions gained recognition, and universal manhood suffrage became the law in the United States and parts of Europe.

D. Conservatives made use of nationalism to unify nations such as Germany and Italy, while theMeiji Restoration gave regained power to the emperor in Japan.

CHAPTER 27

Outline Chapter 27: The Crisis of the Imperial Order, 1900–1929

I. Origins of the Crisis in Europe and the Middle East

A. The Ottoman Empire and the Balkans

1. By the late nineteenth century, the once-powerful Ottoman Empire was in decline and losing the outlying provinces closest to Europe.

2. The Young Turks conspired to force a constitution on the sultan, advocated centralized rule and Turkification of minorities, and carried out modernizing reforms. The Turks hired a German general to modernize Turkey's armed forces.

B. Nationalism, Alliances, and Military Strategy

1. The three main causes of World War I were nationalism, the system of alliances and military plans, and Germany's yearning to dominate Europe.

2. Nationalism was deeply rooted in European culture, where it served to unite individual nations while undermining large multiethnic empires. Because of the spread of nationalism, most people viewed war as a crusade for liberty or as revenges for past injustices.

3. The major European countries were organized into two alliances: the Triple Alliance (Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy) and the Triple Entente (Britain, France, and Russia). The military alliance system was accompanied by inflexible mobilization plans that depended on railroads to move troops according to precise schedules.

4. When Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia on July 28, 1914, the alliance system, in combination with the rigidly scheduled mobilization plans, meant that war was automatic.

II. The "Great War" and the Russian Revolutions, 1914–1918

A. Stalemate, 1914–1917

1. The nations of Europe entered the war in high spirits, confident of victory. German victory at first seemed assured, but as the German advance faltered in September, both sides spread out until they formed an unbroken line of trenches (the Western Front) from the North Sea to Switzerland.

2. The generals on each side tried for four years to take enemy positions by ordering their troops to charge across the open fields, only to have them cut down by machine-gun fire. For four years, the war was inconclusive on both land and at sea.

B. The Home Front and the War Economy

1. The material demands of trench warfare led governments to impose stringent controls over all aspects of their economies. Rationing and the recruitment of Africans, Indians, Chinese, and women into the European labor force transformed civilian life. German civilians paid an especially high price for the war because the British naval blockade cut off access to essential food imports.

2. British and French forces overran Germany's African colonies (except for Tanganyika). In all of their African colonies, Europeans requisitioned food, imposed heavy taxes, forced Africans to grow export crops and sell them at low prices, and recruited African men to serve as soldiers and as porters.

3. The United States grew rich during the war by selling goods to Britain and France. When the United States entered the war in 1917, businesses engaged in war production made tremendous profits.

C. The Ottoman Empire at War

1. The Turks signed a secret alliance with Germany in 1914. Turkey engaged in unsuccessful campaigns against Russia, deported the Armenians (causing the deaths of hundreds of thousands), and closed the Dardanelles Straits.

2. When they failed to open the Dardanelles Straits by force, the British tried to subvert the Ottoman Empire from within by promising emir Hussein ibn Ali of Mecca a kingdom of his own if he would lead a revolt against the Turks, which he did in 1916.

3. In the Balfour Declaration of 1917, the British suggested to the Zionist leader Chaim Wiezman that they would "view with favor" the establishment of a Jewish national homeland in Palestine.

D. Double Revolution in Russia, 1917

1. By late 1916, the large but incompetent and poorly equipped Russian army had experienced numerous defeats and had run out of ammunition and other essential supplies. The civilian economy was in a state of collapse, and the cities faced shortages of fuel and food in the winter of 1916–1917.

2. In March 1917 (February by the old Russian calendar), the tsar was overthrown and replaced by a Provisional Government led by Alexander Kerensky. On November 6, 1917 (October 24 in the Russian calendar) Vladimir Lenin's Bolsheviks staged an uprising in Petrograd and overthrew the Provisional Government.

E. The End of the War in Western Europe, 1917–1918

1. German resumption of unrestricted submarine warfare brought the United States into the war in April 1917.

2. The Germans were able to break through and push within 40 miles of Paris. The arrival of U.S. forces allowed the Allies to counterattack in August 1918. The German soldiers retreated; an armistice was signed on November 11.

III. Peace and Dislocation in Europe, 1919–1929

A. The Impact of the War

1. Between 8 and 10 million people died in the war. The war also created millions of refugees, many of whom fled to France and to the United States, where the influx of immigrants prompted the U.S. Congress to pass immigration laws that closed the doors to eastern and southern Europeans.

2. One byproduct of the war was the influenza epidemic of 1918–1919, which started among soldiers headed for the Western Front and spread around the world, killing some 20 million people. The war also caused serious damage to the environment.

B. The Peace Treaties

1. Three men dominated the Paris Peace Conference: U.S. President Wilson, British Prime Minister David Lloyd George, and French Premier Georges Clemenceau. Because the three men had conflicting goals, the Treaty of Versailles turned out to be a series of unsatisfying compromises that humiliated Germany but left it largely intact and potentially the most powerful nation in Europe.

2. The Austro-Hungarian Empire fell apart. New countries were created in the lands lost by Russia, Germany, and Austria-Hungary.

C. Russian Civil War and the New Economic Policy

1. In Russia, Allied intervention and civil war extended the fighting for another three years beyond the end of World War I. By 1921, the Communists had defeated most of their enemies, and in 1922, the Soviet republic of Ukraine and Russia merged to create the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

2. Years of warfare, revolution, and mismanagement had ruined the Russian economy. Beginning in 1921, Lenin's New Economic Policy helped to restore production by relaxing government controls and allowing a return of market economics. This policy was regarded as a temporary measure that would be superseded as the Soviet Union built a modern, socialist, industrial economy by extracting resources from the peasants to pay for industrialization.

3. When Lenin died in January 1924, his associates struggled for power; the two main contenders were Leon Trotsky and Joseph Stalin. Stalin filled the bureaucracy with his supporters, expelled Trotsky, and forced him to flee the country.

D. An Ephemeral Peace

1. The 1920s were a decade of dissatisfaction among people whose hopes had been raised by the rhetoric of war and dashed by its outcome.

2. In 1923, French occupation of the Ruhr and severe inflation brought Germany to the brink of civil war. Currency reform and French withdrawal from the Ruhr marked the beginning of a period of peace and economic growth beginning in 1924.

IV. China and Japan: Contrasting Destinies

A. Social and Economic Change

1. In the first decades of the twentieth century, China was plagued by rapid population growth; an increasingly unfavorable ratio of population to arable land; avaricious landlords and tax collectors; and frequent, devastating floods of the Yellow River. Above the peasantry, Chinese society was divided among many groups: landowners, wealthy merchants, and foreigners, whose luxurious lives aroused the resentment of educated, young, urban Chinese.

2. Japan had few natural resources and very little arable land. While not troubled by floods, Japan was subject to other natural calamities. In Japan, industrialization and economic growth aggravated social tensions between westernized urbanites and traditionalists, and between the immensely wealthy zaibatsu and the poor farmers, who still comprised half the population.

3. Japanese prosperity depended on foreign trade. This made Japan much more vulnerable than China to swings in the world economy.

B. Revolution and War, 1900–1918

1. China's defeat and humiliation at the hands of an international force in the Boxer affair of 1900 led many Chinese students to conclude that China needed a revolution to overthrow the Qing and modernize the country. When a regional army unit mutinied in 1911, Sun Yat-sen's Revolutionary Alliance formed an assembly and elected Sun as president of China, but to avoid a civil war, the presidency was turned over to the powerful general Yuan Shikai, who rejected democracy and ruled as an autocrat.

2. The Japanese joined the Allied side in World War I and benefited from an economic boom as demand for their products rose. Japan used the war as an opportunity to conquer the German colonies in the Northern Pacific and on the Chinese coast and to further extend Japanese influence in China by forcing the Chinese government to accede to many of the conditions presented in a document called the Twenty-One Demands.

C. Chinese Warlords and the Guomindang, 1919–1929

1. At the Paris Peace Conference, the great powers allowed Japan to retain control over seized German enclaves in China, sparking protests in Beijing (May 4, 1919) and in many other parts of China. China's regional generals—the warlords—supported their armies through plunder and arbitrary taxation so that China grew poorer while only the treaty ports prospered.

2. Sun Yat-sen tried to make a comeback in Canton in the 1920s by reorganizing his Guomindang party along Leninist lines and by welcoming members of the newly created Chinese Communist Party. Sun's successor Chiang Kai-shek crushed the regional warlords in 1927.

3. Chiang then split with and decimated the Communist Party and embarked on an ambitious plan of top-down industrial modernization. However, Chiang's government was staffed by corrupt opportunists, not by competent administrators: China remained mired in poverty.

V. The New Middle East

A. The Mandate System

1. Instead of being given their independence, the former German colonies and Ottoman territories were given to the great powers as mandates. Class C Mandates were ruled as colonies, while Class B Mandates were to be ruled under League of Nations supervision.

2. The Arab-speaking territories of the former Ottoman Empire were Class A Mandates, a category that was defined to lead the Arabs to believe that they had been promised independence. In practice, Britain took control of Palestine, Iraq, and Trans-Jordan, while France took Syria and Lebanon as its mandates.

B. The Rise of Modern Turkey

1. At the end of the war, the Ottoman Empire was at the point of collapse, with French, British, Italian, and Greek forces occupying Constantinople and parts of Anatolia. In 1919 Mustafa Kemal formed a nationalist government and reconquered Anatolia and the area around Constantinople in 1922.

2. Kemal was an outspoken modernizer who declared Turkey to be a secular republic; introduced European laws; replaced the Arabic alphabet with the Latin alphabet; and attempted to westernize the Turkish family, the roles of women, and even Turkish clothing and headgear. His reforms spread quickly in the urban areas, but they encountered strong resistance in the countryside, where Islamic traditions remained strong.

C. Arab Lands and the Question of Palestine

1. Among the Arab people, the thinly disguised colonialism of the Mandate System set off protests and rebellions. At the same time, Middle Eastern society underwent significant changes: the population grew by 50 percent from 1914 to 1939, major cities doubled in size, and the urban merchant class adopted western ideas, customs, and lifestyles.

2. The Maghrib (Algeria, Tunisia, and Morocco) was dominated by the French army and by French settlers, who owned the best lands and monopolized government jobs and businesses. Arabs and Berbers remained poor and suffered from discrimination.

3. The British allowed Iraq to become independent under King Faisal (leader of the Arab revolt) but maintained a significant military and economic influence. France sent thousands of troops to crush nationalist uprisings in Lebanon and Syria. Britain declared Egypt to be independent in 1922 but retained control through its alliance with King Farouk.

4. In the Palestine Mandate, the British tried to limit the wave of Jewish immigration that began in 1920 but only succeeded in alienating both Jews and Arabs.

VI. Society, Culture, and Technology in the Industrialized World

A. Class and Gender

1. Class distinctions faded after the war as the role of the aristocracy (many of whom had died in battle) declined and displays of wealth came to be regarded as unpatriotic. The expanded role of government during and after the war led to an increase in the numbers of white-collar workers; the working class did not expand because the introduction of new machinery and new ways of organizing work made it possible to increase production without expanding the labor force.

2. In the 1920s, women enjoyed more personal freedoms than ever before, and women won the right to vote in some countries between 1915 and 1934.

B. Revolution in the Sciences

1. The discovery of subatomic particles, quanta, Einstein's theory of relativity, and the discovery that light is made up of either waves or particles undermined the certainties of Newtonian physics and offered the potential of unlocking new and dangerous sources of energy.

2. Innovations in the social sciences challenged Victorian morality, middle-class values, and notions of western superiority. The psychology of Sigmund Freud and the sociology of Emile Durkheim introduced notions of cultural relativism that combined with the experience of the war to call into question the West's faith in reason and progress.

C. The New Technologies of Modernity

1. The European and American public was fascinated with new technologies like the airplane and lionized the early aviators: Amelia Earhart, Richard Byrd, and especially Charles Lindbergh. Electricity began to transform home life, and commercial radio stations brought news, sports, soap operas, and advertising to homes throughout North America.

2. Film spread explosively in the 1920s. The early film industry of the silent film era was marked by diversity, with films being made in Japan, India, Turkey, Egypt, and Hollywood in the 1920s. The introduction of the talking picture in the United States in 1921, combined with the tremendous size of the American market, marked the beginning of the era of Hollywood's domination of film and its role in the diffusion of American culture.

3. Health and hygiene were also part of the cult of modernity. Advances in medicine, sewage treatment systems, indoor plumbing, and the increased use of soap and home appliances contributed to declines in infant mortality and improvements in health and life expectancy.

D. Technology and the Environment

1. The skyscraper and the automobile transformed the urban environment. Skyscrapers with load-bearing steel frames and passenger elevators were built in American cities. European cities restricted the height of buildings, but European architects led the way in designing simple, easily constructed, inexpensive, functional buildings in what came to be known as the International Style.

2. Mass-produced automobiles replaced horses in the city streets and led to the construction of far-flung suburban areas like those of Los Angeles. On farms, gasoline-powered tractors began replacing horses in the 1920s, while dams and canals were used to generate electricity and to irrigate dry land.

VII. Conclusion

A. Postwar Realignments

1. France and Britain emerged from the war economically weakened. Russia was left in civil war and revolution. The Austro-Hungarian and Ottoman Empires were divided into smaller, weaker nations.

2. Japan and the United States came out of the war in a more strengthened position than before.

B. Postwar Promise

1. The fall of the Ottoman Empire generated hope among Turks, Arabs, and Jewish immigrants of sovereign nation status.

2. French and British mandates thwarted those aspirations.

C. Postwar Society

1. Women remained in the workforce and demanded voting rights while governments took on more responsibility for citizens' health and well-being.

2. Science and technology brought entertainment, electricity, better health, and faster transportation to western nations.

CHAPTER 28

Outline Chapter 28: Revolutions in Living, 1900–1950

I. The Indian Independence Movement, 1905–1947

A. The Land and the People

1. Despite periodic famines due to drought, India's fertile land allowed the Indian population to increase from 250 million in 1900 to 389 million in 1941. Population growth brought environmental pressure, deforestation, and a declining amount of farm land per family.

2. Indian society was divided into many classes: peasants, wealthy property owners, and urban craftspeople, traders, and workers. The people of India spoke many different languages; English became the common medium of communication of the Western-educated middle class.

3. The majority of Indians practiced Hinduism. Muslims constituted one-quarter of the people of India and formed a majority in the northwest and in eastern Bengal.

B. British Rule and Indian Nationalism

1. Colonial India was ruled by a viceroy and administered by the Indian Civil Service. The few thousand members of the Civil Service manipulated the introduction of technology into India to protect the Indian people from the dangers of industrialization, prevent the development of radical politics, and maximize the benefits to Britain and to themselves.

2. At the turn of the century, the majority of Indians accepted British rule, but the racism and discrimination of the Europeans had inspired a group of Hindus to establish a political organization called the Indian National Congress in 1885. Muslims, fearful of Hindu dominance, founded the All-India Muslim League in 1906, thus giving India not one, but two independence movements.

3. The British resisted the idea that India could or should industrialize, but Pramatha Nath Bose of the Indian Geological Service and Jamseji Tata, a Bombay textile magnate, established India's first steel mill in Jamshedpur in 1911. Jamshedpur became a powerful symbol of Indian national pride.

4. In 1918 and 1919, several incidents contributed to an increase in tensions between the British and the Indian people. These incidents included a too-vague promise of self-government and the incident in which a British general ordered his troops to fire into a crowd of 10,000 demonstrators.

C. Mahatma Gandhi and Militant Nonviolence

1. Mohandas K. (Mahatma) Gandhi (1869–1948) was an English-educated lawyer who practiced in South Africa before returning to India and joining the Indian National Congress during World War I. Gandhi's political ideas included ahimsa (nonviolence) and satyagraha (the search for truth).

2. Gandhi dressed and lived simply; his affinity for the poor, the illiterate, and the outcasts made him able to transform the cause of Indian independence from an elite movement to a mass movement with a quasi-religious aura.

3. Gandhi's brilliance as a political tactician and master of public relations gestures was demonstrated in acts such as his eighty-mile "Walk to the Sea" to make salt (in violation of the government's salt monopoly), in his several fasts "unto death," and in his repeated arrests and prison sentences.

D. India Moves Toward Independence

1. In the 1920s, the British slowly and reluctantly began to give Indians control of areas such as education, the economy, and public works. High tariff barriers were erected behind which Indian entrepreneurs were able to undertake a degree of industrialization; this helped to create a class of wealthy Indian businesspeople who looked to Gandhi's designated successor in the Indian National Congress—Jawaharlal Nehru (1889–1964)—for leadership.

2. World War II divided the Indian people; Indians contributed heavily to the war effort, but the Indian National Congress opposed the war, and a minority of Indians joined the Japanese side.

E. Partition and Independence

1. In 1940, the Muslim League's leader Muhammad Ali Jinnah (1876–1948) demanded that Muslims be given a country of their own, to be named Pakistan. When World War II ended, Britain's new Labour Party government prepared for independence, but mutual animosity between the Indian National Congress and the Muslim League led to the partition of India into two states: India and Pakistan.

2. Partition and independence were accompanied by violence between Muslims and Hindus and by massive flows of refugees as Hindus left predominantly Muslim areas and Muslims left predominantly Hindu areas.

II. Sub-Saharan Africa, 1900–1945

A. Colonial Africa: Economic and Social Changes

1. Outside Algeria, Kenya, and South Africa, few Europeans lived in Africa. However, the very small European presence dominated the African economy and developed Africa as an exporter of raw materials that brought benefit to Europeans but to very few Africans.

2. Africans were forced to work in European-owned mines and plantations under harsh conditions for little or no pay. Colonialism provided little modern health care, and many colonial policies worsened public health, undermined the African family, and gave rise to large cities in which Africans experienced racial discrimination.

B. Religious and Political Changes

1. During the colonial period, many Africans turned toward Christianity or Islam. Missionaries introduced Christianity (except in Ethiopia, where it was indigenous). Islam spread through the influence and example of African traders.

2. The contrast between the liberal ideas imparted by Western education and the realities of racial discrimination under colonial rule contributed to the rise of nationalism. Early nationalist leaders and movements such as Blaise Diagne in Senegal, the African National Congress in South Africa, and Pan-Africanists like W. E. B. Dubois and Marcus Garvey from America had little influence until after World War II, when Africans who had served in the Allied war effort came back with new, radical ideas.

III. Mexico, Argentina, and Brazil, 1900–1949

A. Background to Revolution: Mexico in 1910

1. Upon independence in 1821, Mexican society was deeply divided; a few wealthy families of Spanish origin owned 85 percent of the land, while the majority of Indians and mestizos were poor peasants.

2. Concentration of land ownership increased after independence as wealthy families and American companies used bribery and force to acquire millions of acres of good agricultural land, forcing peasants into wage labor, and debt.

3. In 1910, General Porfirio Diaz (1830–1915) had ruled for thirty-four years. Diaz's policies had made Mexico City a modernized showplace and brought wealth to a small number of businessmen, but his rule was also characterized by discrimination against the nonwhite majority of Mexicans and a decline in the average Mexican's standard of living.

B. Revolution and Civil War in Mexico, 1911–1920

1. The Mexican Revolution was a social revolution and not the work of one party with a well-defined ideology; it developed haphazardly, led by a series of ambitious but limited men, each representing a different segment of Mexican society.

2. Francisco I Madero (1873–1913) overthrew Diaz in 1911, only to be overthrown in turn by General Victoriana Huerta in 1913. The Constitutionalists Venustiano Carranza and Alvaro Obregon emerged as leaders of the disaffected middle class and industrial workers, and they organized armies that overthrew Huerta in 1914.

3. Emiliano Zapata (1879–1919) led a peasant revolt in Morelos, south of Mexico City, while Francisco (Pancho) Villa organized an army in northern Mexico. Neither man was able to rise above his regional and peasant origins to lead a national revolution; Zapata was defeated and killed by the Constitutionalists in 1919, and Villa was assassinated in 1923.

4. The Constitutionalists took over Mexico after years of fighting, an estimated 2 million casualties, and tremendous damage. In the process, the Constitutionalists adopted many of their rivals' agrarian reforms and proposed a number of social programs designed to appeal to workers and the middle class.

5. The Mexican Revolution lost momentum in the 1920s. In 1928, President Obregon's successor, Plutarco Elias Calles, founded the National Revolutionary Party. Calles's successor, President Lazaro Cardenas, removed generals from government, redistributed land, replaced church-run schools with government schools, and expropriated the foreignowned oil companies that had dominated Mexico's petroleum industry.

6. When Cardenas's term ended in 1940, Mexico was still a land of poor farmers with a small industrial base. Nonetheless, the Mexican Revolution had established a stable political system, tamed the military and the Catholic Church, and laid the foundations for the later industrialization of Mexico. The revolution sparked new creativity in the arts, which reflected and fostered a new sense of national unity.

C. The Transformation of Argentina

1. At the end of the nineteenth century, the introduction of railroads and refrigerator ships transformed Argentina from an exporter of hides and wool to an exporter of meat. The introduction of Lincoln sheep and Hereford cattle for meat production led Argentine farmers to fence, plow, and cultivate the pampas, transforming the pampas into farmland hat, like the North American Midwest, became one of the world's great producers of meat and wheat.

2. Argentina's government represented the interests of the oligarquia, a small group of wealthy landowners. This elite had little interest in anything other than farming; they were content to let foreign companies, mainly British, build the railroads, processing plants, and public utilities. Argentina exported agricultural goods and imported almost all its manufactured goods.

D. Brazil and Argentina, to 1929

1. Brazil's elite of coffee and cacao planters and rubber exporters resembled the Argentine elite: they used their wealth to support a lavish lifestyle; allowed the British to build railroads, harbors, and other infrastructure; and imported all manufactured goods. Both Argentina and Brazil had small but outspoken middle classes that demanded a share in government and looked to Europe as a model.

2. The disruption of European industry and world trade in World War I weakened the landowning classes in Argentina and Brazil so that the urban middle class and the wealthy landowners shared power at the expense of the landless peasants and urban workers.

3. During the 1920s, peace and high prices for agricultural exports allowed both Argentina and Brazil to industrialize, but the introduction of new technologies left them again dependent on the advanced industrial countries. Aviation and radio communications were introduced to Argentina and Brazil during the 1920s, but European and U.S. companies dominated both sectors.

E. The Depression and the Vargas Regime in Brazil

1. The Depression hit Latin America very hard and marks a significant turning point for the region. As the value of their exports plummeted and their economies collapsed, Argentina and Brazil, like many European countries, turned to authoritarian regimes that promised to solve their economic problems.

2. In Brazil, Getulio Vargas (1883–1953) staged a coup and followed a policy that increased import duties and promotioned national firms and state-owned enterprises. In the process, industrialization brought all of the usual environmental consequences: mines, urbanization, slums, the conversion of scrubland to pasture, and deforestation.

3. Vargas instituted reforms that were beneficial to urban workers, but because he did nothing to help the landless peasants, the benefits of the economic recovery were unequally distributed. In 1938, Vargas staged a second coup, abolished the constitution, made Brazil a fascist state, and thus infected not only Brazil but all of South America with the temptations of political violence. He himself was overthrown in a military coup in 1954.

F. Argentina After 1930

1. Economically, the Depression hurt Argentina almost as badly as it did Brazil, but the political consequences were delayed for years. In 1930, General Jose Uriburu overthrew the popularly elected president and initiated thirteen years of rule by generals and the oligarquia.

2. In 1943, Colonel Juan Peron (1895–1974) led another coup and established a government that modeled itself on Germany's Nazi regime. As World War II turned against the Nazis, Peron and his wife Eva Duarte Peron appealed to urban workers to create a new base of support that allowed Peron to win the presidency in 1946 and to establish a populist dictatorship.

3. Peron's government sponsored rapid industrialization and spent lavishly on social welfare projects, depleting capital that Argentina had earned during the war. Peron was unable to create a stable government, and soon after his wife died in 1952, he was overthrown in a military coup.

IV. Conclusion

A. Politics and Economics under Imperialism

1. The peoples of sub-Saharan Africa and India remained under colonial rule after the war. Elites in these regions worked toward independence while ordinary people wanted social justice.

2. Though politically independent, Mexico, Argentina, and Brazil were economically tied to industrializing nations. Argentina and Brazil moved toward economic independence but fell victim to social unrest, militarism, and dictatorship in the process.

B. The Problems of Independence

1. Though India finally gained independence from colonial rule, the country was torn apart by ethnic conflict.

2. The desire for independence did not always unite people against colonial rulers because of the social, ethnic, and religious divisions within their populations.

CHAPTER 29

Outline Chapter 29: The Collapse of the Old Order, 1929–1949

I. The Stalin Revolution

A. Five-Year Plans

1. Joseph Stalin, the son of a shoemaker, was a skillful administrator who rose to leader of the Communist Party. Stalin then set about the task of industrializing the Soviet Union in such a way as to increase the power of the Communist Party domestically and to increase the power of the Soviet Union in relation to other countries.

2. Beginning in October 1928, Stalin devised a series of Five-Year Plans that were designed to achieve ambitious goals by instituting centralized state control over the economy. Under the Five-Year Plans, the Soviet Union achieved rapid industrialization, accompanied by the kind of environmental change that was experienced by the United States and Canada during their period of industrialization several decades earlier.

B. Collectivization of Agriculture

1. The Soviet Union squeezed the peasantry to pay for the massive investments required by the Five-Year Plans and to provide the necessary labor and food supplies required by the new industrial workers. The way the Soviet Union did this was to consolidate small farms into vast collectives that were expected to supply the government with a fixed amount of food and distribute what was left among their members.

2. Collectivization was an attempt to organize the peasants into an industrial way of life and to bring them and food supplies firmly under the control of the government. Collectivization was accomplished by the violent suppression of the better-off peasants (the kulaks) and disrupted agricultural production so badly that it caused a famine that killed some 5 million people after the bad harvests of 1933 and 1934.

3. The Second Five-Year Plan (1933–1937) was originally intended to produce consumer goods, but fear of the Nazi regime in Germany prompted Stalin to shift the emphasis to heavy industries and armaments. Consumer goods became scarce and food was rationed.

C. Terror and Opportunities

1. Stalin's policies of industrialization and collectivization could only be carried out by threats and by force. To prevent any possible resistance or rebellion, Stalin used the NKVD (secret police) to create a climate of terror that extended from the intellectuals and the upper levels of the party all the way down to ordinary Soviet citizens.

2. Many Soviet citizens supported Stalin's regime in spite of the fear and hardships. Stalinism created new opportunities for women to join the work force and for obedient, unquestioning people to rise within the ranks of the Communist Party, the military, the government, or their professions.

3. Stalin's brutal methods helped the Soviet Union to industrialize faster than any country had ever done. In the late 1930s, the contrast between the economic strength of the Soviet Union and the Depression troubles of the capitalist nations gave many the impression that Stalin's planned economy was a success.

II. The Depression

A. Economic Crisis

1. In the United States, the collapse of the New York stock market on October 29, 1929, caused a chain reaction in which consumers cut their purchases, companies laid off workers, and small farms failed.

2. On the international scale, the stock-market collapse led New York banks to recall their loans to Germany and Austria, thus ending their payment of reparations to France and Britain, who then could not repay their war loans to the United States. In 1930, the United States tried to protect its industries by passing the Smoot-Hawley tariff act; other countries followed suit, and world trade declined by 62 percent between 1929 and 1932.

B. Depression in Industrial Nations

1. France and Britain were able to escape the worst of the Depression by forcing their colonies to purchase their products. Japan and Germany suffered much more with German unemployment reaching twice that of Britain, and the heaviest burden in Japan falling on farmers and fishermen.

2. The Depression had profound political repercussions. In the United States, Britain, and France, governments used programs like the American New Deal in an attempt to stimulate their economies. In Germany and Japan, radical politicians devoted their economies to military build-up, hoping to acquire empires large enough to support self-sufficient economies.

C. Depression in Nonindustrial Regions

1. The Depression spread to Asia, Africa, and Latin America unevenly.

2. India and China were not dependent on foreign trade and thus were little affected. Countries that depended on exports of raw materials were devastated. In Latin America, the Depression led to the establishment of military dictatorships that tried to solve economic problems by imposing authoritarian control over their economies.

3. Southern Africa boomed during the 1930s. The increasing value of gold and the relatively cheaper copper deposits of Northern Rhodesia and the Belgian Congo led to a mining boom that benefited European and South African mine owners.

III. The Rise of Fascism

A. Mussolini's Italy

1. In postwar Italy, thousands of unemployed veterans and violent youths banded together in fasci di combattimento to demand action, intimidate politicians, and serve as strong-arm men for factory and property owners. Benito Mussolini became leader of the Fascist Party that, by 1921, had 300,000 members. Mussolini threatened to use them to march on Rome unless he was appointed prime minister. The government gave in.

2. In power, Mussolini installed Fascist Party members in all government jobs and crushed all sources of opposition. Mussolini and the Fascist movement excelled at propaganda and glorified war, but Mussolini's foreign policy was cautious.

3. The Italian Fascist movement was imitated by people in most European countries, Latin America, China, and Japan.

B. Hitler's Germany

1. Germany had been hard-hit by its defeat in World War I, the hyperinflation of 1923, and the Depression. Germans blamed Socialists, Jews, and foreigners for their troubles.

2. Adolf Hitler was an Austrian-born German army veteran who became leader of the National Socialist German Workers' Party (Nazis) and led them in an unsuccessful uprising in Munich in 1924. In 1925, Hitler published Mein Kampf, in which he laid forth his racial theories, his aspirations for the German nation, and his proposal to overcome all inferior races, including the Jews.

3. When the Depression hit Germany, the Nazis gained support from the unemployed and from property owners. Hitler assumed the post of chancellor in March 1933 and proceeded to assume dictatorial power, declaring himself Führer of the "Third Reich" in August 1934.

4. The Nazis economic and social policies were spectacularly effective. Public works contracts, a military build-up, and a policy of encouraging women to leave the workplace to release jobs for men led to an economic boom, low unemployment, and rising standards of living.

C. The Road to War, 1933–1939

1. To pursue his goal of territorial conquest, Hitler built up his armed forces and tested the reactions of other powers by withdrawing from the League of Nations, introducing conscription, and establishing an air force—all in violation of the Versailles treaty. Italy invaded Ethiopia in 1935, and Hitler sent ground troops into the Rhineland in 1936.

2. Hitler's and Mussolini's actions met with no serious objections from France, Britain, or the United States. Hitler was thus emboldened in 1938 to invade Austria and to demand the German-speaking portions of Czechoslovakia, to which the leaders of France, Britain, and Italy agreed in the Munich Conference of September 1938.

3. There were three causes for the weakness of the democracies—now called appeasement. The democracies had a deep-seated fear of war, they feared communism more than they feared Germany, and they believed that Hitler was an honorable man who could be trusted when he assured them at Munich that he had "no further territorial demands."

4. After Munich, it was too late to stop Hitler short of war. In March 1939, Hitler's invasion of Czechoslovakia inspired France and Britain to ask for Soviet help, but Hitler and Stalin were already negotiating the Nazi-Soviet Pact in which the two countries agreed to divide Poland between them.

IV. East Asia, 1931–1945

A. The Manchurian Incident of 1931

1. Ultranationalists, including young army officers, believed that Japan could end its dependence on foreign trade only if Japan had a colonial empire in China. In 1931, junior officers in the Japanese army guarding the railway in Manchuria made an explosion on the railroad track their excuse for conquering the entire province, an action to which the Japanese government acquiesced after the fact.

2. Japan built heavy industries and railways in Manchuria and northeastern China and sped up their rearmament. At home, the government grew more authoritarian, and mutinies and political assassinations committed by junior officers brought generals and admirals into government positions formerly controlled by civilians.

B. The Long March

1. The main challenge to the government of Chiang Kai-shek came from the Communist Party, which had cooperated with the Guomindang until Chiang arrested and executed Communists, forcing those who survived to flee to the remote mountains of Jiangxi province in southeastern China.

2. Mao Zedong (1893–1976) was a farmer's son and man of action who became a leader of the Communist Party in the 1920s. In Jiangxi, Mao departed from standard Marxist-Leninist ideology when he planned to redistribute land from the wealthy to the poor peasants to gain peasant (rather than industrial worker) support for a social revolution. Mao was also an advocate of women's equality, but the party reserved leadership positions for men, whose primary task was warfare.

3. The Guomindang army pursued the Communists into the mountains; Mao responded with guerilla warfare and with policies designed to win the support of the peasants. Nonetheless, in 1934, the Guomindang forces surrounded the Jiangxi base area and forced the Communists to flee on the Long March, which brought them, much weakened, to Shaanxi in 1935.

C. The Sino-Japanese War, 1937–1945

1. On July 7, 1937, Japanese troops attacked Chinese forces near Beijing, forcing the Japanese government to initiate a full-scale war of invasion against China. The United States and the League of Nations made no efforts to stop the Japanese invasion, and the poorly led and poorly armed Chinese troops were unable to prevent Japan from controlling the coastal provinces of China and the lower Yangzi and Yellow River Valleys within a year.

2. The Chinese people continued to resist Japanese forces, pulling Japan deeper into an inconclusive China war. In the conduct of the war, the Japanese troops proved to be incredibly violent, committing severe atrocities when they took Nanjing in the winter of 1937–1938 and initiating a "kill all, burn all, loot all" campaign in 1940.

3. The Chinese government of Chiang Kai-shek escaped to the mountains of Sichuan, where Chiang built up a large army to prepare for future confrontation with the Communists. In Shaanxi province, Mao built up his army, formed a government, and skillfully presented the Communist Party as the only group in China that was serious about fighting the Japanese.

V. The Second World War

A. The War of Movement

1. World War II, with the introduction of motorized weapons gave back the advantage to the offensive, as may be seen in Germany's blitzkrieg (lightning war) and in American and Japanese use of aircraft carriers.

2. The size and mobility of the opposing forces in World War II meant that the fighting ranged over vast theaters of operation, that belligerents mobilized the populations and economies of entire continents for the war effort, and that civilians were consequently thought of as legitimate targets.

B. War in Europe and North Africa

1. It took less than a month for Germany to conquer Poland. After a lull during the winter of 1939–1940, Hitler went on an offensive in March that made him the master of all of Europe between Spain and Russia by the end of June.

2. Hitler's attempt to invade Britain was foiled by the British Royal Air Force's victory in the Battle of Britain (June–September 1940). In 1941, Hitler launched a massive invasion of the Soviet Union; his forces, successful at first, were stopped by the winter weather of 1941–1942 and finally defeated at Stalingrad in February 1943, failing in his last chance of winning the war.

3. In Africa, the Italian offensive in British Somaliland and Egypt, although initially successful, was turned back by a British counterattack. German forces came to assist the Italians, but they were finally defeated at Al Alamein in northern Egypt by the British, who had the advantage of more plentiful weapons and supplies and better intelligence.

C. War in Asia and the Pacific

1. In July 1941, France allowed Japan to occupy Indochina; the United States and Britain responded by stopping shipments of steel, scrap iron, oil, and other products that Japan needed.

2. In response, the Japanese chose to go to war, hoping that a surprise attack on the United States would be so shocking that the Americans would accept Japanese control over Southeast Asia rather than continuing to fight against Japan. Japan attacked American forces at Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941, and proceeded to occupy all of Southeast Asia and the Dutch East Indies within the next few months.

3. By June 1942, the United States had destroyed four of Japan's six largest aircraft carriers; aircraft carriers were the key to victory in the Pacific, and since Japan did not have the industrial capacity to replace the carriers, the Japanese were now faced with a long and hopeless war.

D. The End of the War

1. By 1943, the Soviet Red Army was receiving supplies from factories in Russia and the United States. The Soviet offensive in the east, combined with Western invasions of Sicily and Italy in 1943 and of France in 1944, defeated Germany in May 1945.

2. By May 1945, American bombing and submarine warfare had devastated the Japanese economy and cut Japan off from its sources of raw materials, while Asians who had initially welcomed the Japanese as liberators from white colonialism were now eager to see the Japanese leave. The atomic bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki in August 1945 convinced Japan to sign terms of surrender early the next month.

3. Though some wondered if the atomic bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki was necessary, U.S. government officials argued that it ended the war a year earlier than it would have without it, and that it saved hundreds of thousands of American soldiers' lives.

E. Chinese Civil War and Communist Victory

1. After the Japanese surrender in September 1945, the Guomindang and Communist forces began a civil war that lasted until 1949. The Guomindang had the advantage of more troops and weapons and American support, but its brutal and exploitative policies and its printing of worthless paper money eroded popular support.

2. The Communists built up their forces with Japanese equipment gained from the Soviets and American equipment gained from deserting Guomindang soldiers. They won popular support, especially in Manchuria, by carrying out a radical land reform program. On October 1, 1949, Mao Zedong announced the founding of the People's Republic of China as Chiang Kai-shek's Guomindang forces were being driven off the mainland to Taiwan.

VI. The Character of Warfare

A. The Science and Technology of War

1. World War II was different from previous wars both in its enormous death toll and in the vast numbers of refugees that were generated during the war. The unprecedented scale of human suffering during the war was due to a change in moral values and to the appearance of new technologies of warfare.

2. Science had a significant impact on the technology of warfare, which can be seen in the application of scientific discoveries to produce synthetic rubber and radar, developments in cryptanalysis and antibiotics, the development of aircraft and missiles, and the U.S. government's organization of physicists and engineers to produce atomic weapons.

B. Bombing Raids

1. The British and Americans excelled at bombing raids that were intended not to strike individual buildings but to break the morale of the civilian population. Massive bombing raids on German cities caused substantial casualties, but German armament production continued to increase until late 1944, and the German people remained obedient and hardworking.

2. Japanese cities, with their wooden buildings, were also the targets of American bombing raids. Fire bombs devastated Japanese cities; the fire-bombing of Tokyo in March 1945 killed 80,000 people and left a million homeless.

C. The Holocaust

1. Nazi killings of civilians were part of a calculated policy of exterminating whole races of people.

2. German Jews were deprived of their citizenship and legal rights and herded into ghettoes, where many died of starvation and disease. In early 1942, the Nazis decided to apply modern industrial methods to slaughter the Jewish population of Europe in concentration camps like Auschwitz. This mass extermination, now called the Holocaust, claimed some 6 million Jewish lives.

3. Besides the Jews, the Nazis also killed Polish Catholics, homosexuals, Jehovah's Witnesses, Gypsies, and the disabled, all in the interests of "racial purity."

D. The Home Front in Europe and Asia

1. During World War II, the distinction between the front and the home front was blurred as rapid military movements and air power carried the war into people's homes. Armies swept through the land, confiscating anything of value; bombing raids destroyed entire cities; people were deported to die in concentration camps; and millions fled their homes in terror.

2. The war demanded enormous and sustained efforts from all civilians; in the Soviet Union and in the United States, industrial workers were pressed to turn out tanks, ships, and other war materiel. In the Soviet Union and in the other belligerent countries, mobilization of men for the military gave women significant roles in industrial and agricultural production.

E. The Home Front in the United States

1. Unlike the other belligerents, the United States flourished during the war, its economy stimulated by war production. Consumer goods were in short supply, so the American savings rate increased, laying the basis for the postwar consumer boom.

2. The war weakened traditional ideas by bringing women, African Americans, and Mexican Americans into jobs once reserved for white men. Migrations of African Americans north and west and of Mexican immigrants to the southwest resulted in overcrowding and discrimination in the industrial cities. Japanese Americans were rounded up and herded into internment camps because of their race.

F. War and the Environment

1. During the Depression, construction and industry had slowed down, reducing environmental stress. The war reversed this trend.

2. One source of environmental stress was the damage caused by war itself, but the main cause was not the fighting but the economic development—mining, industry, and logging—that was stimulated by the war.

VII. Conclusion

A. The peace after the Great War was an illusion. Stalin's totalitarian administration of his Five- Year Plans left millions dead from famine and peasants forcibly moved into industry or collective agriculture.

B. The Great Depression ruined the economies of industrialized nations and ruined trade relationships.

C. The economic problems led to the rise of totalitarian fascist leaders in Italy and Germany who launched a program of territorial expansion and aggression. Japan conquered Manchuria and began a war with China, already weakened from within by tension between the Chinese nationalists and the rising Communist Party.

D. German aggression led to the Second World War beginning in Europe in 1939, involving the United States by 1941, and ultimately including Asia and North Africa. Ending in 1945, World War II was the deadliest war in history, leading to the deaths of not only millions of military personnel but also millions of civilians. Hitler's war of extermination against the Jews was one cause of the civilian deaths, but the scientific and technological advances in warfare were also involved.

CHAPTER 30

Outline Chapter 30: The Cold War and Decolonization, 1945–1975

I. The Cold War

A. The United Nations

1. After World War II, western leaders perceived the Soviet Union as the center of a world revolutionary movement, while Soviet leaders felt themselves surrounded by the western countries and their North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO, founded in 1949). The United Nations provided a venue for face-to-face debate between the two sides in the Cold War.

2. The United Nations was established in 1945 with a General Assembly, Security Council, a full-time bureaucracy headed by the Secretary-General, and various specialized agencies. All signatories of the United Nations Charter renounced war and territorial conquest, but in practice, the United Nations was seldom able to forestall or quell international conflicts.

3. The decolonization of Africa and Asia greatly swelled the size of the General Assembly, which became an arena for expressing opinions and whose resolutions carried great weight in the early years of the United Nations. The influx of new members made the General Assembly more concerned with poverty, racial discrimination, and the struggle against imperialism than with the Cold War, and so the western powers increasingly ignored the General Assembly.

B. Capitalism and Communism

1. Between 1944 and 1946, the western capitalist countries created a new international monetary system in which supply and demand determined prices and that included a system of exchange rates, the International Monetary Fund, and the World Bank. The Soviet Union, suspicious of western intentions, established a closed monetary system in which the state allocated goods and set prices for itself and for the communist states of Eastern Europe.

2. The U.S. economy recovered and prospered during and after World War II. The economy of western Europe, heavily damaged during World War II, recovered in the postwar period with the help of the American Marshall Plan.

3. Western European governments sought to increase their role in economic management during this period. In 1948, Europeans initiated a process of economic cooperation and integration with the creation of the Organization of European Economic Cooperation, which expanded its membership as it developed into the European Economic Community, or Common Market (1957), and then into the European Community (1970).

4. The Soviet Union and eastern European states relied on the government to determine the production, distribution, and price of goods. In the communist states, the recovery from World War II was rapid at first, but in the long run, the Soviet

and eastern European economies were unable to match those of the west in the production of consumer goods, housing, and food.

C. West Versus East in Europe and Korea

1. The rapid establishment of communist regimes in eastern Europe led the United States to perceive the Soviet Union as a worldwide enemy. American perceptions led to the Truman Doctrine (1947) and to the establishment of NATO (1949).The Soviet Union organized a similar institution—the Warsaw Pact (1955)—after western powers decided to allow West Germany to rearm within limits set by NATO.

2. A third great war did not break out in Europe, but the Soviet Union and the West did test each other's resolve in incidents such as the Soviet blockade of West Berlin (1948–1949), the construction of the Berlin Wall (1961), and the West's encouragement of the rift between Yugoslavia and the Soviet Union. Soviet power was used to ensure the obedience of eastern European nations such as Hungary and Czechoslovakia.

3. In Korea, Soviet and American occupation of zones north and south of the thirty-eighth parallel led to the establishment, in 1948, of a communist North Korea and a noncommunist South Korea. North Korea's invasion of South Korea in 1950 marked the beginning of the Korean War, in which the United States came to the aid of South Korea, while China sent troops to assist the north. A truce in 1953 fixed the border again at the thirty-eighth parallel, but no peace treaty was concluded.

D. U.S. Defeat in Vietnam

1. After winning independence from France, communist North Vietnam supported a communist guerilla movement—the Viet Cong—against the noncommunist government of South Vietnam. John F. Kennedy decided to send American military advisers to assist South Vietnam, and President Lyndon Johnson gained congressional support for unlimited expansion of U.S. military deployment.

2. Unable to stop the Viet Cong and their North Vietnamese allies, the United States ended its involvement in Vietnam in 1973.

3. The Vietnam War brought significant casualties to both sides and gave rise to serious economic problems and to an antiwar movement in the United States.

E. The Race for Nuclear Supremacy

1. The existence of weapons of mass destruction affected all aspects of the Cold War confrontation, causing paranoia in the United States and spreading fear of nuclear destruction throughout the world. Fear of nuclear war seemed about to be realized when the Soviet Union deployed nuclear missiles to Cuba, but Khrushchev backed down and withdrew the missiles from Cuba.

2. The number, means of delivery, and destructive force of nuclear weapons increased enormously, but at the same time, the Soviet Union, the United States, and other countries made some progress on arms limitations. After 1972, the superpowers began the slow, arduous process of negotiating weapons limits.

3. Rather than attempting to keep up with the expensive Soviet-American arms race, the European nations sought to relax tensions between east and west through such organizations as the Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe, which led to the signing of the Helsinki Accords.

4. Space exploration was another offshoot of the nuclear arms race because the ability to launch satellites and to send manned rockets into space was understood to signify equivalent achievements in the military sphere.

II. Decolonization and Nation Building

A. New Nations in South and Southeast Asia

1. After partition in 1947, the independent states of India and Pakistan were strikingly dissimilar.

2. Pakistan defined itself in terms of religion, fell under the control of military leaders, and saw its Bengali-speaking eastern section secede to become the independent nation of Bangladesh in 1971. India, a secular republic with a 90 percent Hindu population, inherited a larger share of industrial and educational resources and was able to maintain unity despite its linguistic heterogeneity.

3. In Southeast Asia, the defeats that the Japanese inflicted on the British, French, and Dutch forces in World War II set an example of an Asian people standing up to European colonizers. In the postwar period, nationalist movements led to the independence of Indonesia (1949), Burma and the Malay Federation (1948), and the Philippines (1946.)

B. The Struggle for Independence in Africa

1. The postwar French government granted independence to Tunisia and Morocco between 1952 and 1956 but was determined to hold on to Algeria, which had a substantial French settler population, vineyards, and oil and gas fields. An Algerian revolt that broke out in 1954 was pursued with great brutality by both sides, but ended with French withdrawal and Algerian independence in 1962.

2. None of the several wars for independence in sub-Saharan Africa matched the Algerian struggle in scale. But even without war, the new states suffered from a variety of problems, including arbitrarily drawn borders, overdependence on export crops, lack of national road and railroad networks, and overpopulation.

3. Some of the politicians who led the nationalist movements devoted their lives to ridding their homelands of foreign occupation. Two examples are Kwame Nkrumah, the independence leader and later president of Ghana, and Jomo Kenyatta, who negotiated the independence and became first president of the Republic of Kenya.

4. The African leaders in the sub-Saharan French colonies were reluctant to call for independence because they realized that some of the colonies had bleak economic prospects and because they were aware of the importance of the billions of dollars of French public investment. Nevertheless, the French colonies achieved independence between 1958 and 1960.

5. Decolonization in Africa often involved struggles because people of European descent fought against indigenous Africans in an attempt to retain their personal privileges, control of resources, and political power. Race conflict was particularly severe in the southern part of Africa, including the Portuguese colonies of Angola and Mozambique, the British colony of Southern Rhodesia (Zimbabwe), and in South and Southwest Africa.

C. The Quest for Economic Freedom in Latin America

1. In Latin America, independence from European rule was achieved earlier, but American and European economic domination increased.

2. In Mexico, the revolutionary rhetoric of the ruling Institutional Revolutionary Party was accompanied by a large and persistent disparity between the rich and the poor, the urban and the rural. In Guatemala, President Jacobo Arbenz Guzman's attempt to expropriate the property of large landowners, including the United Fruit Company, prompted the U.S. Central Intelligence Agency to assist in a military coup that removed Arbenz from power and condemned Guatemala to decades of political instability and violence.

3. In the 1950s, the Cuban leader Fulgencio Batista presided over a corrupt, repressive regime, while the United States and a small class of wealthy Cubans dominated the economy. In 1959, Fidel Castro led a popular revolution that forced Batista to leave the country, redistributed land, lowered urban rents, raised wages, and seized the property of U.S. and Cuban corporations.

4. There is little evidence that Castro undertook his revolution to install a communist government, but faced with a U.S. blockade, he turned to the Soviet Union for economic aid, thereby committing his nation to economic stagnation and dependence on the Soviet Union. In April 1961, some fifteen hundred Cuban exiles whom the CIA had trained landed at the Bay of Pigs in Cuba in an effort to overthrow Castro, but the attempt failed partly because the United States did not supply all the air support that the plan had called for.

D. Challenges of Nation Building

1. Decolonization occurred on a vast scale and led to the establishment of dozens of new nations between 1945 and 1965. Each of these new nations had to establish some form of government, and most of them had to do so while facing severe economic challenges.

2. The new nations also had to address serious educational concerns, including questions such as which language to teach, how to inculcate a sense of national unity in places where it had not previously existed, and how to provide satisfying jobs for graduates. The new nations were rarely able to surmount these hurdles, and many nations, even those as successful as South Korea, opted for authoritarian rule.

III. Beyond a Bipolar World

A. The Third World

1. In 1955, Indonesia's President Sukarno hosted a meeting of twenty-nine African and Asian countries at Bandung, Indonesia. This meeting marked the beginning of an effort by the many new, poor, mostly non-European nations emerging from colonialism to gain more weight in the world by banding together in what became known as the nonaligned movement or Third World.

2. Leaders of the so-called Third World countries preferred the label nonaligned, but because the movement had the sympathy of the Soviet Union and included communist countries such as China and Yugoslavia, the West did not take the term nonaligned seriously.

3. For the movement's leaders, nonalignment was primarily a way of extracting money and support from one or both of the superpowers. One example is the ability of the Egyptian leaders Nasir and Sadat to play the two superpowers against each other to get assistance in hydroelectric projects, arms, and loans from both sides.

B. Japan and China

1. Both Japan and China were able to take advantage of the superpowers' preoccupation with the Cold War.

2. The American occupation (1945–1952) gave Japan a constitution that allowed the country only a limited self-defense force and banned the deployment of Japanese troops abroad. The Japanese stayed out of the Cold War and concentrated on building up their industries and engaging in world commerce, gradually developing new markets in Southeast Asia. The Japanese government aided Japanese business in developing three industries that were crucial to Japan's emergence as an economic superpower after 1975: electricity, steel, and shipbuilding.

3. China was deeply involved in Cold War politics, being allied to and receiving aid from the Soviet Union in the 1950s. The People's Republic of China (PRC) and the Soviet Union began to diverge in 1956, and Mao introduced his own radical policies with the disastrous Great Leap Forward in 1958 and with the Cultural Revolution, which was begun in 1966. The rift between the PRC and the Soviet Union opened so wide that President Richard Nixon was able to establish a cooperative relationship between the United States and China in the early 1970s.

C. The Middle East

1. As the Arab states slowly gained independence in the postwar years, the struggle with Israel came to overshadow all Arab politics.

2. After World War II, intense pressure to resettle European Jewish refugees forced Britain to turn the Palestine question over to the United Nations General Assembly, which voted in November 1947 to partition Palestine into two states, one Jewish and one Arab. Israel declared its independence in May 1948 and defeated the Palestinian and other Arab forces that attempted to crush the newborn state.

3. In a six-day war in 1967, Israel took Arab lands, including East Jerusalem, the West Bank, the Golan Heights, the Gaza Strip, and the Sinai Peninsula. The Palestine Liberation Organization, headed by Yasir Arafat, waged guerilla war against Israel and engaged in acts of terrorism.

4. The growing demand for oil in the postwar era prompted the oil-producing Arab states to form the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) in 1960. OPEC embargoed the United States and the Netherlands for their support of Israel during the Arab-Israeli war of 1972 and quadrupled oil prices in 1974.

D. The Emergence of Environmental Concerns

1. The Cold War and the tremendous postwar economic recovery focused public and government attention on technological innovation and enormous industrial projects; only a few people warned that technologies and industrial growth were rapidly degrading the environment.

2. The student protests of the late 1960s in the United States, France, Japan, and Mexico indicated a rising current of youth activism that focused attention on environmental problems.

IV. Conclusion

A. Cold War Tactics of the United States and Soviet Union

1. Both countries attempted to influence new governments formerly occupied by Axis powers. Both tried to establish military alliances against the other.

2. Each side saw their conflict coming from irreconcilable differences in social and economic systems. Each also emphasized the corruption, injustice, and unfairness of the other.

3. Real combat between the United States and the Soviet Union did not materialize, but it was played out in distant civil wars and regional conflicts, with support provided by the superpowers.

B. Cold War Era Nationalism

1. Nationalism played a major role after World War II in the desire of colonized peoples to gain independence, obscuring the contest between the main opponents of the Cold War.

2. Some long-time colonial peoples such as India gained their independence, while similar sentiments in China led to the overthrow of an elite government seen as weak in relations with western powers.

3. Many of the independence movements in Africa, the Middle East, and the Caribbean operated as traditional struggles for sovereignty. In Latin America, where nations had already achieved independence, the desire was for economic independence and an end to foreign intervention.

4. Independence movements in Korea and Vietnam arose at the end of Japanese control. The Soviet Union and communist China supported communist forces in those regions, while the United States committed large military forces to protect anticommunist forces.

C. The era also witnessed the beginning of international environmental concerns and efforts to stem global pollution.

CHAPTER 31

Outline Chapter 31: The End of the Cold War and the Challenge of Economic Development and Immigration, 1975–2000

I. Postcolonial Crises and Asian Economic Expansion

A. Revolutions, Depressions, and Democratic Reform in Latin America

1. The success of the Cuban Revolution both energized the revolutionary left throughout Latin America and led the United States to organize its political and military allies in Latin America in a struggle to defeat communism.

2. In Brazil, a coup in 1964 brought in a military government whose combination of dictatorship, use of death squads to eliminate opposition, and use of tax and tariff policies to encourage industrialization through import substitution came to be known as the Brazilian Solution. Elements of the Brazilian Solution were applied in Chile by the government of Augusto Pinochet, whose U.S.-assisted coup overthrew the socialist Allende government in 1973, and in Argentina by a military regime that seized power in 1974.

3. Despite reverses in Brazil, Chile, and Argentina, revolutionary movements persisted elsewhere. In Nicaragua, the movement overthrew the government of Anastasio Somoza and ruled until it was defeated in free elections in 1990. In El Salvador, the Farabundo Marti National Liberation Front (FMLN) fought a guerilla war against the military regime until declining popular support in the 1990s led the rebels to negotiate an end to the armed conflict and transform themselves into a political party.

4. The military dictatorships established in Brazil, Chile, and Argentina all came to an end between 1983 and 1990. All three regimes were brought down by their own excesses and by popular desires for a return to constitutional government.

5. By 2000, the United States had gained more influence in Latin America. This may be seen in the U.S. use of military force to intervene in Grenada in 1983 and in Panama in 1989.

6. The United States was then able to influence Latin American nations to reduce state involvement in the economy, called neoliberalism in Latin America. The result of fewer government protections for local industries was economic stress in some regions, such as in Venezuela where Hugo Chavez was elected president in 1998 and began rolling back the neoliberal reforms.

B. Islamic Revolutions in Iran and Afghanistan

1. Crises in Iran and Afghanistan threatened to involve the superpowers; the United States reacted to these crises with restraint, but the Soviet Union took a bolder and ultimately disastrous course.

2. In Iran, American backing and the corruption and inefficiency of Shah Muhammad Reza Pahlavi's regime stimulated popular resentment. In 1979, street demonstrations and strikes toppled the shah and brought a Shi'ite cleric, Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini, to power. The overthrow of an ally and the establishment of an anti-western, conservative Islamic republic in Iran were blows to American prestige, but the United States was unable to do anything about it.

3. In the fall of 1980, Iraqi leader Saddam Hussein invaded Iran to topple the Islamic republic. The United States supported Iran at first, but then in 1986 tilted toward Iraq.

4. The Soviet Union faced a more serious problem when it sent its army into Afghanistan in 1978 to support a newly established communist regime against a hodgepodge of local, religiously inspired guerilla bands that controlled much of the countryside. The Soviet Union's struggle against the American-backed guerillas was so costly and caused so much domestic discontent that the Soviet leaders withdrew their troops in 1989 and left the rebel groups to fight with each other for control of Afghanistan.

C. Asian Transformation

1. The Japanese economy grew at a faster rate than that of any other major developed country in the 1970s and 1980s, and Japanese average income outstripped that of the United States in the 1990s. This economic growth was associated with an industrial economy in which keiretsu (alliances of firms) received government assistance in the form of tariffs and import regulations that inhibited foreign competition.

2. The Japanese model of close cooperation between government and industry was imitated by a small number of Asian states, most notably by the Republic of Korea (known as South Korea), in which four giant corporations led the way in developing heavy industries and consumer industries. Hong Kong and Singapore—former British colonies—also developed modern industrial and commercial economies. All of these newly industrialized economies shared certain characteristics: discipline and hard-working labor forces, investment in education, high rates of personal savings, export strategies, and government sponsorship and protection.

3. Bad loans, weak banks, and the effects of international currency speculation caused the Asian financial crisis beginning in 1997, but the situation stabilized somewhat through the efforts of the United States and Japan and organizations such as the International Monetary Fund.

D. China Rejoins the World Economy

1. In China, after 1979, the regime of Deng Xiaoping carried out successful economic reforms that allowed private enterprise and foreign investment to exist alongside the inefficient state-owned enterprises. By 2009 China had become the world's third largest economy.

2. Being part of the global market meant that, when a world-wide crisis began in 2008, Chinese exports fell dramatically.

3. At the same time, the command economy remained in place and China resisted political reform, notably when the Communist Party crushed the protests in Tiananmen Square in 1989.

II. The End of the Bipolar World

A. Crisis in the Soviet Union

1. During the presidency of Ronald Reagan, the Soviet Union's economy was strained by the attempt to match massive U.S. spending on armaments, such as a space-based missile protection system. The Soviet Union's obsolete industrial plants, inefficient planned economy, declining standard of living, and unpopular war with Afghanistan fueled an underground current of protest.

2. When Mikhail Gorbachev took over the leadership in 1985, he tried to address the problems of the Soviet Union by introducing a policy of political openness (glasnost) and economic reform (perestroika).

B. The Collapse of the Socialist Bloc

1. Events in Eastern Europe were very important in forcing change on the Soviet Union. The activities of the Solidarity labor union in Poland, the emerging alliances between nationalist and religious opponents of the communist regimes, and the economic weakness of the communist states themselves led to the fall of communist governments across eastern Europe in 1989 and to the reunification of Germany in 1990.

2. The weakness of the central government and the rise of nationalism led to the dissolution of the Soviet Union in September 1991.

3. Ethnic and religious divisions also led to the dismemberment of Yugoslavia. Predominantly Roman Catholic, Slovenia and Croatia became independent states in 1992. Bosnia, a more ethnically mixed region, declared independence in 1992, followed by a period of ethnic cleansing by Orthodox Serbs who attempted to rid Bosnia of Muslims. The United States intervened in 1995, ending the fighting. New fighting broke out in 1999, however, in the southern region of Kosovo. The United States, Britain, and France joined in an aerial war against Serbia, who thought of Kosovo as their ancient homeland, to remove Serbian forces from the region.

C. Progress and Conflict in Africa

1. Democracy has had mixed results in Africa. Although southern Africa has enjoyed progress and a decline in armed conflicts since 1991, and elections that finally include the participation of an African majority since 1994, other areas of Africa have suffered from democratically elected leaders using a firm military hand over their people.

2. After a series of military governments, Nigeria elected President Olusegun Abasanjo (a former coup leader) in 1999 and again in 2003. In 2002, Kenya voted out of power the party that had held it for thirty-nine years.

3. Ethnic cleansing has also affected Africa. In 1994, Rwandan leaders incited the Hutu to massacre Tutsi neighbors, until millions were dead or displaced. In 1998, violence spread into Congo, where the dictatorial rule of Mobutu ended after three decades. By mid-2003, more than 3 million Congolese had died from disease, malnutrition, and warfare.

D. The Persian Gulf War

1. Iraq invaded Kuwait in August 1990 in an attempt to gain control of Kuwait's oil fields. Saudi Arabia felt threatened by Iraq's action and helped to draw the United States into a war in which American forces led a coalition that drove Iraq out of Kuwait but left Saddam Hussein in power.

2. The Persian Gulf War restored U.S. confidence in its military capability while demonstrating that Russia—Iraq's former ally—was impotent.

III. The Challenge of Population Growth

A. Demographic Transition

1. The population of Europe almost doubled between 1850 and 1914, and while some Europeans saw this as a blessing, Thomas Malthus argued that unchecked population growth would outstrip food production. In the years immediately following World War II, Malthus's views were dismissed as Europe and other industrial societies experienced a demographic transition to lower fertility rates.

2. The demographic transition did not occur in the Third World, where some leaders actively promoted large families until the economic shocks of the 1970s and 1980s convinced the governments of developing countries to abandon the pro-natalist policy.

3. World population exploded in the twentieth century, with most of the growth taking place in the poorest nations.

B. The Industrialized Nations

1. In the developed industrial nations of western Europe and Japan at the beginning of the twenty-first century, higher levels of female education and employment, the material values of consumer culture, and access to contraception and abortion have combined to produce low fertility levels. Low fertility levels combined with improved life expectancy will lead to an increasing number of retirees who will rely on a relatively smaller number of working adults to pay for their social services.

2. In Russia and the other former socialist nations, current birthrates are lower than death rates and life expectancy has declined.

C. The Developing Nations

1. In the twenty-first century, the industrialized nations will continue to fall behind the developing nations as a percentage of world population; at current rates, 95 percent of all future population growth will be in developing regions, particularly in Africa and in the Muslim countries.

2. In Asia, the populations of China and India continue to grow despite government efforts to reduce family size. It is not clear whether or not the nations of Asia, Africa, and Latin America will experience the demographic transition seen in the industrialized countries.

D. Old and Young Populations

1. Demographic pyramids generated by demographers illustrate the different age distributions in nations in different stages of economic development.

2. The developed nations face aging populations and will have to rely on immigration or increased use of technology (including robots) to maintain industrial and agricultural production at levels sufficient to support their relatively high standards of living and their generous social welfare programs.

3. The developing nations have relatively young and rapidly growing populations, but they face the problem of providing their people with education and jobs while struggling with shortages of investment capital and poor transportation and communications networks.

IV. Unequal Development and the Movement of Peoples

A. The Problem of Growing Inequality

1. Since 1945, the global economy has created unprecedented levels of material abundance. At the same time, the industrialized nations of the Northern Hemisphere have come to enjoy a larger share of the world's wealth than they did a century ago; the majority of the world lives in poverty.

2. Regional inequalities within nations have also grown in both the industrial countries and in the developing nations.

B. Internal Migration: The Growth of Cities

1. Migration from rural areas to urban centers in the developing world increased threefold from 1925 to 1950 and accelerated rapidly after 1950.

2. Migrants to the cities generally enjoyed higher incomes and better standards of living than they would have in the countryside, but as the scale of rural to urban migration grew, these benefits became more elusive. Migration placed impossible burdens on basic services and led to burgeoning slums and crime in the cities of the developing world.

C. Global Migration

1. Migration from the developing world to the developed nations increased substantially after 1960, leading to an increase in racial and ethnic tensions in the host nations. Immigrants from the developing nations brought the host nations the same benefits that the migration of Europeans brought to the Americas a century before.

2. Immigrant communities in Europe and the United States are made up of young adults and tend to have fertility rates higher than the rates of the host populations. In the long run, this will lead to increases in population in Europe and the United States, and to cultural conflicts over the definitions of citizenship and nationality.

V. Technological and Environmental Change

A. New Technologies and the World Economy

1. New technologies developed during World War II increased productivity, reduced labor requirements, and improved the flow of information when they were applied to industry in the postwar period.

2. Improvements in existing technologies accounted for much of the world's productivity increases during the 1950s and 1960s. The improvement and widespread application of the computer was particularly significant because it transformed office work and manufacturing.

3. Transnational corporations became the primary agents of these technological changes. In the post-World War II years, transnational corporations with multinational ownership and management became increasingly powerful and were able to escape the controls imposed by national governments by shifting or threatening to shift production from one country to another.

B. Conserving and Sharing Resources

1. In the 1960s, environmental activists and political leaders began warning about the environmental consequences of population growth, industrialization, and the expansion of agriculture onto marginal lands. Environmental degradation was a problem in both the developed and developing countries; it was especially severe in the former Soviet Union. In attempting to address environmental issues, the industrialized countries faced a contradiction between environmental protection and the desire to maintain rates of economic growth that depended on the profligate consumption of goods and resources.

2. In the developing world, population growth led to extreme environmental pressure as forests were felled and marginal land developed to expand food production. This led to erosion and water pollution.

C. Responding to Environmental Threats

1. The governments of the United States, the European Community, and Japan took a number of initiatives to preserve and protect the environment in the 1970s. Environmental awareness spread by means of the media and grassroots political movements, and most nations in the developed world enforced strict antipollution laws and sponsored massive recycling efforts.

2. These efforts, many of them made possible by new technology, produced significant results. But in the developing world, population pressures and weak governments were major obstacles to effective environmental policies.

VI. Conclusion

A. Postwar Economic Prosperity

1. The end of the Cold War came as a result of economic stress and political changes in the Soviet Union.

2. Postwar recovery by the industrial powers, Japan, the Asian Tigers, and ultimately China provided worldwide economic growth. International markets were more integrated and open than at any other time.

B. Postwar Inequality

1. The new postwar prosperity has not been shared equally throughout the world. The capitalist West and a few Asian nations have grown more economically powerful, while most of the world's nations remain poor.

2. Population growth in developing nations has diminished chances for economic growth. People in developing nations began migrating increasingly to industrial nations, providing valuable labor for factories and farms.

3. Growing inequality, population growth, and international migration remain problems for the global community.

CHAPTER 32

Outline Chapter 32: New Challenges in a New Millennium

I. Globalization and Economic Crisis

A. An Interconnected Economy

1. Economic growth in China and India, along with their large populations, made them future world economic powers. These nations and the United States increased their demand for oil to the point that the price per barrel rose from $20 in 1999 to $70 in 2006, then fell abruptly during the economic crisis of 2008.

2. To promote economic growth and reduce vulnerabilities, many countries formed free-trade zones and regional trade associations. The strengthening of the European Union (EU) and the creation of the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) were notable examples of this trend.

3. The Shanghai Cooperation Organization (SCO) was formed in 2001 with China, Russia, and four former U.S.S.R. regions initially for the purposes of collective security. Oil-rich Iran applied for membership in 2008.

4. The World Trade Organization (WTO) was founded in 1995 to encourage reduced trading barriers and enforce international trade agreements. The organization has numerous vocal critics. The International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank provide assistance to countries in economic trouble, but few expected the drastic downturn in the global economy.

B. Global Financial Crisis

1. The 2008 financial crisis had roots in the Asian crisis of 1997 when the investment boom in Asian countries burst. Money then flowed the other way, much to the U.S., allowing the U.S. to fight two wars while lowering taxes.

2. In 2008 the U.S. housing boom collapsed causing devaluation in housing and generating a large number of home foreclosures. U.S. financial firms and banks teetered on the brink of collapse. Unemployment increased. U.S. presidential candidate Barack Obama won the election in part from faith in his ability to stem the economic crisis.

C. Globalization and Democracy

1. In the last decades of the twentieth century, the number of democratic institutions increased throughout the world.

2. The great appeal of democracy is that it allows for the peaceful resolution of differences among a country's social, cultural, and regional groups, and reduces the threat of war between democratic nations.

3. The economic crisis of 2008 caused some new democratic governments to fall.

4. Democracy in Pakistan seemed uncertain; President Pervez Musharraf stepped down rather than face impeachment because of his support of the U.S. The government also faced growing strength of the Pakistani Taliban.

5. Asian countries have moved toward more open political processes. The election of the BJP in India increased tensions between India's Hindus and Muslims. In 2004, the BJP lost a national election to the Congress Party and peacefully handed over power.

6. With the notable exception of South Africa, elections in sub-Saharan Africa have often been used by would-be dictators as the first step in establishing their political and military dominance. In Sudan, violence in Darfur led to Omar al-Bashir becoming the first sitting head of state to be charged with genocide by the International Criminal Court in 2009.

D. Regime Change in Iraq and Afghanistan

1. Experiments in democracy took place in Afghanistan and Iraq after the United States overthrew both regimes.

2. Ruled by the Taliban at the time of the 9/11 attacks, and harboring Usama bin Laden, Afghanistan became the target of the United States in December 2001. With the fall of the Taliban, Hamid Karzai was elected interim president in 2002 and was Afghanistan's first democratically elected president in 2004.

3. Afghanistan's government has not proven strong enough to control warlords in some outlying regions, and it has had to fight attempts by the Taliban to regain power. Despite efforts to the stem production, the majority of Afghanistan's agricultural income comes from opium production.

4. The United States began a preemptive strike against Iraq on March 20, 2003, under the belief that Iraq held weapons of mass destruction (WMDs), although United Nations weapons inspectors had not found any evidence of WMDs in Iraq. When no WMDs were found, President George W. Bush then stated that the reason for the invasion was to liberate the Iraqi people from oppression and install a democracy.

5. After "major fighting" ended in Iraq, the United States led Iraqis through the steps to a constitutionally elected government in January 2005. As democracy took shape in Iraq, they also endured a guerilla insurgency and, after the election of a Shi-ite majority, conflict between Shi-ite and Sunni factions, verging on civil war. By the time Barak Obama took office, however, signs of stabilization led him to announce withdrawal of U.S. combat forces by August 2010.

6. The hardships of democratization in Iraq and Afghanistan led other Middle Eastern countries to question U.S. urgings to liberalize their political systems. The capture of 23 seats in the Lebanese parliament by Hezbollah in 2005 and the majority of seats won by Hamas in the Palestine Governing Council seemed to confirm for oil-producing countries their hesitancy to hold free elections. In 2007, Hamas attacks against Israel led to aerial bombardment by Israel on the Gaza Strip.

II. The Question of Values

A. Faith and Politics

1. Evangelical Protestants became a powerful, conservative political force in the United States, particularly during the presidency of George W. Bush. Catholic conservatives led opposition to abortion, homosexuality, marriage of priests, and admission of women to the priesthood. Israel's hyper-orthodox Jews, known as haredim, vehemently resisted both Israel's unilateral withdrawal from Gaza in 2005 and plans for withdrawal from parts of the West Bank. In India, Hindu zealots made the BJP party a powerful political force.

2. The birth of the Islamic Republic of Iran in 1979 made the current of Muslim political assertiveness visible to all, but by the year 2000, acts of terrorism by non-Iranian Muslim groups claiming to be acting for religious reasons were capturing the headlines. Media technology increased terrorism's effectiveness as a political tactic from the 1980s onward, especially with spectacular attacks against the United States and Europe.

3. Most notorious of the terrorists was the Saudi-born charismatic leader Usama bin Laden.Through his group of fighters called al-Qaeda, he attacked American embassies, the U.S. Navy destroyer Cole, and the World Trade Center and the Pentagon in 2001. Further terrorist attacks by Indonesians in 2002, North Africans in 2004, and English-born Muslims in 2005 suggested that the violence begun by al-Qaeda had become decentralized and that recruits might no longer be taking orders from bin Laden. Debate has not settled on the reasons for the increasing violence but fear of terrorism became pervasive throughout the world, and many peaceful Muslims found themselves suspect because of their beliefs.

B. Universal Rights and Values

1. The United Nations sought to protect the rights of individuals through the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, passed by the General Assembly in December 1948. The declaration's emphasis on individual rights was derived mostly from European and American history; many of the countries that later signed this declaration had reservations about the universal nature of concepts that had been formulated exclusively on the basis of the western cultural tradition.

2. Rather than addressing fundamental philosophical issues regarding the concept of human rights, human rights activists worked through nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) and focused their efforts on agreed-upon violations of human rights: torture, imprisonment without trial, and summary execution by death squads, and on famine relief and refugee assistance.

3. U.S. demands that its citizens be exempted from the jurisdiction of the International Criminal Court and that "enemy combatants" taken prisoner during the "war on terrorism" did not have to be treated in accordance with the Third Geneva Convention, and its withdrawal from the Kyoto agreement has prompted charges of hypocrisy from critics of the U.S. government. The election of Barak Obama, the first African-American president of the U.S., seemed to signal a change in American attitudes on international rights issues.

C. Women's Rights

1. Positions on the question of women's rights clearly demonstrate the dichotomy of views between the western industrialized nations and the nations of Africa, Asia, and Latin America.

2. The feminist movement in the west was concerned with voting rights, equal access to education and jobs, and an end to gender discrimination and sexual exploitation. Feminists in the west also decried the oppression of women in other parts of the world.

3. Some nonwestern women complained about the deterioration of morality and family life in the west and questioned the priorities of the western feminist movement. Efforts to coordinate the struggle for women's rights internationally gained momentum in the 1970s, but these efforts were not able to overcome deep-seated cultural disagreement on the definition of women's rights.

4. International conferences have focused attention on women's issues more than they have generated solutions. On the other hand, increasing women's education, better employment opportunities, political participation, and control of fertility are goals that promise to lead to better gender equality.

III. Global Culture

A. The Media and the Message

1. After World War II, the United States became the world's main exporter of movies, challenged only by India, Egypt, and Hong Kong.

2. In the 1960s, television began to spread to most of the nonwestern world, where government monopolies ensured that the new medium would be used to disseminate a unified national viewpoint rather than function as a medium for the transmission of western culture and opinions. American organizations like CNN (Cable News Network) used satellite transmission technology to enter the international market, proffering a fundamentally American view of the news. In response to CNN, other countries have developed their own twenty-four-hour news coverage, such as Al-Jazeera, based in the Persian Gulf emirate of Qatar, which interprets the news of the Iraq War, for instance, from a different perspective than U.S. news media.

3. The development of digital technology offered the possibility of combining the separate technologies of movies, television, and computers, while the development of the Internet transformed business and education. These technological innovations could be seen as portents of western—especially American—cultural domination, but as technology became more widespread, people around the world had more opportunities to adapt that technology to their own purposes.

B. The Spread of Pop Culture

1. The new technologies helped change perceptions of culture by allowing popular culture to become more and more visible. At the beginning of the twentieth century, European composers, choreographers, writers, and artists drew on popular cultures to inspire and enliven their work.

2. Initially, the content was heavily American but consumer products of American, European, and Japanese transnational companies found their way into international markets and filmmakers began to be inspired by global themes for international audiences.

C. Emerging Global Culture

1. Cultural links across national and ethnic boundaries at the elite level generated much less controversy than did the globalization of popular culture. Russian-American collaboration on space missions and in the business world, the flow of graduate students and researchers from around the world to American scientific laboratories, and the use of English as a global language were all aspects of globalization at the elite level.

2. The importance of English as a global language became evident in the emergence of an international literature in English, though world literature remained highly diverse..

3. Western universities have become the model for higher education around the world.

D. Enduring Cultural Diversity

1. Diverse cultural traditions persisted at the end of the twentieth century despite the globalization of industrial society and the integration of economic markets. Japan, for example, has been a success in the modern industrial world in spite of—or perhaps because of—its group-oriented, hierarchical approach to social relations.

2. The economic success of Japan and other Asian countries calls into question the longstanding western assumption that all of world history culminated in the exceptional convergence of political freedom, secularism, and industrialization that emerged in the west. Also coming into question was whether industrialization offered the only viable route to prosperity.